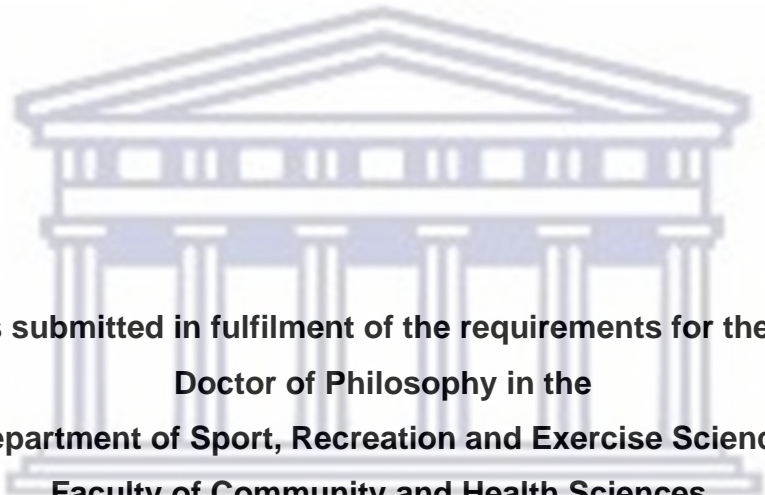


**AN ANALYSIS OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF DSAC's CLUB DEVELOPMENT
PROGRAMMES: CASE STUDIES OF SELECTED COMMUNITY FOOTBALL
CLUBS IN KWAZULU-NATAL AND THE WESTERN CAPE**

JAKOBO JACOB MOROE

3515704

The logo of the University of the Western Cape, featuring a classical building with a pediment and columns.

**A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy in the
Department of Sport, Recreation and Exercise Science,
Faculty of Community and Health Sciences,
University of the Western Cape**

Supervisor: Professor Marion Keim
Co-Supervisor: Professor Christo De Coning

Submitted: May 2023

COPYRIGHT STATEMENT

The thesis may not be published either in part (in scholarly, scientific or technical journals), or as a whole (as a monograph), unless permission has been obtained from the university. Anyone wishing to use the content of this thesis must do so, provided that the author is always and fully acknowledged.



KEYWORDS

Sport

Sport Development

Club Development Programme

Programme design

Programme implementation

Programme management

Leadership

Governance

Public policy

KwaZulu-Natal

Western Cape



ABSTRACT

Scholars such as Seippel and Belbo (2021), Robertson, Eime and Westerbeek (2018) and Sotiriadou and Wicker (2013) regard community sports clubs as a panacea for the challenges associated with building social capital, social engagement and community cohesion. In the South African context, the Club Development Programme (CDP) is a key initiative of the Department of Sports, Arts and Culture (DSAC) which was introduced in 2006 to promote community sport development. However, there is scant academic research that has examined the design and implementation of this programme with a view to understanding its challenges and/or success factors. Premised on a management theoretical framework, the focus of which is primarily on the design and implementation of community sport development programmes, this qualitative study examined the design and implementation of the CDP in South Africa through the lenses of two purposively selected provinces: the Western Cape (WC) and KwaZulu-Natal (KZN). These provinces were targeted on the basis that they were reported to have a better system to implement the CDP (Club development coordinators, 2017).

The findings of this study revealed that the CDP has been operating without any existing substantive model to demonstrate how the programme ought to be designed and implemented effectively in South African communities. Therefore, priorities to be addressed for the effective implementation of the CDP in the South African setting include that: platforms to be prioritised to strengthen relationships with key stakeholders to give valuable input; good systemic governance at club and federation level need to be promoted; mechanisms to be introduced to prevent the abuse of power within the CDP; the CDP management needs to be diligent in recruiting new personnel to the programme; all of the programme coordinators must undergo rigorous training to enable them to acquire knowledge and skills to implement, monitor and evaluate the programme effectively; a succession plan must be prioritised for the CDP administrators; quality equipment and clothing be distributed equally to clubs that have not yet received them; and programme coordinators must frequently invite community clubs to the CDP planning sessions. This study contributes to the limited and growing academic literature on the design and effective implementation of community sports club programmes with reference to South Africa and Africa at large.

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that **An Analysis of the implementation of DSAC's Club Development Programmes: Case studies of selected community football clubs in KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape** is my own work, that has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as complete references.

Printed name: Jakobo Jacob Moroe



Signed



DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the Moroe family, particularly my wife (Mrs Mulalo Moroe), my two boys (Tlotliso and Omolemo Moroe), and my parents (Mr Rantanti Moroe, Mrs Mittah Moroe, Ms Mamosiya Moroe) for their continued love, support and prayers.

As for my wife, I do not think I would have completed my studies if it were not for your understanding, unconditional love, constant prayers and unwavering support since the early years of my PhD journey.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

From the bottom of my heart, I sincerely wish to recognise the following people who have played a significant role and have contributed uniquely in ensuring that I complete my thesis successfully (in no particular order of importance):

- God – for carrying me throughout this PhD journey. Thank you profusely for granting me the strength, wisdom and spirit of resilience to be committed, dedicated and to stay focused when I wanted to quit my studies. Most importantly, thank you, Almighty for carrying me through this stage. Thank you for your protection.
- My PhD thesis supervisors (Professor Marion Keim and Professor Christo De Coning) – thank you for your willingness to supervise and mentor me. You believed in the topic more than I did, and for that, I thank you. I am enduringly grateful for your guidance, advice, leadership, continued support and dedication towards my PhD journey. You will always have a special place in my heart. Thank you for your constructive criticism and for challenging me to bring out the best in myself.
- My wife (Mulalo Moroe) – Thank you for showing interest in my dreams, for supporting them and for being my support structure on this journey. I know that most of the time you felt lonely on this journey, but you understood the mandate, believed in me, supported me and always kept me in your prayers. Thank you for taking care of the household responsibilities while I was not around, pursuing my dreams. Thank you for the intellectual questions you posed concerning my research topic. Now that I am done, this is our victory together.
- Professor Simeon Davies (HoD: Sport Management Department) – You are the most incredible line manager ever. Thank you for always believing in me, for your continued invaluable support, and for always having my best interests at heart. Your motivation and words of encouragement are deeply felt. I appreciate your friendship.
- The Sport Management staff – especially Professor Sharhidd Taliep and Dr Sacha West for the inspiring conversations we had and for always

encouraging me to stay focused. The departmental secretary (Mrs Fazeela Salie), thank you for always responding swiftly with administrative support.

- Professor Brendon Knott – This research would not have been possible without you in my life. I am eternally grateful for the immense support, guidance and love you have always given me. Thank you for taking the time out of your busy schedule and for volunteering to be a critical reader for the entire thesis and not expecting any payment. Your input and advice since the early stages of my PhD journey are indeed immeasurable. Thank you for not just being a colleague, but also a good friend and the brother I never had. You are always there for me and forever willing to listen to anything I share with you without judging me. You always come through for me. Thank you for never getting tired of me even if I call you when you are busy.
- Dr Blessing Makwambeni and Dr Patricia Makwambeni – I am indebted for the mentorship, guidance and continued support you have given me since I met you. Thank you for always opening your home to me. I have found much comfort in your home. Your presence in my life has healed me greatly in so many ways. I was broken during the PhD journey. I got stuck, and I wanted to quit, but you always encouraged and pushed me. Thank you for checking up on me and ensuring that my mental well-being and health matter to you. Thank you for always being hospitable and for providing me with accommodation whenever needed. Your love and infinite support will never go unnoticed.
- Dr Janice Hemmonsby – Thank you profusely for your support and words of encouragement. Your support, guidance and assistance will never leave my heart. Your advice throughout my journey was impactful and will never be forgotten. Thank you for returning my calls no matter how busy you may be.
- Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT), the Research Directorate and the National Research Fund (NRF) South Africa – Thank you, CPUT for facilitating postgraduate workshops that enabled me to gain more knowledge on research processes and for paying my fees in full to enrol at the University of the Western Cape (UWC). I would also like to extend my sincere gratitude to the NRF for affording me sufficient funding to cover a replacement lecturer, for running and travelling costs for a period of three years through the Black Advancement Academic Programme (BAAP) to complete my studies. If it were

not for the resources you furnished, it would have been extremely difficult, frustrating, expensive and impossible to complete my studies. Special thanks go to Professor Paul Green (Dean: Faculty of Business and Management Science) for his constant support in approving my study leave request to complete my thesis, and to Dr Patricia Smit for always pushing me to finish.

- Mrs Shafeeqah Hendricks (CPUT-NRF Research Finance Administrator) – For the untiring technical and administrative financial support that you have given me. Thank you for your golden heart and for always going beyond the call of duty to ensure that I have access to funding. Your professional work ethic is unparalleled. I do not know what I would have done without your unwavering support.
- Fieldworkers and targeted participants – I appreciate all the time, dedication and effort you took in assisting me to collect rich data. A special vote of thanks goes to Mr Ayanda Ndlovu for the sacrifices you have made in becoming a lead translator during the data collection in various communities in eThekweni.
- Academic and sport industry colleagues – Thank you all for the long heartfelt conversations we had about my research journey and the position of the club development programme in South Africa. Special thanks go to Prof Marie Young, Prof Habib Noorbhai, Prof Simone Titus, Mr Thabo Tutu, Mr Teboho Thebehae and Ms Siphokazi Matholengwe for the invaluable contribution you have made to my study. Your criticisms, guidance, advice and continued support have made my research journey a pleasant one. Thank you for always engaging me.
- Mr Landille Mphephuka (late uncle) and Mrs Sina Legethe (mom-in-law) – For your constant unconditional support and prayers. Thank you for your words of encouragement and for always reminding me to work hard so that you can attend my graduation. The long wait is over now! See you at the graduation.

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ASOIF	Association of Summer Olympic International Federation
AU	African Union
CCPR	Central Council for Physical Recreation
CD	Community Development
CDP	Club Development Programme
CDR	Committees for the Defence of the Revolution
CoE	Cost of Employment
CROs	Community Recreation Officers
CSD	Community Sport Development
CSP	Community Sport Programme
DSAC	Department of Sport, Arts and Culture
EC	European Commission
EIEFD	Escuela Internacional de Educación Física y Deporte
EU	European Union
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FIFA	Fédération Internationale de Football Association
GAMPHIF	Governance, Administration, Membership, Participation, Human Resources, Infrastructure and Assets, and Finance and Fundraising
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GoF	Group of Friends
HFPOs	Health and Fitness Promotion Officers
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
I&DeA	Improvement and Development Agency
IHRB	Institute for Human Rights and Business
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INSER	Institute of National Sports, Education, and Recreation
IOC	International Olympics Committee
IYSPE	International Year for Sport and Physical Education
KZN	KwaZulu-Natal
LFAs	Local Football Associations

MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
NDP	National Development Plan
NGBs	National Governing Bodies
NSRP	National Sport and Recreation Plan
NPP	Nine-Point Plan
NGOs	Non-Government Organisations
NPOs	Non-Profit Organisations
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SA	South Africa
SASCOC	South African Sports Confederation and Olympic Committee
SASReCon	South African Sport and Recreation Conference
SD	Sport Development
SDC	Sport Development Continuum
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SDOs	Sport Development Officers
SfD	Sport for Development
SfDP	Sport for Development and Peace
SHRM	Strategic Human Resources Management
SMPP	Siyadlala Mass Participation Programme
SPOs	Sport Promotion Officers
SDP IWG	Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group
SNDEL	Secretaria Nacional de Desenvolvimento de Esporte e Lazer
SNEAR	Secretaria Nacional de Esporte de Alto Rendimento
SNEED	Secretaria Nacional de Esporte Educacional
SNELIS	Secretaria Nacional de Esporte, Lazer e Inclusão Social
SNFDT	Secretaria Nacional de Futebol e Direito do Torcedor
SONA	State of the Nation Address
SRSA	Sport and Recreation South Africa
SSA	Statistics South Africa
SSMPP	School Sport Mass Participation Programme (SSMPP)
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations

UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNIATF	United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund
UNOSDP	United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace
USA	United States of America
VSCs	Voluntary Sports Councils
WC	Western Cape
WEF	World Economic Forum
WICB	West Indies Cricket Board
WHO	World Health Organization



TABLE OF CONTENTS

COPYRIGHT STATEMENT	ii
KEYWORDS	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
DEDICATION	vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vii
LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS.....	x
LIST OF TABLES	xvii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xvii
THESIS LAYOUT	1
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION.....	3
1.1 Background to the study	3
1.2 Problem statement.....	5
1.3 Research questions.....	6
1.4 Research aims	6
1.5 Research objectives	6
1.6 Significance of the study.....	6
1.7 Overview of the methodological approach	7
1.7.1 Research design and methods.....	7
1.7.2 Research setting.....	7
1.7.3 Study population and sampling	8
1.8 Limitations, scope and assumptions of the study.....	8
1.9 Summary.....	8
CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH.....	9
2.1 Introduction	9
2.2 Key concepts of sport in the context of development	9
2.2.1 Sport definitions	11
2.2.2 Concepts overview: Sport development and Sport for Development.....	18
2.3 Sport and human rights.....	25
2.4 Concepts of community in the context of sport development.....	26
2.4.1 Defining communities	26

2.4.2 Community development through sport.....	30
2.4.3 Community Sport Development (CSD).....	33
2.4.4 Key stakeholders in Community Sport Development (CSD).....	34
2.5 Organisational capacity in community sports clubs	35
2.5.1 Defining organisational capacity	36
2.5.2 Community Capacity Building.....	38
2.5.3 Building sustainable programme through partnership.....	40
2.5.4 The benefits of partnership.....	45
2.5.5 The roles and responsibilities of a good partnership working.....	47
2.6 Summary	49
CHAPTER THREE: INTERNATIONAL CONCEPTS ON CLUB DEVELOPMENT ...	50
3.1 Introduction	50
3.2 Characteristics of sports clubs in Europe.....	50
3.3 International policy on sport and development	55
3.3.1 Policy definitions in the sport context	59
3.3.2 Governance in programme management	60
3.3.3 Politics in the context of sport environment.....	62
3.4 The views of sports clubs as a panacea for community development.....	66
3.5 The overview of sports clubs: Countries perspective.....	69
3.5.1 Sports clubs in Austria	70
3.5.2 Sports clubs in Denmark.....	71
3.5.3 Sports clubs in England.....	72
3.5.4 Sports clubs in Finland.....	74
3.5.5 Sports clubs in France	76
3.5.6 Sports clubs in Germany.....	78
3.5.7 Sports clubs in Greece.....	81
3.5.8 Sports clubs in Italy.....	83
3.5.9 Sports clubs in the Netherlands	84
3.5.10 Sports clubs in Australia.....	86
3.5.11 Sports clubs in Canada	90
3.5.12 Sport in Latin America	91
3.5.13 Lessons and experiences of the development of community football clubs: From policy to practice in Africa	114

3.6 Summary	127
CHAPTER FOUR: CLUB DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT	129
4.1 Introduction	129
4.2 The formulation of the South African sport policy.....	129
4.3 The overview of community sports clubs in South Africa	131
4.3.1 The evolution of community sports clubs	132
4.3.2 The significance of community sports clubs.....	133
4.3.3 Social capital as a panacea for community sport development	136
4.3.4 Overview of social capital concepts	137
4.3.5 Common characteristics of social capital.....	137
4.4 Lessons to be learnt for community sport development programmes	138
4.5 Programme design	141
4.6 Programme management.....	142
4.7 Programme implementation	146
4.8 Club development toolkit	151
4.9 Good practices in developing and sustaining community sports clubs in South Africa.....	155
4.10 Summary.....	164
CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	167
5.1 Introduction	167
5.2 Research methods and methodology.....	167
5.3 Research design	172
5.4 Data collection procedure.....	173
5.5 Research instruments	175
5.5.1 Primary data.....	177
5.5.2 Secondary data	177
5.5.3 Triangulation	178
5.6 Research setting	178
5.7 Study population and sampling procedure	178
5.8 Data preparation and analysis procedure	183
5.9 Ethical considerations	186
5.10 Summary.....	187

CHAPTER SIX: FIELDWORK RESULTS AND RESEARCH FINDINGS ON DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF CLUB DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME	188
6.1 Introduction	188
6.2 Presentation of fieldwork results and research findings	189
6.2.1 Theme one: The dominant approaches and practices informing the design and implementation of the CDP in South Africa.....	189
6.2.2 Theme two: Success factors important for the implementation of the CDP in South African communities	190
6.2.3 Model or framework used to assess the outputs, outcomes and impacts of the CDP's implementation	212
6.2.4 Factors important to improving the implementation of the CDP	215
6.2.5 Factors hindering the success of the CDP in South Africa	240
6.3 Summary.....	266
CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND FUTURE AREAS OF STUDY	268
7.1 Introduction	268
7.2 Conclusion	268
7.2.1 The dominant approaches and practices informing the design and implementation of the CDP in South Africa	268
7.2.2 Theme Two: Success factors important for the implementation CDP in South African communities.....	269
7.2.3 The model or framework used to assess the outputs, outcomes and impacts of the CDP implementation	272
7.2.4 Factors important to improving the implementation of the CDP in South Africa	274
7.2.5 Factors hindering the success of the CDP in South Africa.....	277
7.3 Recommendations.....	279
7.4 Proposed guidelines for sustainable implementation of the CDP	282
7.5 Areas for future research	285
7.6 Contributions made by the study	286
7.7 Final concluding remarks.....	286
APPENDICES	307
APPENDIX A: Interview Guide – Provincial coordinators (managers and SPOs)	307

APPENDIX B: Interview Guide – National programme coordinators.....	311
APPENDIX C: Interview Guide – Provincial federation liaison officials.....	315
APPENDIX D: Interview Guide – Community club officials.....	319
APPENDIX E: Interview Guide – Community club players.....	324
APPENDIX F: Fieldwork consent letter – KwaZulu-Natal.....	326
APPENDIX G: University of the Western Cape Ethical Clearance	327
APPENDIX H: Editing certificate	328

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2:1: Sport contribution to the SDP goals (IHRB, 2018:13)	23
Table 3.1: Different community sport programmes offered in Northern Ireland (Sport Northern Ireland, 2007:7-12).....	64
Table 3.2: Categories of sports clubs in France (Chavinier-Rela et al., 2015:179)	77
Table 3.3: Types of sports clubs in Germany (Breuer & Wicker, 2011:9).....	80
Table 3.4: Ministries responsible for sport policy in Australia (Hoye & Nicholson, 2009:232)	88
Table 3.5: Funding for sport from federal agencies and ministries, 2004–2009 (Controladoria-Geral da Uniao (2004a; 2005a; 2006a; 2007a; 2008a; 2009a), in De Almeida et al., (2012:415)).....	98
Table 3.6 The birth of sport policy in African countries (Keim & De Coning, 2014)	115
Table 4.1: Statement of intent for the existence of CDP (South Africa White Paper, Sport and Recreation, 2012:36).....	141
Table 5.1: Philosophical Assumptions with implications for practice (adopted from: Creswell, 2013:21).....	171
Table 5.2: The key informants profile per province	180
Table 5.3: Targeted number of community football clubs in each province.....	181
Table 6.1: Success factors important for the implementation of the CDP in South African communities.....	191
Table 6.2: Factors important for improving the implementation of the CDP in South African communities.....	216
Table 6.3: Factors hindering the success of the CDP in South African communities	240

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Capacity building as a series of relationships	39
Source: (adopted from Labonte and Laverack, 2001:113).....	39
Figure 3.1: Distribution of the sport subsidy from the Finnish Government.....	75
(Koski et al., 2015:153)	75
Figure 4.1: Key stakeholders in policy making, translation and implementation.....	150
Source: (May et al., 2013:398)	150

THESIS LAYOUT

In total, this study comprises of seven chapters. The flow of the chapters in this study is outlined as follows:

Chapter One focuses primarily on the background of the study, explaining the potential challenges that the CDP faces concerning effective implementation in various communities. Subsequently, the status quo of the CDP since its inception in 2006 is also discussed. Following the background, the research problem statement is outlined indicating the implication of the challenges for successful implementation of the CDP in football communities in South Africa. Next, the research question is outlined focusing on examining the theoretical approaches and practices regarding the design and implementation of the club development programmes as well as probing the key success factors that are important in implementing the CDP within communities. The research aims were identified, which were to assess the theoretical approaches and practices of the CDP, and to examine the impact, outcomes and the key success factors of the CDP implementation with specific reference to the selected provinces with metropolitan areas in South Africa. Chapter One further presents five research objectives in detail. The significance of the study, an overview of the methodological approach, limitations, scope and assumptions of the study are highlighted in this chapter. Lastly, the thesis layout provides the reader with a broader understanding of how the study is synchronised.

Chapter Two presents the theoretical framework of the study, serving as a cornerstone to understand and review key theoretical attributes of the analysis of the design and implementation of the CDP within communities. This chapter mainly focuses on underpinning the concepts important for the purpose of designing and implementing effective community sport development programmes. Therefore, literature relevant in the field of sport management, sport and development was reviewed.

Chapter Three focuses on the literature relevant to gaining insight into the understanding of how sports clubs operate internationally. Literature provided in this chapter is deemed crucial to address the research questions. For example, content is

outlined in relation to the international theoretical approaches and practices associated with the design and implementation of the club development programme. Furthermore, the key factors important for successful programme implementation are also highlighted.

Chapter Four serves as continued literature review with special reference to the South African context. This chapter is structured to present a perspective on how the CDP functions in South Africa and underpins the reasoning for why DSAC appears to be struggling to reach its objectives. The broader scope and challenges that the CDP has been faced with since its inception (2006) in relation to its effective implementation are also described.

Chapter Five presents an overview of the methodological approach deployed in this study. In order to ensure that rich data suffices, the following research processes are outlined in detail: research methods and methodology, research design, data collection procedure, research instruments, research settings, study population and sampling procedure, data preparation and analysis procedure, and the ethical considerations followed in the study.

Chapter Six comprises the presentation of fieldwork results and the research findings drawn from the key themes that emerged from the qualitative research study. In this chapter, the findings and discussions that emerged from the study are developed in a way that the research questions to the study are addressed.

Chapter Seven focuses primarily on conclusions and recommendations drawn from the qualitative methods approach employed in the study. The conclusions and recommendations are derived significantly from the input given by the targeted participants for this study. Subsequently, future research gaps in the area of community development in particular, community sports clubs are outlined. Lastly, the study sought to propose a framework that is fundamental in the context of designing and implementing a successful programme within community sport clubs.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

The Department of Sport, Arts and Culture (DSAC), which was previously known as Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA), initiated a national Club Development Programme (CDP) in 2006 across all nine provinces in South Africa. The DSAC is a national department responsible for the development and promotion of sport in South Africa. All clubs that are part of the CDP operate as voluntary community sports clubs. The primary goal of DSAC through the CDP is to establish a clear and seamless pathway for athletes through which they can progress from the entry level of the continuum to the highest level of participation (South Africa. Department of Sport and Recreation, n.d:3). The CDP is one of the priority areas of the DSAC and forms part of the Siyadlala Mass Participation Programme (SMPP). Despite the CDP, other programmes that form part of SMPP are: Community Sport, School Sport, Recreation, Academies and Provincial Games. Each community sports club across all nine provinces in South Africa and is part of the CDP, has a compelling mandate to play a crucial role in achieving the target set by the National Government.

Internationally, community sport development scholars such as Nagel, Schlesinger, Wicker, Lucassen, Hoekman, van der Werff and Breuer (2015), Bailey (2015), Collins and Sparkes (2010) and Kokko, Kannas and Villberg (2009) describe sports clubs as settings that need to be designed in such a way that community members share a common interest (experiences and knowledge) with the intent of developing a sense of belonging. Robertson, Eime and Westerbeek (2018:1) also acknowledge that globally, community sports clubs play a significant role towards the creation and delivery of social capital and are capable of producing positive health outcomes in local communities. Similarly, Sotiriadou and Wicker (2013:297) note that, in many European Union (EU) countries, community sports clubs are important sports and leisure service providers because many of them do not solely provide sporting opportunities for the community but also empower community members with social programmes that they can use in their day-to-day lives. Hoye, Smith, Nicholson and Stewart (2015:39) also describe a local community sports club as a centre of sport development in many countries such as Canada, the United Kingdom (UK), Australia and New Zealand), while Seippel and Belbo (2021:479) emphasise that not many

sports would be organised without the existence of sports clubs. This notion underscores the pivotal role that community sport clubs play in shaping, uniting communities and providing a space for identifying talents for individuals and nurturing it. The aforementioned scholars assert that a sports club plays a substantially influential role in uniting people and increases social cohesion in communities at large.

The CDP is one of the priority programmes of the DSAC with reference to the challenge of ensuring that DSAC implements its programme successfully and effectively in various communities. Singh (2015:9) emphasises that the CDP was introduced by the DSAC because of the realisation that, in many local communities, there were no formal clubs that were in existence or operational. He further highlights that the CDP aims to 'prioritise a massive revival of the club system in all communities, so that while having fun, community members engaging in games and other diverse activities, the social development of government may be addressed' (Singh, 2015:11).

The strategic objectives of the CDP (DSAC, 2006:4) are to increase the levels of participation of South Africans in sport and recreation; develop the human resource potential for the management of sport and recreation in South Africa; ensure that sport and recreation bodies achieve their transformation objectives; motivate the communities to develop active lifestyles; ensure that those athletes with talent are channelled into the competitive areas of sport; and integrate planning and implementation of programmes by the three spheres of government.

Initially, clubs are involved in the programme for a period of three years. In the process of a three-year cycle, community clubs receive assistance such as capacity building, transport, equipment and clothing from the programme. Football is one of the priority codes of the CDP. Over the years, other sporting codes (such as volleyball, handball and others) were officially added onto the programme by the DSAC to be the beneficiaries of the CDP. The aforementioned sporting codes were added onto the programme with the intent to promote mass participation in various South African communities. At the 2017 biennial conference known as *South African Sport and Recreation Conference (SASReCon)* held at North-West University (NWU) the CDP administrators, at times also referred to as "*sport promotion officers*" (SPOs) asserted that the lack of understanding and knowledge of the generic principles, approaches to

successful implementation, political landscape in which the CDP operates in and an increase in the number of sporting codes in the CDP, were deemed to have greatly resulted in implementation challenges. The SASReCon is the platform that is organised by the DSAC where all the roleplayers within the sporting industry meet to have robust discussions and develop unique solutions pertaining to the issues affecting sports promotion and development in the country. Amongst many challenges, the programme administrators viewed the CDP to be under-resourced, claiming that they are not empowered sufficiently to implement the programme successfully in various communities. As a result of the lack of sufficient support from the National Government, the programme appears to be struggling to achieve its set goals (Club development coordinators, 2017).

1.2 Problem statement

The implications of the challenges (the lack of knowledge in concept design and mechanisms for the programme implementation, monitoring and evaluation) for successful implementation of the CDP in football communities are dire in developing countries, particularly in South Africa. Since the inception of the CDP in 2006, the programme has been struggling to effectively implement its strategic goals. The 2017 SASReCon revealed that the lack of effective implementation was emphasised as one of the key facets that impacted to the programme not achieving its strategic objectives. Given the aforesaid, the lack of knowledge and understanding the generic principles and approaches to club development programmes in South Africa are yet to be known.

The key issue being investigated in this study is that the factors that are important for successful implementation in relation to community football clubs that are part of the CDP are not known. Therefore, the lack of understanding and knowledge pertaining to programme implementation are regarded as gaps in the study. Koster (2016) emphasised that the crucial gaps in developing a successfully managed programme are based on the four stages, namely: i) Concept; ii) Design; iii) Implementation; and iv) Monitoring and Evaluation.

This study was undertaken to fill the aforesaid gaps through seeking good practices associated with effective implementation for community sports programmes in other countries that have similar programmes as South Africa.

1.3 Research questions

In light of this background, the study sought to answer the following research questions:

- i) What are the dominant approaches and practices informing the design and implementation of the CDP in South Africa?
- ii) What are the success factors in implementing the CDP in South African communities?
- iii) What model or framework is used to assess the outputs, outcomes and impacts of the CDP?
- iv) How can the implementation of the CDP in South Africa be improved?
- v) What are the factors hindering the success of the CDP in South Africa?

1.4 Research aims

The broader aim of the study was firstly, to analyse the implementation of CDP in selected football communities. The secondary aim of the study was to understand the factors that hinder the effective implementation of the programme in selected football communities.

1.5 Research objectives

The objectives of the study were as follows:

- To assess theoretical principles and approaches relevant to club development programmes for community football clubs;
- To identify and assess the key success factors for the implementation of the CDP;
- To assess the outputs, outcomes and impact of the CDP;
- To provide options for the improved programme interventions that will enhance the effective implementation of the CDP; and
- To identify the factors that hinder the effective implementation of the CDP.

1.6 Significance of the study

This study is important because its findings will benefit not only DSAC community sports clubs, but also football clubs that use sport as a vehicle for social change and

development within communities. The study proposes an efficient framework that can be used as a baseline to improve the design and implementation of the CDP in South African communities and across Africa. Furthermore, the findings of this study provide recommendations to community football clubs on how the programme and community football clubs as beneficiaries of the programme can be sustainable. The proposed framework will assist the DSAC to gain a better understanding of the challenges that prevent the effective implementation of the CDP in South Africa. This study is envisaged to contribute to the CDP blueprint by addressing potential gaps which hinder the success of the programme in selected football communities. Moreover, the findings of this study also contribute to a limited but growing academic literature on the design and effective implementation of community sports club programmes with reference to South Africa and Africa at large.

1.7 Overview of the methodological approach

1.7.1 Research design and methods

This study employed a qualitative research approach. A qualitative approach enabled the researcher to gain a nuanced understanding of the CDP in South Africa. To ensure that qualitative data was collected, the exploratory research approach was considered an ideal research type for the study. The researcher found the aforementioned approach relevant to the study as it involved emerging questions, procedures, collecting data from the participants' settings, analysing data from particular to general themes and also making meaningful interpretations from the data collected. The paradigm adopted for the study was deemed of the correct type based on the case-study design.

1.7.2 Research setting

The study was conducted in two provinces, namely the Western Cape (WC) and KwaZulu-Natal (KZN). In both provinces, selected community football clubs that are part of the CDP within the Cape Metropolitan in the WC and eThekweni Metropolitan municipality in KZN were targeted to participate in the study. The identified provinces were targeted on the basis that the National Government (DSAC) intended to accelerate and facilitate access to sport and recreation for South Africans as well as ensuring that talented individuals and groups are recognised and that they are channeled into the mainstream of competitive sport. Only community sports clubs that

were part of the CDP participated in the study. The study was conducted in both provinces respectively because both Metropolitan municipalities have a big population and the largest number of community sports clubs affiliated to the CDP.

1.7.3 Study population and sampling

Only participants who were affiliated with football under the CDP from said provinces were purposefully selected and considered for the study. Of the total of forty-two initially targeted participants, only thirty-one did eventually take part in the study. For the analysis of the data, the researcher opted for version 9 of the computer data analysis programme “ATLAS.ti” as the software of choice to present the findings of this study.

1.8 Limitations, scope and assumptions of the study

The limitation to the research was that the findings were expected to be specific to South African circumstances concerning sports club development in local communities. The findings do not necessarily apply to other circumstances or conditions related to football and/or to other sporting codes. This study is limited to one of the SMPP with specific reference to the CDP. In relation to the geographical scope, the targeted participants were only allowed to take part in the study if they are affiliated with the CDP community sports clubs, which were based within the Metropolitan areas of the targeted provinces (Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal). One of the limitations of the study are that, it was primarily conducted in the Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal provinces, consequently, its findings may not be generalisable to other provinces in South Africa.

1.9 Summary

This chapter outlined the background and the rationale of the study. It presented the aim and objectives of the study. This chapter also provided an introduction of the theoretical framework framing this study. Additionally, this chapter provided an overview of the chapters of the study. The next chapter presents the literature reviewed for this study.

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

2.1 Introduction

Globally, various literature exists in the context of sport and development. Although there is a broad theoretical overview in this discipline, relevant literature in the spheres of analysing the design and implementation of community sports programmes is limited. The broader viewpoints on the origins of key strategic definitions on sport and development will be reviewed here. This chapter will further review key theoretical attributes of the analysis of the design and implementation of the Club Development Programme (CDP) within communities. The theoretical framework that this study followed derived from management theories, where the primary focus was on the design and implementation of community sport and development programmes. Therefore, to arrive at a point of understanding, theoretical concepts important for the purpose of designing and implementing an effective community development programme, literature was reviewed in the following areas:

- Key concepts and benefits of sport;
- Key challenges of sport in the social context;
- Concepts of sport in the context of development;
- Guidelines for developing an effective implementation programme; and
- Partnership in community sport development;

2.2 Key concepts of sport in the context of development

For the purpose of this section, the research sought to provide broader clarification on the basic knowledge of the central concepts in the field of sport in the context of development within communities. The clarification of basic concepts in sport takes place in two forms: first, in the form of broadly defining fundamental concepts (sport development and sport for development and peace) and lastly, in the form of providing definitions that are meaningful in the context of sports development. Other generic concepts and sporting bodies that are commonly used (internationally and nationally) in addition to sport, are outlined as follows:

i) the Department of Sport, Arts and Culture (DSAC)

The Department of Sports, Arts and Culture (DSAC) is the national department's name that emerged from the Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA) in 2019. The DSAC is primarily responsible for developing and implementing national policies and programmes regarding sport and recreation in the South Africa' (Sport and Recreation South Africa White Paper, 2012:8). For the purpose of this study, the name DSAC will be adopted.

ii) South African Sports Confederation and Olympic Committee (SASCOC)

SASCOC is one of the key strategic partners for DSAC and is primarily responsible improving South Africa's international rankings in selected sports (South Africa: Department of Sports, Arts and Culture, 2022:24). Additionally, Swart and Martín-González (2021:156) assert that SASCOC is a regulated body that is primarily responsible for all high-performance sport and multi-sport events (such as the Olympic Games and Commonwealth Games) that are held within and outside the country.

iii) the White Paper on Sport and Recreation South Africa

The White Paper was the first official policy document on sports and recreation since the establishment of the Ministry and was adopted on 1 July 1994. The White Paper in Sport and Recreation maps out 'what sport and recreation programmes and activities are needed to be developed by DSAC (Sport and Recreation South Africa- White Paper, 2012:8).

iv) National Sport and Recreation Plan (NSRP)

Swart and Martín-González (2021:157) indicate that the NSRP is a policy that was developed with the intention to achieve the DSAC's vision of becoming an active and winning nation, addressing challenges such as the lack of coordination across previous sports structures and also ensuring that community development activities are coordinated effectively through sport and recreation programmes. Contrary to the White Paper in Sport and Recreation, the NSRP primarily poses the question: 'How can the plans and programmes be effectively implemented so that the set goals can be achieved?' (Sport and Recreation South Africa- White Paper, 2012:7).

2.2.1 Sport definitions

Often, the term '*sport*' and '*recreation*' are interrelated and used interchangeably. The term *sport* has been interpreted and redefined in many ways by various scholars and organisations across the globe. Gouws (2001:241) holds the view that the term sport is ambiguous because it can easily be defined in many ways, depending on the individuals or even the nations involved. For example, Levermore (2008:183) defines sport as a 'tool to reach communities with messages in a way that politicians, multilateral agencies and Non-Government Organisations (NGOs) cannot'. Additionally, McBride (1975) in Ball, Bice and Parry (2014:131) asserted that sport can be both casual or organized and competitive or noncompetitive. Furthermore, the scholars defined sports as an '*organised activity that involves physical exertion in which an individual or team competes against opposing individuals or teams utilising sport-specific skills*', while recreation is defined as "*an activity that people engage in during their free time, that people enjoy and that people recognise as having socially redeeming values*" (Ball et al., 2014:131).

Singh (2015:12) echoes that sport is also seen as 'fostering inclusive citizenship and nation building'. Many countries across the world significantly use sport as a key instrument to brand and reposition their country through the development and promotion of sports programmes. In support of the assertion, the study conducted by Tinaz and Knott (2021:1); Xiong and Ma (2021:29); Ma'mun and Mahendra (2021:95) and Amara and Ishac (2021:141) stress that sport has the ability to develop economic and social stability, tackle social illnesses, health problems and lack of physical activity amongst the youth. In the same breath, Morgan, Bush and McGee (2021:14) also emphasised that sport is widely accepted and promoted as an enabler for social change and a mechanism through which to strategically map and measure commitments to sustainability.

In the absence of a particular definition of sport, it is believed that the term sport may possess crucial aspects that are of key to the understanding of the term. In support of the notion, Willis (2000) amongst many argues that the term sport is socially constructed, defined, and subject to change over time and culture. Willis (2000:828) said that the term sport refers to 'modern forms of sport - predominantly of Western origin – rather than the traditional or indigenous ones that predated the colonial era'.

In contrast with Willis (2000) views, the Global Millennium Development Goals and the Magglingen Conference in December 2005 described sport as a 'beacon of hope' for peace-building and development efforts throughout the world (Keim, 2006:97). The Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group (to be referred herein as SDP IWG) defines sport as follows:

'a tool that is increasingly used by both public and private institutions due to its ability to promote health awareness, prevent diseases, strengthen child and youth development and education, foster social inclusion, prevent conflict and enhance inclusion of persons with disabilities' (SDP IWG, 2008:6).

The SDP IWG constitute of 25 representatives from different National Governments, the UN and civil society. The SDP IWG was established to develop recommendations on policies incorporating sport as a tool for development in national and international programmes and strategies. In a development context, the definition of sport usually includes a 'broad and inclusive spectrum of activities in which people of all ages and abilities can participate, with an emphasis on the positive values of sport' (SDP IWG, 2008:5).

During the Ancient (Greek) times in the 9th century BC, sport was used historically as a catalyst to advance peace endeavours (Cardenas, 2013:25). The scholar further alludes to the fact that sport was used primarily as a mediator to aid in resolving conflict and to stop the war temporarily between the Peloponnesian city-states during the celebration of the Olympic Games. In 2002, the former Secretary-General of the UN (Mr Kofi Annan) affirmed that sport has the ability to play an influential role in improving the lives of individuals and the entire community. Later in the year, he officially assembled the United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force (UNIATF) to review and measure the impact of sporting activities within the UN system. The UNIATF on sport for development and peace report (2003) claims the aim of the task force was 'to promote more systematic and coherent usage of sport in development and peace activities, especially at a community level'. The task team was purposefully established to generate greater support for such activities among governments and key developmental institutions in relation to sport. Bouah (2015:39) echoes the UN (2003) report that sport could serve three objectives, namely to: i) develop aesthetic appreciation through participants' experience of the body during sport; ii) use sport as

a tool with which to establish peace and cross-national understanding; and iii) teach participants to strive for and to respect excellence wherever it occurred. The author further suggests that sport has the capacity to touch the lives of all people, irrespective of gender, age, language, economic and social status, geographic location or cultural difference (Bouah, 2015:40). Furthering the definition, Bravo, Parrish and de D'Amico (2016:6) claim that sport is perceived to contribute towards achieving the objectives related to a wide array of other governmental policies such as integration, youth, health, leisure, education and political education.

In the same breath, one of the scholars of the emerging disciplines on sport for development and peace in the African context (Keim, 2006:99), echoes the sentiments of the UNIATF (2003) and Van Bottenburg, Rijnen and van Sterkenburg (2005:15) that sport plays a vital role in the modern contemporary society. Years later, Green (2008) and Bouah (2015) also value Keim's views that sport truly plays a tremendous role in modern society. Keim (2006) further reiterates that 'sport forms an integral part of life whether as active participants or passive spectators, and sport is therefore, not only a physical activity but an area where people interact socially' (Keim, 2006:99). In the African context, sport is seen by many as a more cost-effective approach for dealing with social problems than correcting the consequences of aggression, crime, violence, and abuse through police, correctional or social services (Keim, 2006:107). Knott (2014:76) also affirms that 'sport in recent decades has transcended the boundary from being considered as an active leisure pastime to being recognised as having considerable social and economic influence in contemporary society'. This view denotes that globally, sport has great potential for a pleasant boost to the economic activities of respective countries. This paradigm shift provides clear evidence that the majority of sports sectors are now gearing towards the deliberate restricting of the profit-generation goal (Knott, 2014).

The White Paper on Sport and Recreation in South Africa indicates that, in order to build a nation through sport, it is imperative for the national department responsible for sport and recreation to use sport as a key strategic instrument with the aim of promoting effective development and peace, as well as to identify key potential stakeholders within the country (South Africa. Department of Sport and Recreation, 2012/13). The SDP IWG (2008a:3) emphasises that sport alone cannot contribute to

development but that it should also be combined with other non-sport components if the envisioned developmental goals are to be achieved. The UNOSDP Annual Report (2014:9) also proposed that, in order for the SDP agenda to be achieved, a collaborative effort with relevant key partners in the field is of paramount importance. In contrast, at the State of the Nation Address (SONA) 2015, the former President of the Republic of South Africa (RSA) Mr. Jacob Zuma, announced the areas that the country sought to focus on so that the South African economy can be accelerated and grow. In reference to what the priority areas are, see the blueprint of the NPP (Republic of South Africa, 2015:1). Through his announcement, he introduced the nine-point plan (NPP). In reference to the emphasis and objectives for the existence of the NPP, Mr. Zuma did not seem to acknowledge and prioritise sport as a potential area that could assist with the acceleration of the country's economy. The NPP is derived from the *Imbizo*, which is a platform that the South African government created in 2011 as an opportunity for all community members to raise their views on what they think critical matters are requiring urgent attention from government and how the government could meet the needs of the communities.

In an effort to underpin the significance of sport across the globe, Willis (2000:826) states that African leaders have known for many years that sport has the ability to advance national integration and international recognition, as well as health and socioeconomic benefits globally. For example, during the darkest times in South Africa against the diabolical system of apartheid, sport played a remarkable role as a dynamic part of civil society (Keim, 2006:98). Korr and Close (2010:xii) cited that, prior to 1990 in South Africa, sport was seen as a site of struggle and many political prisoners saw the positive benefits of playing sport while serving their jail sentences in the Robben Island prison. The authors continued further to make reference and cited “ *Mr. Nelson Mandela was hardly a keen soccer fan, but he became increasingly interested in what the game meant to the men in prison. Over time he realised the unifying nature of sport. He became acutely aware, through smuggled information, just how much sport-obsessed Afrikaners were wounded by a succession of sport boycotts that effectively isolated South Africa from the rest of the world*”.

Post his release from prison in 1990, Mr. Mandela voiced at the Laureus World Sport Award that ‘*sport has the power to change the world, inspire, unite people in a way*

that little else can and also can awaken hope where there was previously only despair' (South Africa. Department of Sport and Recreation, 2011:13). It is believed that this expression was in relation to his personal experience of being a prisoner at Robben Island for more than two decades. Since then, his words on the power of sport has encouraged many political leaders across the globe to support sport as a catalyst for social change and cohesion. In general, sport brings many health, physical, education; mental and social benefits to society at large (see: Coalter (2005:4); Keech (2016:22); Morgan et al., (2021:14) and Tinaz and Knott (2021:1)). For example, Meek and Lewis (2012:117) and Richardson, Cameron and Berlouis (2017:29) cited that in the UK, sport has motivated over 70 percent of the prisoners to engage in health promoting initiatives and also contributed positively to improving the prisoners' self-esteem, enhancing social bonds and providing each participant with a feeling of purpose. During the apartheid era in South Africa, political prisoners envisaged sport as a catalyst for change and could improve the lives of all South Africans. In reference to the aforesaid, Keim (2006:98) states that, in *"its struggle against an unjust system, sport was victorious. ... Yet in the struggle for a new South Africa, in the effort to create better communities, a better society, a better life for all, sport has been relegated to a seat in the back of the people's bus"*.

In support of Keim's viewpoint, prior to Mr. Cyril Ramaphosa becoming the 6th democratic President of the RSA in February 2018, he successfully organised community walks in various communities within the Western Cape Province, Cape Town. The purpose was to encourage South African citizens to be active in sports and recreation programmes. Such initiative was perceived to be a response to the sporting and South African communities at large. The sporting nation was impressed by the view that that the 6th interim President deemed sport to be a panacea for the development of South Africa. Similar to the administration of Mr. Zuma, post the 24th SONA in 2018, the sporting community voiced on various national radio platforms such as Umhlobo Wenene FM and Metro FM that they felt dismayed and vulnerable to discover that Mr Ramaphosa did not mention sport in his speech as one of the priority areas in which the National Government will invest. Given Mr. Ramaphosa's address, it could be argued that there appears to be a tremendous shift between the first, fifth and sixth democratic Presidents of South Africa in terms of how they view sport. For example, the first democratic President (Mr. Mandela) of the RSA had a vision about

what sport is capable of, hence he was constantly supportive of numerous sporting initiatives. Through his commitment and dedication to sport, it made him earn a prestigious Laureus World Sport Award in 2000. On the other hand, the fifth and sixth Presidents of South Africa do not seem to believe as much in the power of sport as a tool to impact the nation positively. This stems from the view that sport is not one of their key priority areas for the country's development, as per the NPP. Instead, they talk about it, but seem not to put more resources into sport.

At the 25th SONA in 2019, it was noticed, once more, that President Ramaphosa did not mention how the National Government intends to support sport during his speech. Again, the President indicated that the National Government is committed to supporting the areas of the NPP. This stance points out that the government of RSA does not seem to consider sports as one of the tools that could make an impact in social cohesion, fostering and accelerating economic growth, or employment opportunities. Therefore, the aforesaid view remains a concern regarding the current and future position of sport in South Africa. Owing to a lack of consistency in terms of the delivery and effective promotion of the sports programme from the presidential ministry, this could be seen as a factor potentially hindering the growth of the South African economy through sport.

Linked with the benefits of sport, Keim (2006:99) affirms that sport is classified as a key component for social life. The scholar further alluded that sport has the unique potential to: improve health, fitness and education create; business opportunities and employment; foster non-violence, fair competition, teamwork and respect; bridge cultural and ethnic divides; and contribute to cross cultural dialogue, understanding, unity and tolerance. With reference to literature thus far, it is evident that there are more positives and benefits of taking part in sport and recreation programmes, than negatives. However, a few scholars have outlined key challenges of sport in the context of social development. Among many others, Van Bottenburg et al., (2005:12) highlighted that different research studies in European communities found the following factors as key challenges facing the promotion of sport:

- Inequality with respect to participation in sport;

- Lower degree of participation in sport among a variety of population groups, such as the elderly, women;
- Sports participation in various countries is stagnant and, as a result, participation is declining;
- A policy that focuses primarily on the practice of sport within the framework of associations seems to be rather one-sided;
- A growing number of people in Europe do not get enough exercise to remain healthy; this is a trend that was previously identified;
- The majority of young people are reported to be physically inactive; and
- Cultural and demographic developments, such as individualisation and a sharp rise in the ageing population, have been presented as explanations for the decline in competitive and club sport.

Keim (2006:4) also highlighted key challenges affecting the promotion of sport in South Africa. She recommends that for sports programmes to manifest and be enjoyed successfully, the SDOs need to ensure that: i) multi-cultural sports teams are easily accessible at the community level; ii) sports programmes and activities are led by coaches and trainers who are able to navigate team building that is inclusive; iii) all parties create mutual respect between cultures and races; iv) sufficient support is given for physical education in all primary and high schools in South Africa, adequate facilities are developed for basic and further training and v) there is a good relationship between schools and sports clubs. In light of the underlined attributes on the challenges of sports promotion internationally and locally, it is crucial that the SDOs not overlook the identified factors when wishing to promote sport in their respective settings; instead, that they take them into serious consideration. This is because literature suggests that the identified key challenges serve as a baseline towards designing and implementing a successful sports promotion programme.

In the context of development and peace through sport, the study conducted by the SDP IWG (2008:5-6) on harnessing the power of SfD indicated that sport possesses unique features that enable it to bring particular value towards development and peace processes. The report on SfD confirmed that sport has the ability to: i) teach core values, such as cooperation and respect; ii) improve health and reduce the likelihood

of diseases; iii) boost the economy significantly and provide more job opportunities; iv) bridge the cultural or ethnic divides within communities; and v) enhance functional capacity, helping to maintain quality of life and independence in older people (UNIATF on Sport for Development and Peace, 2003:1-4). In the same breath, the Brentwood Borough Council (2011:5) also stressed that sport has widespread benefits that everyone within communities can relish. This view implies that sport is believed to play a crucial role in the following areas: building a healthy nation; creating cohesion for the society; producing positive role models to encourage others, particularly the young; preventing crime and increasing community safety; and fostering a sense of community pride and identity.

2.2.2 Concepts overview: Sport development and Sport for Development

Nowadays the terms '*Sport Development (SD)*' and '*Sport for Development (SfD)*' have become a significant part of promoting social cohesion in many communities across the globe. These concepts may certainly be interrelated, however, they are also distinct in nature (purpose and focus). In order to comprehend what the terms seek to achieve, it is important to understand how these two arms of development in the context of sport differ and operate. Shilbury, Sotiriadou and Green (2008:218) as well as De Coning (2014:14) emphasize that, although these concepts are interrelated and may be used interchangeably, they should not be confused as they focus on the full spectrum of development impacts that sport and recreation have on individuals and communities in terms of a broad range of development or socioeconomic benefits.

2.2.2.1 Defining sport development concept

Usually, the development of sport is often referred to as Sport Development (SD). Schulenkorf, Sherry and Phillips (2016:6) indicate that sport development (SD) aims to create a smooth pathway for professional participation and talent identification. The scholars continue to say the SD agenda is based on enhancing the sport-related skills of a particular participant. Eady (1993:1) said that sport development is a 'process that enhances opportunities for people of all ages, of all degrees of interest and of all levels of ability to take part, improve and excel in their chosen sporting activities' Bramham et al., (2001), as cited in Sotiriadou (2005:41) support Eady's (1993) notion that the term sport development is about describing 'processes, policies and practices that form an integral feature of the work involved in providing sporting opportunities'.

Adding to the definition, Houlihan and White (2002:3) agree with Eady (1993) and Bramham et al., (2001) that sport development is an activity that involves service inputs and the creation of opportunities, which is enabled by focusing on the maximisation of benefits for all involved. Green (2005:233) offered another dimension by stating that sport development discipline is an area that has become a leading issue for sport policymakers and sport managers worldwide. Moreover, Shilbury et al., (2008:217) emphasise that the aim of sport development practitioners is to 'attract a large participant base, therefore increasing the likelihood of a larger number of elite athletes progressing to higher levels in the pyramid', and Schulenkorf et al., (2016:4) highlight that, overall, 'sport development is an important space for everyone involved in sport – from the young to the old, from grassroots to elite'.

Green (2005) highlights that, when wishing to develop a successful sport development programme, it is crucial for one not take it lightheartedly, instead, to be strategic about how systems, process and policies may be designed and implemented effectively within communities. With reference to the aforesaid, sport development contains factors such as: i) a process of positive change in society; ii) creation of equal opportunities for all ages to take part in sporting activities; and iii) enabling of participants at all levels to achieve their full potential through sports development programmes. Hylton (2013:4) agrees that sport development incorporates the practices and related processes of a broad and diverse group of sports workers. Skinner, Zakus and Cowell (2008:19) reinforce the idea that a well-structured programme contributes significantly to attracting potential volunteers to be part of the sports development programme and plays a further key role in assisting individuals to develop a sense of community identity. Moreover, Skinner et al., (2008) reinforce the notion that sport development was not designed initially to move people necessarily from sport-based social-inclusion programmes but merely to provide an opportunity for all participants, irrespective of their achievements and level of participation in sport.

The former President of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) Dr Rogge also advocated that '*sport has the power to reach many people across the globe and, in essence, is a language understood by everyone*'. He continues to say that sport 'fosters understanding between individuals, facilitates dialogue between divergent communities and can contribute to breeding tolerance between nations' (Rogge,

2009:9). In the same vein, Schulenkorf et al., (2016:3) asserted further that sport development is a field that is growing exponentially within the international sports industry. It is against this background that the scholars emphasise that sport development happens at different levels and in different social contexts. It spans from young children who are introduced to sport and play in schools and sports clubs, to professional athletes who are trying to improve their skill levels to win medals at international centre stages (Schulenkorf et al., 2016:4). Following this view, Maleka (2015:126) provides an insight that sport in the context of development within communities, could be used effectively to address social issues facing young people such as, for example, Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) and Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS). Maleka (2015:126-127) affirmed that sport development programmes have capacity to: i) empower the youth with knowledge and practical skills on reproductive health as a holistic approach in addressing issues of HIV/AIDS and other health-related issues; ii) influence their lives and the lives of others positively by enhancing life skills actively through sport; iii) support members of the network in coming up with proper delivery tools and methodologies that integrate sport and physical activity as a means of raising awareness about HIV/AIDS and; iv) providing a platform for sharing and learning among sport for development organisations in order to forge collaborative partnerships.

The 2008 report prepared by the Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group (SDP IWG), defined sport in a development context as a tool that includes a broad and inclusive spectrum of activities suitable to people of all ages and abilities (SDP IWG, 2008:5). Green (2008:141) recommended that in order to develop programmes that are impactful in society, the programme should be: inclusive to accommodate everyone residing in the community, integrated with social activities to provide participants with needed skills, knowledge and abilities and have capacity to divert participants from participating in such antisocial behaviours as gang activities, violent crimes, drug use and sexual risk-taking. Although the concept 'sport development' has been conceptualised broadly by key scholars, politicians and practitioners, we have learnt that the concept has been designed and implemented within communities for different purposes across the globe.

2.2.2.2 Defining Sport for Development (SfD) concept

Sport for Development (SfD) has been used constantly as a strategic theme in most industrialised countries and sporting disciplines across the globe. Lyras and Peachey (2011:311) described SfD as making use of sport to effect beneficial changes in various areas of public life including the socialisation of people of all ages, the fostering of social inclusion of marginalised groups and engendering cultural unity of diverse population groups. Schulenkorf, Sherry and Rowe (2016:23) asserted that popularity of the SfD originates from its ability to “capture large numbers of people, particularly those interested in sport and physical activity and use the momentum in and around sport as a strategic vehicle to communicate, implement and achieve non-sport development goals”. In parallel to the background, the President’s Council on Physical Fitness and Sports (2006) in Coalter (2010:296) explains that sport has been regarded consistently as ‘character building because it does not only develop certain personal and social skills, but also moral personality traits such as discipline, honesty, integrity, generosity and trustworthiness’. In line with this standpoint, the former UN Special Advisor on sport for development and peace, Mr Wilfred Lemke in his welcoming message for the United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace (UNOSDP), acknowledged the late Mr Nelson Mandela as someone who pioneered the use of sport to overcome differences and unite divided groups. In his special opening remarks, he added that Mr Mandela did not only seek unity, but was someone who successfully sought resistance and healing through sport. He concluded by saying ‘the impact of his work will always be an exemplary legacy to which we all can look and be inspired’ (UNOSDP Annual Report, 2014:6).

The SfD has two approaches, namely ‘*sport plus*’ and ‘*plus sport*’. Coalter (2010:298) explained that the ‘*sport plus*’ approach is adapted and often augmented with parallel programmes in order to maximise their potential to achieve developmental objectives, and the ‘*plus sport*’ approach uses the popularity of sports as a type of ‘*fly paper*’ to attract young people to take part in programmes of education and training (a widespread approach for HIV/AIDS prevention programmes) with the systematic development of sport rarely a strategic aim. On the other hand, scholars such as Hall and Reis (2019:318), and Tinaz and Knott (2021:2) echo Coalter’s (2010) sentiments by describing ‘*sport plus*’ programmes as programmes or activities that are designed to take place over a long period of time. The scholars asserted further that such

programmes focus primarily on: i) producing sustainable sport-focused programmes within the organisation; ii) social benefits; and iii) providing effective leadership within the organisation. Subsequently, the scholars emphasised that '*plus sport*' programmes are designed for short-term purposes. Furthermore, these are programmes that have been developed to attract the youth in programmes of education and training, while Tinaz and Knott (2021:2) state that such programmes focus on posing the question of how sport can be used as a vehicle to contribute positively towards enhancing social and economic development. In order to attract the youth to get involved in such programmes, the theorists highlight that the popularity of sport is used as a solution to draw interest to enhance maximum participation in the youth.

Coakley (2011:13) also notes that most current programmes that are critical for addressing social challenges, are organised through the '*sport plus*' and '*plus sport*' programmes. Coakley (2011:313-314) agrees with Coalter (2010) that a '*sport plus*' approach focuses primarily on achieving the traditional sport development goals mainly, an increase in participation, capacity building through sport knowledge programmes, and other activities that empower young participants to gain access to information on how to deal with the everyday life challenges. On the other hand, a '*plus sport*' approach is used by non-sport organisations offering sport participation as a means of recruiting, motivating, and retaining young people in the primary activities of the organisation, whether in an educational, religious, economic, or political format.

The SfD has been described as a 'new strategic approach responsible for social mobilisation and to raise awareness around global issues such as health, education, youth support, peace and HIV/AIDS as broad concepts, specific to different countries (Solomon, 2008:21). Lyras and Peachey (2011:311) and Schulenkorf et al., (2016:22) stated that the SfD field is an area that has flourished greatly in recent years and has received substantial attention from many sporting and non-sporting institutions. Schulenkorf et al., (2016) emphasised that, since the inception of the SfD, thousands of programmes were designed and implemented with the intention to effect personal and societal change across the globe. The SDP IWG (2008:3) said that SfD refers to the intentional use of sport, physical activity and play to attain specific development and peace objectives, including, most notably, the Millennium Development Goals

(MDGs). According to the Institute for Human Rights and Business (IHRB, 2018:7), SDP refers to the intentional use of sport, physical activity and play to attain specific development and peace objectives. The findings emerging from the research study on 'harnessing the power of Sport for Development and Peace,' undertaken by the SDP IWG (2008:3), recommends that a successful SDP programme should comprehend the right of all members of society to participate in sport and leisure activities. The report further recommends that, in order for the SDP objectives to be achieved, the SDOs need to ensure that inclusive programmes are designed because said programmes embody the best values of sport while simultaneously upholding the quality and integrity of the sport experience within the community. Given the history and background of SfD, literature reveals that there is no doubt that, for many years, sport has been used widely as a tool for development and peace worldwide. Table 2.1 shows the series of events at which the UN used sport as a vehicle to contribute to achieving the SDP goals.

Table 2:1: Sport contribution to the SDP goals (IHRB, 2018:13)

Year	UN AGENDA ON SPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT
1978	Adoption of the UNESCO international Charter of Physical Education, Physical Activity and Sport
1990	Adoption of the Convention on the Rights of Child
2001	Appointment of the first UN Special Advisor on Sport for Development and Peace
2002	United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace Convened
2003	UN General Assembly Resolution 58/5 'Sport as a means to promote health, education, development and peace' Publication of Sport for Development and Peace: Towards Achieving the Millennium Development Goals (United Nations)
2005	International Year of Sport and Physical Education proclaimed by the General Assembly of the United Nations Establishment of the UN Office for Sport for Development and Peace and Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group
2006	Adoption of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
2013	United Nations General Assembly resolution 67/296 proclaiming 6 April as the 'International Day of Sport for Development and Peace'

Year	UN AGENDA ON SPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT
2015	Adoption of the revised UNESCO International Charter of Physical Education, Physical Activity and Sport Adoption of United Nations General Assembly Resolution 70/1 Transforming our world: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development
2017	Announcement of closure of the UN Office for Sport Development and Peace owing to the view that the UN felt that the office is under utilised. The adoption of the Kazan Action Plan by the International Ministers of sport and physical activities

Moreover, Table 2.1 provides an overview of the key international declarations, policies and publications on the use of sport and physical activity as a tool to contribute to development and peace goals by the UN.

In 2005, countries such as the United States of America (USA), Argentina, Germany, Switzerland, Romania and many others embarked on an informal inter-governmental platform named 'Group of Friends' (GoF) of Sport for Development and Peace. According to the UNOSDP (2014:12), the 2014 Annual report of the UNOSDP reveals that the GoF group was formed with the intention to enable dialogue and exchange of information and to encourage state members to integrate sport actively into their international cooperation and development policies through the implementation of relevant UN resolutions and outreach events. With reference to the inception of the SfD initiative, it is worrying to note that African governments have not yet taken the initiative of embarking on this venture to develop a GoF that will focus mainly on delivering and resourcing SfD agenda, particularly in Africa. Therefore, this implies that more focus and support in Africa is of paramount importance.

In spite of the UNOSDP endorsing sport as a catalyst to achieve the SDGs, the office continued to recognise sport as an important enabler of the SDGs, which ought to be implemented until the year 2030. According to the report on sport and the SDG, the office affirmed that they:

... recognise the growing contribution of sport to the realization of development and peace in its promotion of tolerance and respect and the contributions it makes to the empowerment of women and of young people, individuals and communities as well as to health, education and social-inclusion objectives

(UNOSDP, 2015:2).

The UNOSDP verified that this unprecedented recognition offers a thrilling opportunity to join hands with relevant partners to make a positive change in the field of Sport for Development and Peace. Moreover, the UNOSDP report (2015) recommended that, in order to achieve the SDGs through sport, sport needs to be revisited in terms of the new framework for sustainable development with the aim to promote synergy, coherence and harmonisation of the implementation of SDGs. The SDGs focus on 17 areas, which outline the contribution of sport to the SDGs (see: UNOSDP, 2015:3-17). The SDGs depict that sport is associated as a cross-cutting tool that is important for development and peace across the globe. The report on harnessing the power of SDP affirms sport is used progressively by both sport and non-sporting institutions owing to its ability to promote, amongst many, health awareness, to prevent diseases, and to enhance the inclusion of persons with disabilities (SDP IWG, 2008:6). Given the overview on the contribution of sport towards achieving the SDGs, literature indicates that sport is classified as a basic human right for all.

The study conducted by the IHRB (2018:4) acknowledges SDP as an emerging discipline that has grown significantly over the past 30 years. However, the report claims that, although an estimated amount of \$150 million a year has been invested in sport, there is little coherence between different approaches being implemented by the diverse key players involved. This denotes that the implementation of the SfD programmes may be complicated for the relevant players to comprehend if they are not properly harmonised. Therefore, the report pleads that, in order to create an opportunity for firmer integration of international human rights principles and standards across the world of sport, the four areas that need to be prioritised to achieve the human rights through sport are: responsibility; alignment; promotion; and collective action (IHRB, 2018:4-5).

2.3 Sport and human rights

Sport and human rights have a long-standing relationship. In November 1978, the General Conference of the International Charter of Physical Education and Sport in Paris, United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) adopted Article 1.1, which embodies that 'the practice of physical education and sport is a fundamental right for all. In addition, Article 1.2 advocates that everyone who is taking part in sport, must be presented with equal opportunities, while Article 1.3

emphasises that special opportunities must be made available for everyone (including persons living with disabilities) so that their personalities could be fully developed through physical education and sport programmes (UNESCO, 1978:2). Subsequently, Donnelly (2008:382) quoted the late Kofi Annan (former UN General-Secretary) speaking at the World Economic Forum (WEF) in 2006 and said:

sport is a global language that is capable of bridging social, cultural and religious divides. It can be a powerful tool for fostering understanding, tolerance and peace. It teaches us (human beings) teamwork and the spirit of fair play. It builds self-esteem and opens up new opportunities. This in turn can contribute to the well-being of whole communities and countries.

Years later, the report from the United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development Peace (2003:4) also showed that the opportunity to participate in and enjoy sport and play serves as a human right; therefore, that must be promoted to the relevant target market and supported by everyone involved in sport throughout.

The declaration for making sport a fundamental human right for all originates from the sufficient evidence produced by various scholars in relation to its power, impact and contribution to human beings. For example, it was learnt earlier through literature that sport programmes and activities were even set up in unpleasant settings such as wars and prisons. At the heart of Apartheid times in the 1960s in South Africa, Keim and Boauh (2013:1962) cited that the prisoners at Robben Island used and recognised sport and recreation as a vehicle to unite people and to promote values of respect, integrity, fair play and teamwork as a crucial part of a holistic person. In the same vein, the scholars further highlighted that during the 2010 Commonwealth Games held in India, the historic moment in Cape Town, South Africa was experienced where the baton was carried from the Cape Town airport through the historically disadvantaged communities to the Robben Island. This gesture signifies the role, impact and contribution that sport can make towards freedom and democracy.

2.4 Concepts of community in the context of sport development

2.4.1 Defining communities

Scholars across the globe have defined and interpreted the term 'community' in different ways. One of the theorists in the sociology of sport (McMillan & Chavis,

1986:9) explicitly defined a community in four segments as: membership, influence, integration and fulfilment of needs, and shared emotional connection.

- **Membership:** The authors stated that membership is the feeling of belonging or of sharing a sense of personal relatedness. People residing in a community want to be associated with a certain group in order for them to feel that they are part or belong to the community. McMillan and Chavis (1986) emphasised that the core reason for the concerned affiliation is to have a sense of identity within the society. With regard to the relevance of membership, Skinner et al., (2008:4) claim that community membership is a 'sense that an individual has invested a piece of oneself to become a member and, consequently, has an entitlement to belong'. The definition signifies that individuals seek affiliation in order to belong to a certain group within the community. For example, securities such as emotional and physical safety, spending a lot of time with the group are some of the broader factors that community members seek.
- **Influence:** Bernard (1973) in McMillan and Chivas (1986:12), expresses that power and influence have a big role to play within the community. This implies that power and influence determine the formation of and how the community will function. Generally, members from the society tend to be more involved by taking initiative in community projects where they feel that they have more influence. Therefore, this means that, in order for the community members to have a sense of ownership towards the community initiative programmes, it is important for the SDOs to ensure that the community members are consulted comprehensively.
- **Integration and fulfilment of needs:** In an attempt to understand the needs of the community members, the SPOs ought to be responsible for ensuring that they understand what motivates the community members and to deliver programmes and activities that meet their expectations. Additionally, McMillan and Chivas (1986) hold the view that motivation is a cornerstone for the community members because it influences how they behave. The scholars indicate that, for any group to maintain a positive sense of togetherness and take part in community initiative programmes, incentives must be packaged in

such a way that community members can relate to them. McMillan and Chivas (1986:13) continue that reinforcement and need fulfilment are primary functions of a strong community. For example, membership status, strong community, success of community and competence are some of the effective reinforcers that are pleasing to community members.

- Shared emotional connection: Generally, there are many ways in which community members can connect with each other. A shared emotional connection is based on a shared history (McMillan & Chivas, 1986:13). Therefore, the research conducted by these scholars reveals that, amongst many, the features that are important to the principle of shared emotional connection are:
 - Contact hypothesis: The more people interact with each other, the more likely they are to become close. To ensure that community members remain united, it is evident that the SDOs need to take the views of community members into serious consideration and to ensure that inclusive programmes are designed.
 - Quality of interaction: Generally, the more community members have a positive experience and relationship with other community members, the greater the bond. This illustrates that it is important for the SDOs to create a transparent and open environment where community members feel comfortable to address any issue they may have. Notably, Skinner et al., (2008:19) mention that one of the reasons that disadvantaged communities to become reluctant to participate in community sport programmes, was partly because the policymakers often commit a mistake that they are the experts and, as a result, they expect the community members to approach them first to enquire about any opportunities that various programmes may offer. Moreover, Bolton, Fleming and Elias (2008:95) cautioned those individuals or groups who are responsible for spearheading community sport programmes not to assume that CSD is primarily about implementing developmental programmes according to what they think would be ideal for the community; instead, they need to consult widely with the society concerned.

- Closure to events: Hamblin (1958), and Mann and Mann (1959), in McMillan and Chivas (1986:14), warn that any individual and or group responsible for creating a smooth environment for community members to operate in, needs to be strategic in how they create communication channels because an ambiguous platform where there is no order and things are left unresolved, could easily play a role in collapsing group cohesiveness.
- Investment: This feature contributes more than just boundary maintenance and cognitive dissonance. Investment determines the importance to the member of the history and current status of the community. This means that it is important for the SDOs to ensure that community members are not overlooked but are involved from the beginning of the project. Many studies recommend that community development projects are designed for the development of the community; therefore, by virtue of the members residing within the community, they ought to benefit greatly from such programmes.

Years later, Skinner et al., (2008:4) articulated that communities are marked by 'deep, familiar and co-operative ties between people that often involve a high degree of personal intimacy, moral commitment, social cohesion and continuity in time'. On the other hand, Robson, Simpson, Tucker and Zhou (2013:8) briefly described the term 'community' as a place where people live to share common interest, gain experience, interact with each other, share virtual space and common principles of life as well as where people are able to do things together as a collective.

Additionally, Mohamad, Talib, Ahmad, Shah, Leong and Ahmad (2012:173) describe community as a social system where community networks, social bonds and interaction among people is of paramount importance. Subsequently, Hylton and Totten (2013:85) said that the term 'community' entails some notions such as collectiveness, commonality, a sense of belonging or of something shared. Derived from the literature, community is described as a place where a group of people share common interest. It can be an 'experience', through a gathering, an interest or affiliation to a social, leisure or sport activity. In light of the aforesaid concepts on the significance of the term 'community', literature suggests that generally, community

members play a pivotal role in determining the success, future and sustainability of any programme within communities. From this viewpoint, it is clear that community members have a broader knowledge and understanding of the type of programme that is to be rolled out in respective communities. Furthermore, Smith et al., (2001) in Wright (2009:28), stressed that, owing to the extensive knowledge of the communities, community members are capable of identifying their needs as well as specific issues that they might be faced with. This notion concludes that, with failure to consult community members comprehensively, the programme is not likely to be successful or sustainable.

2.4.2 Community development through sport

Perkins, Crim, Silberman and Brown (2004:325) define community development (CD) broadly as 'a process whereby government, non-profit organisations, voluntary associations, or public-private partnerships ameliorate or prevent adversities and develop strengths in a community's focal areas such as economic, political, social, or physical environment'. Perkins et al., (2004:322) affirm that, in order for any CD programme to be effective, SDOs need to ensure that the programme is designed to address the following challenges facing the communities:

i) Economic adversity

The rise of the unemployment rate and low-wage service jobs have become a great concern worldwide. This has resulted in an escalating and continued increase where poverty is seen as a primary cause of poor health and healthcare, and educational deficiencies (Perkins et al., 2004:322). It is imperative, therefore, that the policymakers and SDOs ensure that they design and implement programmes that provide employment opportunities to community members with the aim of reducing poverty and the high unemployment rate. Therefore, such programmes ought to be meaningful and beneficial to everyone involved in the community, either as a form of playing or in administration.

ii) Political adversity

Politics can play both a positive and negative role within communities. However, it is crucial for any individual and/or group to have a broader insight regarding how politics could influence certain functions positively or negatively. Perkins et al., (2004:323)

indicate that often government agencies use community advisory boards and public hearings to pay lip service to grassroots participation in decision-making. The authors claim that such conduct is not a good practice as it sets up agencies for failure because community knowledge is ignored and undermined and, as a result, community members are more likely to be suspicious and to resist supporting the initiatives.

iii) Social adversity

Perkins et al., (2004:332) stress that diverse neighbourhoods can be interesting and vibrant places to live because different groups of people bring different perspectives, knowledge, connections, and strengths to the community and its organisations. Crime and cultural diversity, poverty, drugs, group conflict, youth pregnancy and others are some of the continued issues that are a great concern globally. Owing to these factors, sport participation has decreased significantly. For example, the rise in crime and discrimination impact the influence of sport participation negatively. Perkins et al., (2004:324) affirm that, in an area where the identified factors were not addressed promptly, community members became fearful and withdrew from outdoor spaces, which reduced community cohesion, informal social control and organisational and commercial life. The scholars continue to add that *'prejudice and discrimination based on race, nationality, religion, income, age, sex, sexual orientation, or length of residence are community problems because of the conflict they engender and the difficulties diverse groups encounter in sharing concerns and goals and working effectively together'*.

In an effort to minimise a significant reduction in community development, Perkins et al., (2004:332) recommend that CD programmes must include public events that celebrate diversity because such programmes help residents to learn more and to appreciate each other's differences.

iv) Physical environment adversity

The provision of sports facilities serves as an important facet towards community development. Key partners in community development need to work in harmony to ensure that a safe and conducive space is created where community members can enjoy playing and practising sport and recreational activities. Environmental CD helps to clean up or prevent toxic or littered sites and instil pride of residents in their home

and community (Perkins et al., 2004:325). Creating a safe space for all members of the community enables victims to build positive relationships and, in the case of those newly disabled, to rebuild a sense of confidence in their own abilities (SDP IWG, 2008:207). Manda (2019:57) also stresses that, for a community sport development programme to be successful, it is crucial that a secured space and comfortable environment is enabled. Fried (2015:4) also implied that open spaces should be considered sports facilities because that is the setting where people engage each other. In support of this view, Lussier and Kimball (2014:444) declared that, without facilities, there is no sport. This emphasis indicates that the provision of sports facilities plays a crucial role in the success of a community programme.

Additionally, Pedlar (1996), in Vail (2007:573), points out that CD is primarily about educating, teaching, learning, facilitating CD work and doing for oneself on behalf of the individual or the community. Suffice to say that CD is about assisting individuals and groups to initiate a process of helping others within the community. In the process of bringing change to communities, it is important for the SDOs to prioritise communities in which there is 'readiness' or 'capacity to change' (Vail, 2007:574). Both Pedlar (1996), and Vail (2007), further expressed that prioritising communities that are ready for change, helps community members to acknowledge when problems arise and enables each community member to work as a team with the intention of developing solutions as a collective. The Department for Communities and Local Government (2006), in Hylton and Totten (2013:87), also describe CD as a set of values and practices which has the potential to play an instrumental role in overcoming poverty and disadvantage, knitting society together at grassroots and deepening democracy'. The authors also indicate that the design and facilitation of CD need to focus on programmes that strengthen the ability of the local people to enable them to act jointly on issues of common interest.

From the literature, it is worth noting that CD is about community consultation, empowerment, involvement in sustainable transformation, providing more opportunities for the public to benefit from, overcoming poverty and enhancing participation from the public. In an attempt to have programmes that are vibrant within communities, Coalter (2005:20) recommends that a 'bottom-up approach' ought to be considered by the sports practitioners. This is in light of the effort to provide solutions

to matters that seek to address wider inclusion issues through sport. Skinner et al., (2008:19) state that the SDOs are responsible for making community members feel welcome while participating in the programme because that approach is most likely to make community members take full ownership of the sports facilities within their respective communities. Therefore, it is critical for the SDOs to understand that failure to engage the community members in planning and playing may generally result in community members becoming hostile and reactive towards the initiatives and vandalising sports facilities.

2.4.3 Community Sport Development (CSD)

Nowadays, CSD has gained popularity within society at large and, as a result, there has been a substantial influx of CSD programmes. However, CSD appears to be an agenda that most organisations talk about. The development of community sport is often subsumed under the title of community recreation (Hylton & Totten, 2013:81). This is in recognition that practice often reflects inclusive activities which blur the boundary between sport and recreation. Macpherson (2012:4) describes community sport as simply a sporting activity that takes place in a local geographical community setting, for example; school, college, local sports club and rural communities. Hylton and Totten (2013) indicate further that the concept CSD was initially not designed for the advantaged section of the population, but mainly for the disadvantaged population. This stems from the recognition that the majority of the population within the rural communities are becoming physically inactive in terms of recreational activities. The SDP IWG (2008:207) affirms that CSD programmes can provide shared experiences between people that 're-humanize' opposing groups in the eyes of their enemies. By sharing sport experiences, sport participants from conflicting groups increasingly grow to feel that they are alike, rather than different. This shared ritual identity, or sense of belonging to the same group on the basis of a shared ritual experience, helps to erase the dehumanising effects of persistent negative characterisations of opposing groups.

Therefore, it is important to note that when conceptualising CSD, it is imperative for the SDOs not to overlook the history of the community, but to firstly make an effort to understand the true meaning and significance of CSD and needs of the community.

2.4.4 Key stakeholders in Community Sport Development (CSD)

In general, for any CSD programme to be successful, it is crucial for the SDOs to recognise relevant partners with the willingness to add significant value towards community development programmes. Nesti (2002:197) the Australian Football League (2004:10) and Sotiriadou (2009:11) unanimously affirmed that key partners that play a fundamental role to develop a community sports clubs are: SDOs, community recreation officers, coaches, media, health and fitness promotion officers (HFPOs), schools (primary and secondary), communities and non-profit organisations (NPOs), local businesses as well as municipalities, community clubs, volunteers, participants, spectators and supporters. Sotiriadou (2009) asserts that the enumerated stakeholders play an immense role towards the effective implementation of the three fundamental functional areas of community service delivery, namely (1) strategy implementation; (2) programme management, and (3) events management. Apart from the government, Levermore (2008:185) mentions that among many, the global institutions that dominate traditional development agencies towards the development and promotion of sport within communities are: the United Nations (UN), the International Labour Organisation (ILO), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the World Health Organization (WHO). The report on '*Sport: Catalyst for a better and stronger recovery*' prepared by the UN Secretary-General (2022:n.d.), also recommends that government ought to strengthen their relationship with national and local grassroots entities should they wish to implement a development programme successfully.

Although the role of government in sport is acknowledged, Babiak and Thibault (2009:118) cited that individuals and/or NPOs should not rely solely on government to partner with because government may reduce its funding drastically at any given time. This practice was experienced when Canadian NGOs received a significant funding cut from the government. As a result, the Canadian NGOs faced great financial loss and continued to be concerned about how professional athletes would excel during international competitions. It is therefore crucial to bear in mind that government officials, politicians and community leaders often decide which programmes deserve to receive support rather than others. Adding to the example, through literature, we have learnt that, in the UK, Europe and North America, particularly in countries where sports programmes are producing good results and achieving their objectives,

government is not comprehensively involved in the design and implementation of community sports programmes. Instead, sport is organised and facilitated by the local associations who have formed effective partnerships with other relevant businesses.

On the other hand, in the South African context, often, the government has the power to determine which projects ought to be implemented in respective communities. The NPOs and many other civil organisations rely on government to assist them with resources for implementation.

As stated earlier in this section, government has a major role to play in developing community sport. In the South African context, it is therefore important to bear in mind that, for community sport development programmes to be implemented successfully, systemic governance needs to be in existence. In this case, DSAC ought to take full responsibility for ensuring that sport and recreation is progressing in South Africa. This means that DSAC needs to establish an enabling environment where programmes are undertaken by the relevant stakeholders to assist with effective implementation. Furthermore, the national policy on DSAC shows that the success of sports programme is dependent on the smooth operation and seamless progression of a system that has a firm emphasis on authority, responsibility and accountability (South Africa. Department of Sport and Recreation, 2011:51).

The significance, benefits and impact of a collaborative partnership have been over emphasised. Casey, Payne and Eime (2009:168) praise the sentiments of Butterfoss et al., (1993), and McDonald et al., (2001) by echoing that, although partnership approaches may be challenging at times, it is crucial to work in partnership because it has the ability to reduce the duplication of activities and can also assist in mobilising more skills, resources and approaches to influence any matter which an organisation may not be able to achieve alone. The following section will look into the various strategies that are critical in enabling community sports clubs to achieve its objectives and agenda effectively.

2.5 Organisational capacity in community sports clubs

Often, community sports clubs are expected to implement government programmes successfully without the relevant support. Implementation theorists such as Cuskelly,

Hoye and Auld (2006), and Taylor (2004), in Misener and Doherty (2009:458), condemn such an approach as it is not robust in assisting government to yield greater results. Instead, the authors state that the point of departure in achieving the anticipated objectives is to understand the factors that impact goal achievement in community sport organisations. The authors further emphasise that this approach is imperative because it is likely to provide a holistic understanding of the needs and challenges that community sports clubs are faced with daily. This narrative asserts that government needs to understand that the absence of the right support to enable community sports clubs to function effectively, could compromise the delivery of sport programmes and activities.

2.5.1 Defining organisational capacity

According to Horton et al. (2003), in Misener and Doherty (2009:458), organisational capacity is described as 'an organisation's potential to achieve its mission and objectives based on the extent to which it has certain attributes that have been identified as critical to goal achievement'. Misener and Doherty (2009:462-463) commend the work of Hall et al., (2003) who recommended that, in order for the community sports organisation to produce the outputs and outcomes it desires, the following facets are fundamental:

- human resources (recruiting people who are competent, driven, motivated, positive thinkers, qualified, experienced, skilful and knowledgeable);
- finances (the ability of the club to generate revenue and possessing financial management literacy);
- relationships and networks (developing a good relationship with community key stakeholders, trust and mutual benefit);
- infrastructure and processes (ensuring that day-to-day operations such as databases, manuals, policies, procedures, information technology and culture are implemented effectively); and
- planning and development (the organisation ought to develop and draw organisational goals, strategic plans, programme plans, policies and proposals).

Moreover, Marlier, Lucidarme, Cardon, Bourdeaudhij, Babiak and Willem (2015:4) further identify the key elements that need to be taken into account when wishing to implement the programme successfully in three levels, namely: i) practitioner; ii) organisational; and iii) partnership.

i) Practitioner capacity-building level

At this level, the key elements of cross-sector partnership that SDOs need to take into consideration are: process evaluation, trust, period of collaborative time, personal relationship, coordination and external focus. These elements are crucial because they enable SDOs to be alert in terms of how cross-sector partnership is going to be evaluated. These elements further provide a unique distinction pertaining to the roles and responsibilities of each partner. This level further serves as an assessment among partners to see whether confidence and trust can still be instilled in each other.

ii) Organisational capacity-building level

This is the level where mutuality, understanding of policy, support and metrics for success exist. This level reveals whether there is a spirit of collegiality amongst the cross-sector partners. At this level, there ought to be a greater need for partnership as effective collaboration leads to greater willingness to share resources. The policy supporting cross-sector partners and the distribution of resources must be in place. Lastly, it is vital for the SDOs to initiate distinctive methods concerning the achievement of each partner's goals.

iii) Partnership capacity-building level

This level represents the elements that are important to increase the density and sustainability of the network. The elements are: diversity of activities; complementary and fit between partners, and period of collaboration. At this level, the value of different partners in different sectors must be entailed. This level recommends that those who wish to be in cross-sector partnerships must be organisations that complement and meet the needs of the community members (Marlier et al., 2015:4-6).

On the other hand, Casey et al., (2009:170) also pronounce that the factors that are crucial for achieving the set objectives are the engagement of key stakeholders, formalisation of the partnership agreement and the capacity to identify and develop

sports and recreation programmes. Given the overview concerning the factors important for programme implementation, literatures suggest that, for any community programme to reach its envisioned objectives, partnership must be recognised as it is at the forefront of success. Therefore, this study will further aim to identify potential gaps that are associated with how CDP is implemented in South Africa.

2.5.2 Community Capacity Building

Many sports organisations around the globe today have acknowledged the significance of community members getting involved in various community sporting programmes or activities. In ensuring that the programme achieves its strategic intent, it is crucial for sports practitioners not to only consult or to involve community members, but to empower them with relevant resources and skills to be able to deliver services effectively. Smith and Cronje (2002:5) emphasise that resources are important organisational assets; therefore, managers need to ensure that the resources are prioritised within the organisation. The term 'community capacity building' has been defined differently by many scholars globally. Skinner (1997:1) described community capacity building as an 'approach to development work that strengthens the ability of community organisations and groups to build their structures, systems, people, and skills so that they are better able to define their objectives and engage in consultation and planning'. Labonte and Laverack (2001:114) further define community capacity building as increasing 'community groups' abilities to define, assess, analyse and act on any other concerns of importance to their members', while Zhang, Lee, Zhang and Banerjee (2003:7) agree that education and training provide employees with a great opportunity to increase their knowledge and skills, and better understand how their jobs relate to other functional areas within the organisation.

Laverack (2001), in Wright (2009:28), indicates that empowering programmes are those that allow community members to identify problems facing the community; thereafter, to propose a potential solution given their challenges. Wright (2009:28) agrees with Gillies' (1998) view that encouraging community members to identify programmes that address issues of interest and concern to community members is important because it increases the likelihood of citizen participation and programme sustainability. Wright (2009) further cites that the characteristics for community capacity building are dependent on the type of resources available, the state of the

economy, political status and environmental constraints associated with the conditions in which communities exist. Furthermore, Marlier et al., (2015:2) emphasise that capacity-building programmes should focus on: i) developing knowledge that influences the community positively; ii) providing adequate skills to implement the programme successfully; iii) enabling community members to remain committed towards the programme; iv) empowering community members to develop ideal structures in place that are effective towards achieving the programme's goals; and v) providing proper leadership to enable community members to be effective when implementing the programme. Figure 2.1 depicts the domains that play a key role in building capacity within communities.

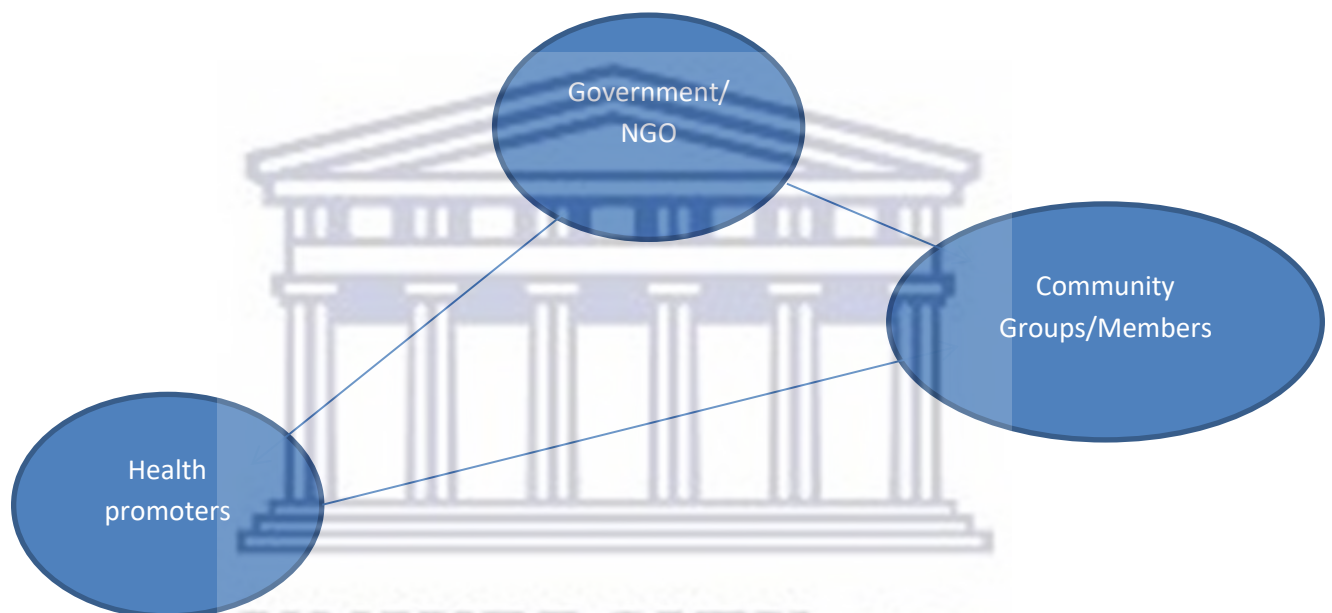


Figure 2.1: Capacity building as a series of relationships

Source: (adopted from Labonte and Laverack, 2001:113).

Although Figure 2.1 specifically depicts the key role players for building capacity within the health sector, it is worth noting that the same key role players can be influential in building capacity within sporting communities. For the purpose of this study, in order for Figure 2.1 to be relevant in the sporting context, the researcher found the need to supplement the 'health promoters' domain with the common term 'sport promoters'. Therefore, the proposed domain may be: i) government; ii) sport promoters; and iii) community groups/members. These domains serve as an affirmation that, in order for

a community development programme to succeed, it is crucial that those domains exist and communicate with each other regularly. It is evident that they are interrelated and that no special attention should be given to one over others.

Given the importance of empowering community sports clubs and their members, this study is yet to determine whether CDP (as a national initiative programme) is designed and implemented in such a way that community club members show great interest to be part of and have developed a sense of belonging and ownership through its outcomes (since the inception in 2006). This approach is essential in the sense that it is likely to provide a broader understanding of whether CDP has better equipped its community club officials and communities to mobilise and organise for social change.

2.5.3 Building sustainable programme through partnership

Often, the terms '*partnership*', '*collaboration*' or '*alliance*' are used interchangeably by scholars. Marlier et al., (2015:1) declare that, generally, governments face many social issues with high rates of inequality such as sport, health, economy and the environment. Additionally, the authors suggest that, in order for these challenges to be addressed effectively by government, 'sport needs to be identified as a key potential strategy to capture or "hook" the interest of a large group of people, especially in the disadvantaged communities'.

In light of the above sentiment, Coalter (2005:4) emphasises that sport alone cannot solve community problems. He added that it is crucial for sport practitioners to ensure that they are in partnership with other relevant community alliances because sport has the potential to contribute largely to society. Casey et al., (2009:167) also emphasise that the 'development of partnerships is a new strategy to integrate the activities of the sports, recreation and health sectors in order to achieve a wide range of public health objectives'. Merkel (2013:157), concurs with Wright (2009), Casey et al., (2009) and Coalter (2005) that in order for community members to be fully equipped with unique skills to enable change for the better in future, a collaborative effort between parents, coaches, teachers, sport professionals, community leaders and politicians is essential. In support of the aforesaid views, Goal 17 of the UN SDGs recognises the key position that partnership has in developing a successful community programme (Burton and Leberman, 2017:154). Parallel to the aforesaid, the UN report on 'Sport: a global

accelerator of peace and sustainable development for all' assembled by the UN Secretary General (2020:6) emphasised that government ought to collaborate with parents and families when developing sport and physical programmes. The report stresses that parents play a significant role in any developmental programme because parents are the role models for their children's behaviour.

More than two decades ago, Kickbusch and Quick (1998:68) reported that, owing to the rise in the demand for joint initiatives, there have been a growing number of policy statements, conferences and publications highlighting the significance and necessity of building partnerships. The authors emphasise that the establishment of strong partnerships with relevant key partners is crucial because partnerships are likely to provide solutions to a whole range of community issues. Marlier et al., (2015:1-2) echo the sentiments of Kickbusch and Quick (1998), Coalter (2005), Wright (2009), and Merkel (2013) by acknowledging that partnerships among a wide range of organisations is fundamental owing to their ability to deal with the multidimensional problems and challenges facing particular communities. Lindsey and Banda (2010:90) highlighted the significance and relevance of partnership by declaring that 'partnerships are advocated as an effective approach to achieving policy goals'. Robson and Partington (2013:127) stressed that, in order for a partnership to work, it is reliant on the idea that the identified key stakeholders show commitment to each other in terms of what they are able to put into the partnership, on the basis that some or all of the outputs will help them attain their overall goals. From these insights, it is evident that partnership refers to the agreement between two or more parties who have agreed to work with each other in the interest of achieving common goals.

Globally, various sport-focused schemes and/or programmes have been used as an intervention catalyst to combat crime and the high level of pregnancy, to reduce poverty, and to promote social justice and peace. For example, during the early 1990s in the USA, the basketball initiative called 'Midnight Basketball' was introduced as a tool to reduce crime and prevent violence among community members, particularly the youth between ages of 16 and 25 years (Smith & Waddington, 2004:281). The UK government also initiated similar schemes such as the USA, where sports programmes received tremendous support from all of the major political parties, police, the youth probation and educational services, local authority workers and many

organisations with an interest in promoting sport, including the national sports councils in the UK such as Sport England. On this basis, such schemes have attracted large amounts of funding both from the government and from voluntary-sector organisations concerned with young people. At the moment they are of particular interest in terms of the UK government's agenda on social inclusion.

Dowling, Powell and Glendinning (2004:309) said that 'the pressure to collaborate and join together in partnership is overwhelming'. Simpson and Partington (2013:149) also attest that 'partnerships within sport development have become a potential solution to a lack of resources, and a way of fulfilling organisational goals'. Based on these views, it is evident that, for community sport to manifest within South African communities, it is crucial that relevant parties need to partner with each other in order to address socioeconomic issues facing community members. South African government needs to ensure that community sport development programmes are offered frequently throughout the year. Such practice is more likely to provide programmes that are sustainable for community members. Although a partnership can be overwhelming in nature, it is important for anyone considering a partnership to bear in mind that if partnership is weak, then the programme is more likely to fail. Conversely, if partnership is strong, it is more likely to be a success.

Given these views, literature suggests that, in an attempt to forge an effective partnership, it is crucial for the SDOs to understand and to be clear on the demarcations of the new venture. The Improvement and Development Agency (I&DeA, 2009:5) report strongly supports this notion that it is useful to seek clarity in terms of what the common purpose of partnership is, especially when working with a group of people. This view provides a broader understanding of the expectations of all parties before a partnership agreement is reached. However, Watt (2003:83) advises that, if a consensus was not reached between the identified key parties in respect to the terms and conditions of partnership, there is a great possibility that the partnership might not be successful. The I&DeA (2009) report claims that lack of clarity pertaining to the common purpose of partnership, tends to cause confusion and, as a result, progress may be compromised, while on the other hand, shared commitment to a specific goal transforms and brings stability to the group, preventing chaos that may arise. Wright (2009:138) also upheld the findings of the I&DeA report (2009) that a

lack of clear shared goals has the potential to hamper the success of the programme. Simpson and Partington (2013:150) emphasise that it is crucial for anyone wishing to be in partnership to be alert in exercising due diligence because much could go wrong. The authors say that partnership costs money to develop and maintain, so if it is not properly managed, loss of good reputation and credibility may occur. The key questions that the SDOs need to address when aiming to pursue effective and successful collaboration were identified in the I&DeA report (2009:8) and Knight, Smith and Cropper (2001:141).

Following the fundamental questions that need to be factored into a partnership, the I&DeA (2009:14) report further stresses that an active and effective partnership ought to be characterised by structures and systems in which their focus fits the purpose. Additionally, the report explained that many of the issues and problems arising in partnerships are caused predominantly by inappropriate structures that do not reflect the purpose of the partnership. As a result, the objectives and purpose of partnership generally become confusing to all partners involved. Subsequent to the report of I&DeA (2009), Robson and Partington (2013:129) advise the SDOs to be cognisant of the following factors as they characterise the nature of partnership:

i) Timescale

A partnership may either be permanent or temporary and therefore, it may operate over different time periods (Robson & Partington, 2013:129). This implies that understanding the primary reasons for individuals and/or groups to get involved in partnership, may provide a sense of whether interested parties commit for a shorter or longer period. Based on insight into the character of this partnership, it is evident that partnership is primarily about potential partners be aligned with each other. Therefore, this view proposes that SDOs need to be alert that if the goals of the allied partner(s) are not achieved, the partnership is most likely to dissolve.

ii) Type of partners

Here the SDOs need to be strategic in terms of deciding who they wish to be in partnership with and for what reasons. Robson and Partington (2013:129) indicate that partnerships involving commercial bodies as sponsors of services delivered by public and voluntary sections are becoming more common in sport development.

iii) Power distribution

Furthermore, Robson and Partington (2013) hold the view that, although many allies commit to be in an equal partnership with others, it is crucial to bear in mind that some partners may be influenced by power or may dominate the relationship. With this in mind, Slack and Parent (2006), in Robson and Partington (2013:130), say that the term 'partnership', implies the degree to which partners are able to influence and control the behaviour and outputs of other partners, while the I&DeA (2009:9) report comments that 'key to developing successful working relationships is to recognise the difference between control and influence'. Moreover, the report (I&DeA, 2009) indicates that, in a genuine partnership, no one has full control. Also, although some partners may have more power than others, as soon as power is exercised vigorously without the support of other allies, trust disappears rapidly and relationships are weakened. This means that the SDOs need to be vigilant that, as soon as they commit to any form of partnership with other potential allies who have the resources, power, dominance and control are likely to be experienced at first hand. Subsequently, the roles and responsibilities of the party that proposed partnership may tend to change over time to something that was not intended.

iv) Scale or size

Generally, the scale or size of partnership is crucial in determining whether the partnership becomes a success or a failure. Robson and Partington (2013:131) emphasise that individuals and groups enter partnerships for many possible motivations. Furthermore, individuals and or groups are motivated to enter a partnership because of the established goals and/or aims. Based on this premise, it is evident that individuals and/or groups commit to a partnership to gain something that they would not be able to attain on their own.

Maleka (2015:192) agrees with Robson and Partington's (2013) perspective by recommending that, in order for sports programmes to be implemented effectively in South Africa, it is essential for the partnership to be at the forefront of the SDOs. For sport and recreation programmes to be successful in the country, the departments that ought to play a fundamental role are DSAC, Health, and Basic Education. Maleka (2015) emphasises that a partnership among the identified departments should be strengthened to allow the establishment of clear guidelines on how to fast-track the

HIV/AIDS activities provided by sport for development NGOs as well as for community clubs to ensure alignment with other health-based organisations. She recommends that to ensure that this partnership is aligned with the objectives of the National Strategic Plan, platforms such as knowledge sharing, information and practices regarding the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the programme should be encouraged among all parties involved with community development. This approach will provide many opportunities to the identified stakeholders to learn from one another and to promote good practices in the field, not of sport alone, but also of education and health.

In efforts to ensure that an effective partnership is in place and beneficial to all relevant parties, Watt (2003:83) emphasised that the work allocation must be clear, all parties involved ought to be honest and trustworthy, objectives of the project must be clear and that there must a strong interpersonal relationship that exist among all parties involved. Although there is high demand for a joint partnership globally, the I&DeA (2009) report reveals that sometimes a partnership can be very frustrating for various reasons such as partners not turning up for planning meetings, decisions taking longer than anticipated, no one being clear about what they are trying to achieve as well as arguments surfacing among members (I&DeA Report, 2009:5).

2.5.4 The benefits of partnership

In general, there are multiple benefits of partnership formation. For example, Robson and Partington (2013:133-136) outlined that, through partnership, funding is most likely to increase, duplicated programmes being eliminated, whilst organisations may carry the financial burden equally. Additionally, human resources can be maximised, goals can easily be attained owing to a greater pool of influence, vital resources are accessed and, most importantly, shared among key partners. Finally, productive personal relationships lead to a shared commitment to pooling resources and sharing valuable information, and there is more support from the internal and external.

In light of these, Skinner et al., (2008:16) states that key success factors in servicing the needs of disadvantaged communities involves 'developing, engaging and retaining multiple partners that can support the delivery of programmes and outcomes through a range of different mechanisms including funding and delivery expert advice.

Partnership is not only meaningful through its financial support structure, but broadly contributes towards fulfilling the role of community social responsibility (CSR). In support of this perspective, Sotiriadou (2009:855) mentions that it is challenging to have successful sport programmes without the assistance and input of stakeholders. Years later, De Coning and Wissink (2011:3) agree with Skinner et al., (2008) and Sotiriadou (2009) by indicating that the key factor for success lies primarily within the formation of a good relationship between the state and community organisations.

Against this background, it is vital to identify potential stakeholders to do business with because stakeholders often play a pivotal role in the effective delivery of the programme, develop distinctive strategies on how things ought to be done, and generate key policies addressing the challenges facing programme implementation. This view implies that, in the absence of a good working partnership, community programmes with good intent may not be sustained and are likely to fail. Generally, people who wish to engage in partnership tend to overlook the challenges that are associated with multiple cross-sector partnerships. Carroll and Steane (2005), in Babiak and Thibault (2009:121) assert that partnerships between business, government and non-profits can be problematic when values clash.

Babiak and Thibault (2009:117) warn organisations to think differently about their partnerships because there is a growing dependence on multiple partners from across sectors. In addition, Coulson (2005), in Babiak and Thibault (2009:121), and Ismail, Yusuwan and Baharuddin (2012:101), argue that developing multiple partnerships with many organisations can create serious problems because some partners may not want to account for their actions. The authors clearly convey that multiple cross-sector partnerships can be influenced negatively by attributes such as: i) environmental constraints; ii) diversity in organisational aims; iii) barriers in communication; iv) difficulties in developing joint modes of operating; v) building trust; vi) and managing the logistics of working with geographically dispersed partners.

With this in mind, the SDOs must ensure that potential parties represent the full range of interests across the subject of the partnership; otherwise the legitimacy of the partnership could easily be hampered.

2.5.5 The roles and responsibilities of a good partnership working

The DSAC as the National Government is to transform the delivery of sports, arts and culture by ensuring equitable access, development and excellence at all levels of participation and to harness the socio-economic contributions that can create a better life for all South Africans, while the local government aims to provide democratic and accountable government for local communities (The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996:81).

Earlier on, the report assembled by the I&DeA (2009) revealed that one of the prevalent mistakes made by most organisations when engaged in partnerships is the omission to clearly outline the roles and responsibilities of each partner involved.

Knight et al., (2001) as well as Robson and Partington (2013), caution that it is crucial to be vigilant about the terms and conditions of the new relationship because potential partners may have their own agenda which they would like to pursue while in partnership. In the same vein, the I&DeA report (2009:8) proclaimed that a successful partnership should play a vital role in various aspects, including:

- Sharing information on policy, resources, user needs, good practice, service standards and other relevant matters;
- Improving the sector's contribution to the local community;
- Mapping the needs, wants and interests of local communities;
- Mapping the resources and services available to local communities and other local partners;
- Identifying barriers to access and gaps in services;
- Developing and agreeing on what actions need to be taken to address the gaps and barriers in accordance with priorities agreed upon by the group;
- Promoting better public awareness of the culture and sport sector;
- Creating a better understanding of the needs of the local community as far as culture and sport is concerned; and
- Working with regional agencies to identify regional issues and specific actions with which partnerships can engage.

In pursuit of making partnership a success, Dowling et al. (2004:313) assert that achieving success in partnerships hinges on several key factors, including: i) the level

of engagement and commitment of the partners; ii) agreement about the purpose of and need for the partnership; iii) high levels of trust, reciprocity; and iv) respect among partners who operate in a smooth environment where there are structures, processes and systems in place as well as adequate and effective leadership.

In most parts of the world, community organisations have a good relationship with each other and work together to achieve common goals in sport. This assertion implies that when civil organisations do not have a good relationship with each other, dire consequences may rise. Sotiriadou (2009:6) emphasised that one of the benefits for working in harmony is being familiar with the challenges that each organisation may face. The author holds the view that the outcome of the project serves as a reflection to determine the type of partnership that was established and, most importantly, the role each partner played towards the end results (Sotiriadou, 2009:7), implying that it is against this background that SDOs need to identify potential partners strategically, who hold common goals.

One could attest to the author's views that, in the South African context for example, this can be one of the primary reasons that most community projects seem to struggle to achieve their objectives. Notably, in South Africa, there are numerous community programmes (both public and private) that have been designed to benefit various communities greatly; however, many of them do not achieve their goals. Owing to the lack of successful community programme delivery, this results in an increase in community unrest or protests across the country where community members get together and become violent to demonstrate their service delivery dissatisfaction towards government.

Given this premise, it is clear that successful partnerships are built on the basis of mutual respect, trust, transparency, effective communication, understanding the roles of each party and mutual benefit. However, it is evident that, if the conditions of partnership are not well defined for all parties involved in terms of who is responsible for doing what, what the cost implications are, and an indication of how long the partnership is intended to last, there is a greater possibility that the partnership might not attain its objectives. Moreover, it is crucial for organisations entering into a

partnership to develop a policy on that distinctively outline how they intend to hold each other accountable.

2.6 Summary

In this chapter, different concepts that are crucial to the contribution of CSD were reviewed. In light of the various CSD concepts, literature proposes that, in pursuit of understanding the broader context of SfD, it is essential for the SDOs to reinforce the two approaches (sport plus and plus sport) that are important in achieving youth development goals. Additionally, key challenges that SDOs need to be cognisant of, should they wish to promote and develop CSD effectively, were also addressed in detail as part of the literature across the various sections.

In order for the CSD programmes to be meaningful and impactful, different literature recommends that all relevant key stakeholders should be identified and involved in working towards achieving a common goal. However, in the efforts to ensure that partnership is worthwhile, the literature emphasises that the SDOs need to bear in mind that some potential partners may enter a partnership with the intent to advance their own agenda at the expense of collective efforts. Therefore, to prevent this from happening, it is crucial that objectives, goals, roles and responsibilities of potential partners are outlined from the onset before signing an agreement between all parties concerned.

The next chapter focuses on the literature that is relevant for gaining insight into an understanding of how sports clubs operate internationally.

CHAPTER THREE: INTERNATIONAL CONCEPTS ON CLUB DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter broadly presented the generic theoretical concepts that are crucial in design and implementation of effective programmes in communities through sport. This chapter focuses on the literature that is relevant in gaining insight into understanding how different countries define sport clubs in the context of developing communities. Therefore, literature provided in this chapter is deemed crucial to address the research questions of the study. For example, relevant content was outlined in relation to international theoretical approaches and practices associated with the design and implementation of the club development programme. Furthermore, the key success factors are also highlighted that are important in implementing the CDP within communities.

Many scholars (Allison, 2001; Breuer & Wicker, 2011; Misener & Doherty, 2009) declare that community sport is regarded as an important institution and plays a fundamental role in the provision of sport across the globe. This notion emerged from the recognition that 'sport does not only provide opportunities for the local citizens, but also provides settings and opportunities in local communities for social programmes' (Wicker, Filo & Cuskelly, 2013:510). Additionally, the scholars stress that sports clubs play a pivotal role in taking a lead towards integrating youth and immigrants, keeping youth off the streets and, on a broader scale, it contributes towards community building and social cohesion.

3.2 Characteristics of sports clubs in Europe

In this section, the common characteristics are identified of sports clubs across various European Union (EU) countries. Attributes such as size (club structure, membership, activities and programme offered), staff, facilities, finances, community links and professionalisation are among fundamental factors that influence the success of a community sports club. Alexandris and Balaska (2015:215) add that, for community sports clubs to be self-sustainable and self-reliant, the characteristics of sports clubs are to attract and increase financial revenues (from both public and private sectors), adopt a recreational philosophy towards the programme, initiate more programmes

that seek to address an active and healthy lifestyle, increase membership and educate coaches and instructors towards the philosophy of recreational culture.

Given the analysis of the review of various countries in the EU, literature shows that most sports clubs are amateur sports clubs. Weiss and Norden (2015:38) assert that Austria, for example, has a few professional sports clubs, namely, football, ice hockey, basketball and handball. This implies that the majority of the population take part in mass participation and leisure programmes. The authors also indicate that most sports clubs offer sporting activities during the week in the evening, while more than two-thirds of the sports clubs in Austria were reported also to offer sport during the weekends. Furthermore, most of the country's sports clubs offer social programmes to house individuals who are intending to socialise and network with others.

Denmark is a country with an estimated population of about 6 million. According to Ibsen, Osterlund and Laub (2015:85), four out of ten adults and, as far as the youth is concerned, eight out of ten school children were reported to take part in sport activities on a daily basis. Sports clubs in Denmark offer sport activities for which sports clubs provide services. As a result, most sports clubs in Europe commit to sporting codes (single activities) for which the club has capacity (Ibsen et al., 2015:95). Furthermore, the authors stress:

... almost seven out of ten sports clubs in Denmark, (which is about 69%) describe themselves as single-sports clubs. This is because they regard themselves as community sports clubs that provide for only one sports activity for their membership.

Although most of the sports clubs in Denmark are single-activity oriented, many offer a wide range of activities (Ibsen et al., 2015:96). As far the club structure is concerned in Denmark, the board is elected annually by club members to ensure that systems are in place for the club to be self-sustainable. This practice exemplifies that there appears to be accountability within the sports club because the elected members understand the roles that they ought to execute within the club.

With regard to the terms of reference in respect to volunteerism, volunteers in the EU borders are regarded highly as social capital. This view is derived from the premise that, since the emergence of sports clubs in Europe in the mid-19th century, volunteers

have been playing a significant role in the success of sports clubs. In England, just as in Austria, Denmark, Finland, Germany, and Greece, most sports clubs provide a single sport with a variety of activities which are managed by volunteers who are not getting paid. These countries do not operate without a board of directors serving as an important body to make key decisions influencing the future operation of the organisation. Nichols and Taylor (2015:121) say that, on average, each sports club in the UK has about 24 volunteers who usually assist with administering the affairs of the clubs, and a minimum of two paid volunteers. As much as membership growth is a contentious issue for each club, Koski, Itkonen, Lehtonen and Vehmas, (2015:154) stress that the provision of different activities within the sports club should be a priority for the SDOs as they may have a great influence in making community members remain committed in the club. This view implies that there has been a significant shift in the industry as it is crucial for the needs of community members to be understood.

As far as human capital is concerned, volunteers are involved in the management of community sports clubs. In order to ensure that community sports clubs are governed properly, governments from various EU countries play a crucial role in empowering volunteers to undergo frequent training that may be relevant in assisting them with their day-to-day duties within the club. In addition, the literature reviewed here shows that the relationship exists between central government and academic institutions because in countries such as Austria, France, Germany, Greece, and the Netherlands, central government is committed to supporting those individuals with an equivalent qualification to sport management and science disciplines, to be given priority in getting involved in the governance of sports clubs. Nichols and Taylor (2015:124) point out that there are multiple benefits in establishing a good relationship between academic institutions and community sport clubs because students will join the clubs as ordinary members; there will be an effective communication between the two links; club members will advertise club opportunities in schools; club coaches and officials will assist in facilitating PE lessons in schools; and community sports club coaches and officials will get the opportunity to identify talent in schools.

With regard to the sport facilities, the reviewed literature illustrates that central government across the EU countries is committed to assisting community clubs to maintain and rent out the sport facilities of other providers. Additionally, a few years

ago, Breuer and Wicker (2011:5) said that, in order to achieve the goals set by community sports clubs and central government across the globe, partnering with other relevant parties is crucial. For example, the authors infer that sports clubs in Germany have a good working relationship with key partners, such as the government, schools and other relevant sectors with special interests to promote and develop sport within communities. Further reference is given to partnerships where the main focus is in primary education because nearly 20% of all sports clubs in Germany partnered with primary schools, while 10% of sports clubs are partnering with Basic Education institutions, about 10% with advanced secondary schools, and at least 8% of sports clubs are partnered with intermediate schools.

In light of the benefits of the healthcare programmes that are offered within the club setting, Eime, Harvey, Brown and Payne (2010:1022) reiterate that involvement in sports clubs impact positively on the social and mental well-being of individuals or groups. Drawing from the literature, it is clear that a sports club with systemic governance has the ability to enhance the quality of life of the community members at large. Furthermore, Eime et al., (2010) stress that an environment that is well controlled is most likely to offer community members values such as: social connectedness; social support; peer bonding; increased life satisfaction; enhance self-esteem and reduced stress, anxiety, and depression. In pursuit of excellence to ensure that sports clubs are managed effectively, Breuer and Wicker (2011:20) also said that sports clubs in Germany engage their permanent and part-time employees in training to acquire necessary education. It is interesting to discover that internship programmes are also offered to those with the interest to be associated with the sports clubs. This insight may give perspective to the justification why German sports clubs are demonstrated to be successful and have a meaningful impact towards society. Notably, in most parts of the world, staff members with equivalent qualifications are expected to design and implement programmes to assist the sports clubs to achieve their set goals.

Breuer and Wicker (2011:20) emphasise that it is crucial for community sports clubs that aim to set high value on the quality of their sport and healthcare programmes to employ people who possess at least relevant qualifications to the sport discipline. In the same vein, Nagel et al., (2015:9) also endorse their viewpoint that, in order for

sports clubs to be successful, it is vital for staff with specific and/or equivalent sport qualifications to be part of the club setting. Breuer and Wicker (2011:14) point out that 'with the absence of sports clubs in Germany, elite sport would be hard to imagine'. This statement implies that sports clubs in Germany make a huge impact in the lives of the German population. Additionally, it affirms that sports clubs play a distinctive role in achieving elite goals. It is evident that grassroots programmes in Germany are given constant support and are well coordinated in order for national goals to be achieved. In Germany for example, Breuer et al., (2015:195) stated that more than 35% of the local schools work together with local sports clubs to achieve a common goal. In contrast, in the South African context, the majority of the CDP community football clubs have not established a good relationship with more than three key stakeholders with the intention of ensuring that the programme objectives are achieved effectively. Given the international norm with regards to partnership, it is suggested that the CDP sports clubs in South Africa need to adopt similar approaches that the international clubs take when wishing to attain their objectives. Therefore, it is important that in efforts to broaden their relationship horizons, sports clubs ought to ensure that the roles and responsibilities of each potential partner are outlined clearly. In Germany, sports clubs offer sporting codes that are aligned with the provision of its sport facilities. Contrary to this view, most sports clubs within African countries have multiple sporting codes without appropriate facilities to house the identified sporting codes they (as a club) wish to offer.

In an attempt to ensure that each sporting code is impactful and meaningful to the community, Breuer et al., (2015:196) recommend that it is vital to offer sport codes for which the club has facilities. In light of this sentiment, one can conclude that it is not ideal for a club to provide multiple sport codes while there are not sufficient facilities to stage the respective codes because this practice could contribute to the severity of problems. Moreover, such practice is believed to have the potential to increase a high rate of dropouts, since individual members may feel that they are not catered for effectively by the local club. As far as qualifications are concerned, Breuer et al., (2015:201) mention that in Germany, volunteers and paid staff are equipped with several qualifications. The authors affirm that about 90% of the employees who are based within German sports clubs have a formal qualification to govern sports clubs. This view implies that sports clubs are most likely to be managed by people who

possess knowledge and qualifications, and have relevant skills to run the club successfully.

Furthermore, for the purpose of gaining insight into understanding how community sport programmes are governed globally, policies are looked at in this section that are relevant for the development of community sports clubs in various countries and continents. Therefore, the review of literature in this chapter is linked to: Austria, Denmark, England, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Australia, Canada, Latin America and Africa. These countries were identified on the basis that they provide key insight and knowledge on the successful implementation of community sport club programmes, which South Africa can learn from. The researcher believes that studying their approaches and experiences in developing community sport clubs will enhance the development and impact of community-based sports clubs in Africa, particularly, South Africa. Although some countries discussed herein may have a smaller population size as compared to South Africa, it is believed that their approach and methods to successful implementation could serve as a valuable benchmark for successful community projects.

3.3 International policy on sport and development

The origin of sport policy development in Europe can be traced back to the early decades of the 20th century. Conversely, in Africa, there appears to be a lack of clear information pertaining to the origin of sport.

In recent years, many countries across the world (particularly in developing countries) recognise sport as a tool that has the ability to bring people together, promote health awareness, prevent diseases, strengthen child and youth development and education, foster social inclusion, prevent conflict and enhance inclusion of persons with disabilities (SDP IWG, 2008:6). Based on this premise, Byers, Slack and Parent (2012:154) endorse Houlihan's (1997) views that many governments across the world recognise the ability of sport to obtain its broader objectives in relation to health, economy, social well-being, reducing crime and many other issues that are of great concern to modern society. Green (2008:921–922) also states that, of late, many countries around the world now prioritise developing sport policy as a key instrument to contribute towards achieving their national agendas such as social inclusion, crime

reduction, urban regeneration, raising school standards, reducing obesity, and international prestige through sport. Of note, although the purpose of this study is not to delve into the derivation of sport policy in Africa, the background stimulates the researcher to establish the degree to which sport, in particular the CDP as a national initiative in South Africa, appears not to have achieved its strategic objectives since its inception in 2006. It is against this background that most governments across the world have increasingly become involved in funding sport programmes and activities so that their objectives can be attained.

However, in order for countries to achieve their set objectives relating to sport, it is necessary for policy formulation and implementation to be at the forefront of the agenda for various countries across the world. Taylor (2013:196) indicates that, in order for public policy to be effective within society, it is vital that governments set up platforms that promote equal opportunities for participation, regardless of income. This view affirms that ordinary citizens have an important role to play by adding significant value in assisting government to develop a public policy. Subsequent to Green's view (2005; 2008), Shilbury et al., (2008:217) asserted that policy and the future patterns of sport delivery are key mechanisms to categorise sport development:

i) Policy

Broadly, policy is the most prolific concept in achieving the sport development agenda. Hums and MacLean (2013:50) stress that, in order for any sport organisation to be functional fully in achieving its set objectives, it is important that effective policies are in place. The scholars made further recommendations that the areas where policies need to be established in a sport setting are finance, human resources, facility use and control, equipment, travel, public relations, promotion and other items related to managing risk, while De Coning and Wissink (2011:4) describe policy as a 'statement of intent or an action plan to transform a perceived problem into a future solution'. In South Africa for example, DSAC through SRSA developed policies (such as the White Paper on Sport and Recreation and NSRP) which set out government's vision for sport and recreation and furnishes details on what kind of impact such programmes should make across the country.

ii) Future patterns of sport delivery

Sport is one of the disciplines that has evolved rapidly. For example, the history of contemporary sport details an evolution from games played predominantly for military and entertainment purposes to an industry rivalling any other in size and power. For example, nowadays, the sport environment is influenced by politics, culture, big business and lifestyle differences. Shilbury et al., (2008:220) point out that nowadays, it is crucial for anyone involved in the sport discipline to recognise the lifestyle differences between the different generations such as Baby Boomers/Generation X and Generation Z (also referred to as Generation V-the virtual generation-children born in the early 1990s). The scholars add that this change within the environment (including generations) significantly influences how sport programmes will be designed and delivered. Owing to the nature of rapid change in technology, Shilbury et al., (2008) stress that it is important for the key stakeholders responsible for initiating sport development programmes to acknowledge that the modern generation, for example, may be more influenced by sporting activities associated with advanced technology such as the Nintendo Wii. This view compels the SDOs to create a conducive environment that enables old and new generations to work in harmony towards achieving the sport development goals.

For decades, many countries around the world have had the benefits of participating in sport without necessarily structuring sport activities into formal practice for compliance. It is worth noting that, despite the involvement of government in the UK in respect to the development of sport policies, another organisation plays a fundamental role in ensuring that policies in sport exist. According to Bloyce and Smith (2010:30), one of the oldest organisations that plays a key role in sport policy and sport development activity in Britain (UK) is the Central Council for Physical Recreation (CCPR), which was inaugurated in 1935. The authors stated that this organisation (CCPR) serves as an independent voluntary body representing a wide range of interest from different governing bodies in the promotion, improvement and development of sport in the UK. Years later (in 1957), CCPR commissioned Sir John Wolfenden to be the chairperson of the committee responsible for examining the status and impact of sport in the UK. The Wolfenden report was released in 1960. The report provided the context within which public involvement in sport was to be considered in order for UK sport to do well in the future (Bloyce & Smith, 2010:30). Contrary to the

view, in South Africa, for example, sport is not governed by an independent voluntary body, but by DSAC. In reference to the given synopsis, the common factor is that the government from both countries (South Africa and Britain) are involved in sport and have the responsibility to govern and regulate policies pertaining to sport development and promotion. In contrast, in Britain, apart from government, there is an independent voluntary body also governing sport (CCPR), while in South Africa, there is no independent voluntary body that is solely responsible for both the development and promotion of sport in communities.

During the General Conference of the International Charter of Physical Education and Sport that was first held in 1978 in Paris by the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), it was affirmed by the delegates representing various nations that the practice of physical education and sport is a fundamental right for all. Following that, the delegates put an emphasis on sport promotion and development across the world being guided by policy. It is against this background that the 'International Charter on Physical Education and Sport' was revised in 2015. The primary focus for the revision of the International Charter of Physical Education, Physical Activity and Sport was to promote gender equality, non-discrimination and social inclusion in and through sport. The revised charter comprises twelve fundamental articles, namely:

- Article 1. The practice of physical education, physical activity and sport is a fundamental right for all;
- Article 2. Physical education, physical activity and sport can yield a wide range of benefits to individuals, communities and society at large;
- Article 3. All stakeholders must participate in creating a strategic vision identifying policy options and priorities;
- Article 4. Physical education, physical activity and sport programmes must inspire lifelong participation;
- Article 5. All stakeholders must ensure that their activities are economically, socially and environmentally sustainable;
- Article 6. Research, evidence and evaluation are indispensable components for the development of physical education, physical activity and sport;

- Article 7. Teaching, coaching and administration of physical education, physical activity and sport must be performed by qualified personnel;
- Article 8. Adequate and safe spaces, facilities and equipment are essential to quality physical education, physical activity and sport;
- Article 9. Safety and the management of risk are necessary conditions of quality provision;
- Article 10. Protection and promotion of the integrity and ethical values of physical education, physical activity and sport must be a constant concern for all;
- Article 11. Physical education, physical activity and sport can play an important role in the realisation of development, peace and post-conflict and post-disaster objectives; and
- Article 12. International cooperation is a prerequisite for enhancing the scope and impact of physical education, physical activity and sport

(UNESCO, 2015:2-9).

3.3.1 Policy definitions in the sport context

In respect to defining policy, Dopson and Waddington (1996:546) emphasise that anyone wishing to develop policy, needs to be cognisant that the policy process involves many people at different levels within and outside the organisation. This assertion stresses that there is much that needs to be considered during the conceptualisation of developing a policy.

With specific reference to the definition and significance of sport policy, Bloyce and Smith (2010:1) cited that recently, the promotion and development of sport have become increasingly common features of government sport policy and sport development related activity in many countries. Subsequently, Byers et al., (2012:153) define sport policy as 'the formal rules and regulations of a sport organisation (or government) which are intended to guide employees' actions', while Tucker (2013:178) said that 'policy defines the company's goals and objectives and its operational domain, strategy decides how the company's goals and objectives will be achieved, what operational units will be used to achieve the company's goals and objectives and how those operational units will be structured'. The scholars interpret

policy as the fundamental principle crucial in the pursuit of attaining goals. They also emphasise that policy interprets the values of society and is usually embodied in the management of pertinent projects and programmes. The authors also state that policy normally refers to a 'general macro-level policy strategy, which mainly focuses on what should be done, while strategy refers to an implementation strategy or a business plan, which primarily focuses on how, when, by whom and what should be done' (De Coning & Wissink, 2018:8).

Byers et al., (2012:153) gave further substance in relation to how different sectors of the business (private and public) describe the term 'policy'. They indicate that the public sector often uses the term 'policy', while the private sector prefers the word 'strategy'. De Coning and Wissink (2018:8) concur with Byers et al., (2012) by saying that 'the two aforementioned terms can generally be used interchangeably but in technical policy terminology, are frequently distinguished as separate process'. Although the two terms may be used interchangeably, it is crucial to understand the context in which they are viewed and defined. Robson et al., (2013:9) advocate that a clear delineation between the two terms is vital because this helps to minimise misunderstanding and to promote sharper insight into its complicated interrelationships. According to Brynard, Cloete and De Coning (2011:135-136) planning, strategy generation, programmes, projects and operations management are used for policy implementation. The implementation process usually takes place at various levels of government in partnership with NGOs and the private sector.

3.3.2 Governance in programme management

Hums and MacLean (2013:3-4) mention that governance is associated with power, authority, control and high-level policy making in organisations. In the same vein, Dowling, Leopkey and Smith (2018:440) also cited that governance is associated with the notion of power within the sport organisation, while Thompson, Lachance, Parent and Hoye (2022:2) asserted that governance refers to how sport organisations are directed, controlled and regulated. Dowling et al., (2018) indicated that the term has become a central concern to many academics and sport organisations. Furthermore, Dowling et al., (2018:440) asserted that governance has gained a global attention and was developed to control identify and effectively manage the recent high profile failures specifically within the context sport. Dowling et al., (2018:9) and Thompson et

al., (2022:2) highlighted that the governance approaches that organisational leaders need to be cognisant of, are: organisational, systemic and political. With regards to the organisational governance, the scholars articulated that this perspective is mainly concerned with how managers behave within the organisation. Moreover, this facet primarily focuses the norms, ethical standards, values, and processes surrounding the business conduct and management of the sport organisation (Dowling et al., (2018:11). With regards to systemic governance, Dowling et al., (2018) alluded that this facet addresses competition, cooperation and mutual adjustment between the business and corporate. In essence, the scholars emphasised that this facet compels the leader of a sport organisation to ensure that a good relationship exists between the organisation and its key stakeholders. Lastly, Thompson et al., (2022:2) and Dowling et., (2018:14) added that political governance largely focuses on how government or governing bodies give direction to the sport organisation.

Bouah (2015:22) expresses that governance within the sporting structure plays a key role because the term has a direct bearing on implementation and also emphasises the relationship between the role of government and civil society. Furthermore, Bouah (2015:28) cites that good corporate governance occurs where regular elections, good financial management and sound governance principles are practised fairly within the organisational structure. De Coning (2014:14) supports Hums and MacLean (2013), and Bouah (2015), by recommending that any sporting programme that needs to be managed effectively within the public sector, should focus on areas such as governance, sport policy, legislation, strategy, plans, monitoring and evaluation, and regulation.

In order for good governance to exist within the organisation, the supplementary file no.2 in Thompson et al., (2022:1) and the report of the Association of Summer Olympic International Federation (also known as ASOIF), indicated that the principles of good governance comprise of: transparency, integrity, accountability, democracy and decision-making, development and solidarity, control mechanisms, effectiveness, efficiency, equality and inclusivity, sustainability, separation of powers, stakeholder engagement and strategic focus (ASOIF, 2022:2).

3.3.3 Politics in the context of sport environment

Today, there is an ongoing dispute from various members of civil society (both internationally and nationally) that sport and politics should be separated. However, owing to the nature and environment in which sport is operating, Tucker (2013:177) argues that the two concepts (sport and politics) should not be separated as they are attached to each other. Tucker submits that sport development operates within a highly politicised climate. Therefore, anyone involved in the environment of sport, requires some understanding of how the political environment operates. Tucker (2013:180) says that evidence pertaining to the relationship between sport and politics dates throughout the past 50 years. The scholar acknowledges the report compiled by Houlihan and White (2002) highlighting that sport and politics cannot be separated. Tucker mentions that the Wolfenden report of 1960 highlights that the International Olympics Committee (IOC) and other sport bodies excluded South Africa from competing in international sport owing to apartheid. The report further highlights that, in the UK, an initiative called Action Sport was introduced in the early 1980s in response to inner city riots.

Bouah (2015:35) also posits that, during the struggle against apartheid, 'sport was used as a weapon by the oppressed people of South Africa in its fight against the apartheid regime'. He adds that the sport arena was seen as an important site of the struggle and that it was an important negotiating tool. In the democratic era the new government has used sport as a tool to mobilise the broader community and to build patriotism and nationalism. Nowadays, politics plays an influential role in how sport ought to be governed. An example worth noting is that, owing to the nature of politics in modern South Africa, government continues to reduce the budget allocation on an annual basis for sport programmes that are instrumental and are also the cornerstone of promoting and developing sport in the country. Bearing in mind Tucker's (2013) notion that sport and politics cannot be separated, this approach creates a serious concern to everyone involved in sport development in South Africa, as it paints a bleak picture for the future in this regard.

Given the insight on the basis of sport operation in South Africa, Wolsey and Abrams (2013:12) asserted that it should not be surprising to experience such operation because 'powerful stakeholders like central government, have the power to influence

both policy and practice in order to justify investment decisions (inputs) and differentially prioritise the intrinsic and extrinsic benefits (outputs) of sport'. The authors hold strong views that one of the primary reasons for government to determine how resources will be disseminated in sport, is because, generally, sport appears not to be regarded as a priority in most countries. Wolsey and Abrams (2013:12) state that 'sport policy occupies a contested space on the margins of mainstream government policy discourse relating to areas such as education, health and social services'. In light of this background, one may relate to this view to argue that sport in South Africa appears not to receive the attention it deserves from central government, in comparison to other sectors such as education, health and social services. Compared to those sectors, central government allocates more resources than to the sport sector. This substantiates the view that government has the power to determine how resources ought to be allocated and used.

In the South African context, CDP serves as a greater part of the SMPP. One of the key features of a successful sport programme is to ensure that sport organisations design the programme that not only focuses on promoting competition, but advocating for recreation also. This notion affirms that each community sports club attempts to cater to the basic needs and desires of the different age groups. For example, Table 3.1 shows multiple community sport programmes that are offered to different age groups in Northern Ireland.

The logo of the University of the Western Cape, featuring a stylized building with columns and a pediment above the text 'UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE'.

UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE

Table 3.1: Different community sport programmes offered in Northern Ireland (Sport Northern Ireland, 2007:7-12)

Classification of programme	Programme purpose
Fit For Life club	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Offer group members the opportunity of high-quality, guided and affordable physical activity in an environment that is welcoming to all – regardless of age, fitness and ability - Activities offered in this programme include aerobics, badminton, weights, swimming and the use of the gym and the health suite - This programme offers members much social gain
Midnight street soccer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - This programme serves as a crime diversion within communities - Soccer is used as an alternative to antisocial activities within the local communities - Teams are established in local areas and participate in a local late--night league
Contemporary dance workshops	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - This programme provides an opportunity to participate in a non-mainstream physical activity and leads to an increase in the girls' self-esteem and confidence - Because of participation in this programme, participants gain the confidence to join other dance classes and are expected to sustain their increase in physical activity
Intergenerational project	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - This project delivers sport and physical activities to carers of all ages - This project gives both adult and young carers an opportunity to interact with each other and nature while enjoying many of the activities provided away from their caring role - The activities incorporated in this programme are set to be bouldering, kayaking, wall- and rock climbing and abseiling.

Classification of programme	Programme purpose
Sport for people living with disability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - This programme is targeted specifically at people with disabilities and older people - The programme was designed strategically as a means to support and appreciate people living with disability within communities
Family fit and well	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - This is an ongoing exercise referral programme for individuals and families - Participants are offered an exercise programme to improve their health and make long-term changes to their lifestyle - This programme provides opportunities for families to be active together and promotes lifelong participation

It is against this background that the researcher is encouraged to probe whether all the community sports clubs that are part of CDP in South Africa could possibly apply a similar approach in order for the programme to meet its intended objectives. The researcher finds the approach used by the community sports clubs in Northern Ireland to promote mass participation interesting because some of the strategic objectives of CDP in South Africa are to 'increase the levels of participation of South Africans in sport and recreation', 'motivate communities to develop active lifestyle' and 'to develop the human resource potential for the management of sport and recreation in South Africa' (South Africa. Department of Sport and Recreation, n.d:3). Appelcryn (2012:2) reports that one of the greatest challenges of CDP is that the programme has no accurate database of the number of existing clubs and membership status. As a result, community sports clubs were found not to be sustainable.

This section also seeks to focus on understanding the broader context of the operation of community sports clubs internationally. In efforts to achieve this, various international concepts underpinning CDP will be reviewed to help understand the terrain and pedagogical approaches applied to developing community sports clubs. For the purpose of this section, the review of literature serves as a baseline to gain a broader understanding of how developed and developing countries (with special

reference to South Africa) design and implement sports clubs programmes effectively within their respective communities. First, the researcher will look into reviewing international theoretical approaches and practices important to the design and implementation of the CDP (as referred to in Chapter One). Subsequently, the researcher will narrow the focus and align it with the South African context as the setting for conducting the study.

Notwithstanding the good practices allied with CDP in developed countries, the success factors that are important for the design and implementation of the CDP in South Africa were also reviewed. Moreover, this chapter is aimed at conceptualising CDP in an international and domestic context through:

- unpacking the nature and unique positioning of community sports clubs;
- international and domestic concepts of CDP;
- logical frameworks for developing CDP;
- characteristics of sports clubs;
- guidelines for establishing a community sports club;
- challenges facing global sports clubs; and
- understanding the role of a sports club within communities.

Thereafter, lessons to be learnt will be drawn up concerning the improvement of CDP with particular reference to comprehensive consideration from both developed and developing countries.

3.4 The views of sports clubs as a panacea for community development

There are numerous generic elements that are at the heart of developing community football clubs. The British community repeatedly refer to a sports club as the grassroots foundation (Collins & Sparkes, 2010:167). Local community sports clubs are seen as centres of sport development in places such as Canada, the UK, Australia and New Zealand (Hoye et al., 2015:39). Watt (2003:65) concurs with Collins and Sparkes (2010) as well as with Hoye et al., (2015) that the fundamental principle concerning community sports club development is the creation of an environment that provides opportunities for people to participate in sport, as well as the fostering of support for the development of the new facility and activity sessions. Bailey (2015:63)

defines a club as a 'structured, constituted base for participation in sport which serves as a vehicle for long term participant development as well as mentorship programmes to cater for high performance'. He further emphasises that, for a sports club to be self-sustainable and to progress well in the competitive environment, it is dependent on the nominated individuals from the community to be responsible in administering, governing and managing the affairs of the club effectively.

Parallel to Bailey's (2015) views, Choi, Park, Jo and Lee (2015:264-265) describe mentoring as 'a structured and trusting relationship that brings young people together with caring individuals who offer guidance, support, and encouragement aimed at developing the competence and character of the mentee'. Choi et al., (2015:264) further advise that one of the good practices in developing a successful lifeskills programme for the youth is through forging a close relationship with caring adults. The authors infer that caring parents will give one-on-one mentoring sessions to the youth members of the community. In support of the view, the UN report on 'Sport: a global accelerator of peace and sustainable development for all' (UN Secretary-General report, 2020:6) emphasised that parents play a significant role in influencing their kids to be physically active. In the same breath, Wells and Hancock (2017:135-136) asserted that a mentorship programme plays a fundamental role in the organisation due to its ability to offer guidance, advice, empower and creates a platform where young leaders get the opportunity to lead their respective communities. Furthermore, the scholars warn that if the roles and benefits of mentorship are not clearly defined, the potential relationship may become marred with confusion and frustration.

Kokko et al., (2009:27) also express that a sports club is 'a place where children and adolescents actively participate in sport and where coaches and other adults contribute through actions'. The term 'sports clubs' and 'associations' are interpreted differently by many scholars around the world. Sotiriadou and Wicker (2013:298) said that these concepts vary in meaning and in different national contexts. The scholars continue that, in Poland, for example, 'a sports club is regarded as a local club association', while 'association' is a sub-type of sports club. In Germany, for example, the authors laud the views of Wicker and Breuer (2013), stating that associations encompass several clubs. It is worth noting that the authors also acknowledge Taks,

Renson, and Vanreusel (1999), declaring that what is called an association in Germany, is referred to as a federation in Belgium.

Drawing from these perspectives in describing sports clubs, 'sports clubs' and 'associations' are regarded as the cornerstones for the provision of sport facilities to accommodate one or more types of sports, the ability to organise sporting competitions, as well as developing positive international relations between sport associations and federations (Van Bottenburg et al., 2005:14). This implies that government, as a key body responsible for the development of local sports club, needs to ensure that necessary attention and support is given to local community sports clubs in order to achieve their strategic goals. In Scotland, the majority of the sports clubs rely greatly on volunteers to govern, administer and manage their organisation without necessarily being paid a lot of money (Hoye et al., 2015:40). This view encourages the researcher to seek good practices in the educational, cultural and motivational programmes that most successful international countries are using to govern their local community sports clubs.

Tonts and Atherley (2005:126) concur with Van Bottenburg et al., (2005) that 'sporting clubs in particular are often regarded as a central element in rural life'. The authors further state that 'local sporting clubs are the focus of community life and participation in, or exclusion from, such groups affects residents' daily life, social integration and flow of information'. On the other hand, Nagel et al., (2015:14) and Breuer (2005) describe sports clubs as 'organisations with a public purpose from a stakeholder's perspective'. Broadly, a sports club plays a pivotal role in unifying residents and increasing social cohesion in small communities. Therefore, in order for a club to be considered a healthy setting, it is the responsibility of the club management to ensure that challenges that might affect the individual's health within the club are addressed effectively.

Given the different definitions, a community sports club can be viewed as a setting that needs to be designed in such a way that community members share a common interest (experiences and knowledge) with the intent of developing a sense of belonging. Adding to the contextualisation of the term 'club' or 'association', Ibsen, et al., (2015:85) said that an 'association is normally regarded as a union of people with

common aims or interests, organised and managed by commonly accepted democratic rules and procedures'. Sotiriadou and Wicker (2013:297), as cited in Allison (2001), concur with Tonts and Atherley (2005) that, in many of the EU countries, community sports clubs are important sports and leisure service providers because sports clubs do not solely provide sporting opportunities for the community but also empower community members with social programmes that they can use in their day-to-day lives.

3.5 The overview of sports clubs: Countries perspective

Traditionally, community sports clubs in most European countries play a crucial role in providing leisure, sport and social programmes (Wicker & Breuer, 2015:32). In support of this view, Robertson et al., (2018:1) also affirm that, globally, community sport organisations play a significant role towards the creation and delivery of social capital as well as having positive health outcomes in local communities. In light of the positive role that sports clubs play in various communities, one of the factors that often appear to be overlooked by individuals and organisations within the sporting discipline, is the environment in which a sports club is operating. Foster and Meinhard (2005:44) argue that the environment plays a significant role in the creation and survival of the organisation. This denotes that sport organisers need to be wary of the factors that could influence the participants into losing interest in taking part in the activities that are offered in that particular environment.

Traditionally, Europe has been the powerhouse of international sport for many years. Sports clubs in most European countries were established in the middle of the 19th century. To date, sports clubs in most European countries are still regarded as the third-largest sector in terms of boosting the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Parallel to the view, Goal 8 of the SDGs recognises sport as a key instrument to promote and sustain an inclusive and sustainable economic growth for each country (Morgan et al., (2021:17). In Europe, many sports clubs are run by a large network of volunteers. With regard to the terms of reference in respect of volunteerism, one may assume that volunteers in the European periphery are regarded highly as social capital. This perspective is drawn from the premise that, since the emergence of sports clubs in Europe in the mid-19th century, volunteers have been playing a significant role in the success of sports clubs.

Weiss and Norden (2015:35) affirm that sports clubs have a prominent position in the European sport scene because of their tradition, large number of network and the unique role which cannot be fulfilled by any sport organisations. In respect to the position of sports clubs within the European community, Nagel et al., (2015:9) endorse the views of Collins (1999), by stating that sports clubs are encouraged by government to play a crucial role in improving the accessibility of sports for additional groups of the population (such as youth, women, immigrants, the handicapped and the elderly).

Scholars such as Hoekman, van der Werff, Nagel and Breuer (2015:1) assert that sports clubs in nearly all European countries have a long tradition and strong culture of playing an influential role in promoting sporting activities for all, in talent identification, and in competitive sport. Other scholars, such as Nagel et al., (2015:7) add that sports clubs are run by voluntary organisations in Europe because they have deep roots and are embedded in the social structures of the society. The following subsection delves into the operations of sports clubs in Austria.

3.5.1 Sports clubs in Austria

In efforts to enhance maximum participation through sport programmes, Weiss and Norden (2015:39) indicate that it is crucial for club officials to understand from the outset the motives behind individuals wishing to join the sports club because people join sports clubs for different reasons.

This narrative affirms that the intrinsic motivations of some of the community members are not primarily fulfilled by achieving great results through competitions but mostly from socialising activities with other members of the community. Furthermore, Weiss and Norden (2015:39) support the views of Kaiblinger (1996), and of Manseder (2008), affirming that, in Austria there are no sports clubs without a canteen. As a result, community members are often seen sitting socialising with others after sport over a glass of beer or wine. According to the scholars, this is a common practice in Austria and it is believed to have contributed positively towards enhancing mass participation in sport. The following section gives an overview of how sports clubs in Denmark are designed.

3.5.2 Sports clubs in Denmark

In Denmark, sports club programmes and structures are governed by volunteers. Ibsen et al., (2015:88) complimented the views of Weiss and Norden (2015) by expressing that there are multiple ways in which people can be active within a club. The scholars say that, in Denmark, many women choose to participate in various forms of training such as gymnastics, weight training, yoga, meditation and evening leisure classes. Within the EU, Denmark has relatively high levels of general participation in sport, according to Ibsen et al., (2015:88). The authors also state that for an extended period, there has been a continuous growth in sport participation among individuals in the general population aged 16 and above. This view implies that there is a strong culture of sport among the youth in Denmark. Notably, although Denmark is not in the same category as other countries (such as Germany, France, England, Italy and the Netherlands) in terms of dominating sport within the EU district, it is interesting to discover that the Special Eurobarometer 472 report on sport and physical activity reveals that Finland (69%), Sweden (67%) and Denmark (63%) were reported to be amongst the leading countries that have citizens who are active physically and play sport regularly (European Commission, 2017:4).

Another point worth noting is that the majority of the children between the ages of 7 and 15 belong to a sports club and participate in sport or other physical activity (Ibsen et al., 2015:89). Traditionally, in most of the EU countries, boys have dominated sport participation. However, it is interesting to discover that in a country like Denmark, boys and girls play together from an early age and have been presented with equal opportunities for years when it comes to participation at a club level. In contrast, sports clubs in England are dominated by males, while health and fitness clubs have predominantly females (Nichols & Taylor 2015:118). The authors continue that the largest population of participants in England within the sports clubs is between the ages of 16 and 19, who are mostly students, and those who are older than 65.

Van Bottenburg et al., (2005:14) highlight that, in Europe, the majority of the population belong to sports clubs or other sporting organisations that are affiliated to a national sports federation well. For example, in Denmark, Ibsen et al., (2015:85) say that there are more than 16 000 community sports clubs, while van Bottenburg et al., (2005:60) say that, in 2004, there were more than 7 000 community sports clubs. Ibsen et al.,

(2015:100) emphasise that community sports clubs in Denmark do not seem to experience similar challenges than that of other European countries significant challenges or problems. This comes from the standpoint that good relationships were created with major key stakeholders who happen to share the same interest with community sports clubs. The following institutions represent the relationship that sports clubs in Denmark collaborate with to implement community programmes effectively: sport organisations, sports clubs, municipalities, schools, public and private companies, youth club institutions and day care centres (Ibsen et al., 2015:100).

These key stakeholders play a crucial role in adding significant value to the effective operation of the community sports clubs. However, Ibsen et al. (2015:101) believe that the minor challenges facing most of the sports clubs in Denmark are:

- lack of commitment from members;
- raising sufficient funds from private companies;
- recruiting competent volunteers to fill treasurer and chairperson posts;
- sports clubs being in competition with commercial centres; and
- increasing interference from the public sector to determine what ought to happen within sports clubs.

The following section provides a broader understanding of the development of sports clubs in the UK with special reference to England.

3.5.3 Sports clubs in England

Sports clubs are run by volunteers with local government playing a crucial role in making facilities available to them, while sponsors provide resources. After the games, community clubs usually provide a venue in a local public house for socialisation purposes (Nichols & Taylor, 2015:112). In the second half of the 19th century, the British government reduced the working hours on Saturday to allow a half day off in order for the British community to have time to participate in or support sport. (Nichols & Taylor, 2015:113). Given this insight, one might conclude that this practice played a crucial role in developing a strong culture of participation not only for the youth in the

UK but for the working class as well because on Saturdays they were given the opportunity also to take part in sport, recreational or social activities.

Nichols and Taylor (2015:117) emphasise that sports clubs in the UK play a broad role in government's strategic plans to increase youth participation in sport countrywide in order to reduce crime and vandalism and to increase educational achievements through sporting programmes. The scholars added that, just like in most of the European countries, sports clubs also play a significant role in identifying and developing talent in sport, as part of a system for producing sporting excellence for national teams and international competitions. The importance of sports clubs for producing excellence in sport is that they feed their best players into their National Governing Bodies (NGBs) systems for regional, national, and international training and competitions (Nichols & Taylor, 2015:117–118).

The funding of sports clubs in the UK is dependent on the condition that sports clubs implement policies that are developed by the government which relate to the promotion of participation. This approach shows that the UK government subsidises sports clubs that support and meet the requirements according to policy stipulation. Owing to the constant need for additional financial support, this approach often coerces sports clubs to comply with the requirements should they wish to acquire additional funding from government. Moreover, this financial model used by the UK government can also be interpreted as an ideal strategic intervention tool for sports clubs to account for any results should they wish to apply for more funding in the future. In this context, conclusions can be drawn that this approach may have greater benefits for both parties (sports clubs and government) because, if participation increases, more resources will be allocated to a club and policy objectives are most likely to be met.

Nichols and Taylor (2015:124) point out that, in the UK, one of the the tangible benefits for clubs partnering with local schools is that: i) school learners become members of the club; ii) clubs can advertise opportunities in schools; iii) club coaches are involved directly in physical education lessons in schools; iv) clubs can easily identify talent in schools; v) school learners get the opportunity to be involved in delivering sport programmes within communities; and vi) both schools and clubs engage with each

other for social purposes. Despite the benefits for community clubs partnering with local schools, Wicker et al., (2013:510) and Nichols and Taylor (2015:125) regarded the recruitment and retention of volunteers, professionalisation of the voluntary sector, the lack of managing tension between state support and incorporating objectives of the state, achieving sustainable funding, achieving recognition for the work of volunteers, improving and extending facilities and the lack of sufficient financial resources as one of the common challenges affecting the effective development of a community sport club. Amid the aforesaid challenges, Wicker et al., (2013:511) warn that one of the challenges that is uncommon and often overlooked in sport and equally important for the sport practitioners to take into cognisance of, is the issue of global warming. Furthermore, the authors hold a strong opinion that global warming should be a key feature relevant in the modern era because of unforeseen circumstances (such as increased likelihood of extreme weather events and natural disasters).

In support of this notion, They also expressed their concern that there has been very limited research to examine how sport organisations deal with unforeseen circumstances. In reference to the scholars notion, this may be perceived as one of the peripheral gaps in the literature addressing the key challenges facing community sports clubs. This assertion is established on the basis that global warming is considered to be one of the distinct features in the sport development discipline and should therefore, be regarded as an emerging topic within the literature of the identified area in future research. The following section provides an overview of how sports clubs in Finland are structured and operate.

3.5.4 Sports clubs in Finland

In this section, an overview is presented of how sports clubs function, the nature of sports clubs and an indication of how the Finnish government allocates financial resources to sports clubs in Finland. For most of the EU countries, literature reviewed earlier in this chapter affirms that, for many years, sports clubs have been at the heart of civil society. In Finland, for example, one of the oldest sailing clubs established in 1856, was reported to be relevant and impactful in modern days to many community members since the club operates actively in enhancing other sailing and boating activities (Koski et al., 2015:149).

In recent times, numerous sports clubs in Finland have become professional because many people are starting to get paid. Although various sports clubs may seem to have shifted their focus in pursuit of professionalism, their primary objective and priority still remains delivering key programmes that contribute to the promotion of mass participation and social interaction for all. Owing to the global economic shift of sport, sports clubs in Finland contribute to generating additional revenue for survival. As a result of such a challenge, sports clubs in most parts of the world are able to generate revenue through annual membership fees, opening the bar to members of the public and raising funds through other means related to sports activities. Despite the financial challenges that sports clubs in Finland face, Figure 3.1 illustrates the distribution of subsidies from the Finnish government.

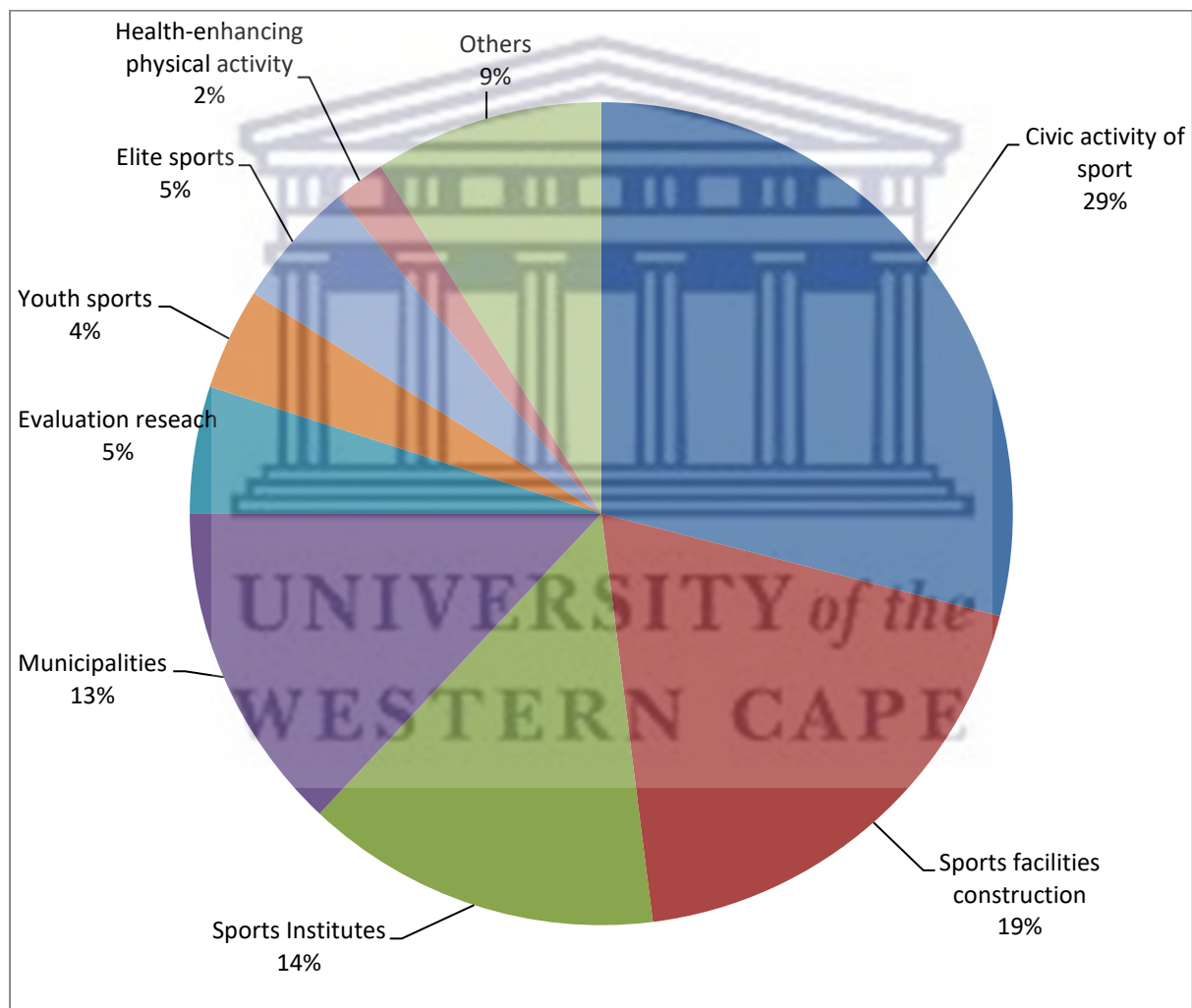


Figure 3.1: Distribution of the sport subsidy from the Finnish Government (Koski et al., 2015:153)

Figure 3.1 illustrates that most of the sport subsidy (29%) from the Finnish government is prioritised for developing programmes that promote mass participation within clubs. Next, 19% of the subsidy goes towards the building of sport facilities, while 14% of the funding is to ensure that sport institutes in Finland are functional. Another point worth noting is that about 5% of the funding is for research purposes to ensure that programmes and activities associated with government are evaluated and monitored to ensure that government initiatives are impactful towards the Finnish community. As compared to other countries like Greece, Finland only invests about 5% of its subsidy to elite sport programmes, while Greece focuses mainly on developing elite sport programmes. The following subsection gives a broader perspective pertaining to the development and operation of community sports clubs in France.

3.5.5 Sports clubs in France

According to Chavinier-Rela, Bayle and Barget (2015:177), there are more than 200 000 sports clubs in France. France operates in two categories namely single and multi-sports clubs. Single sport is estimated to have about 68 000 clubs with a key focus to promote the Olympic agenda. On the other hand, multi-sport federations have about 54 000 sports clubs (Chavinier-Rela et al., 2015:164).

In respect to the challenges, it emerged that both single and multiple sports clubs in France are faced with securing sufficient funding (public and private), providing sport facilities and recruiting and retaining competent volunteers (Chavinier-Rela et al., 2015:170). The scholars further state that these factors are regarded as the pillars of the organisational model for sports clubs in France. Furthermore, Chavinier-Rela et al., (2015:170) pointed out that, since 2008, the dependence on government has led to greater risks in the context of the growing economic and social crisis in France. Given the outlined challenges, the French Ministry of Sports was mandated to develop unique strategies pertaining to how the sports clubs could be viable financially and ensure that volunteers remain committed towards growing the economy of the sports clubs. In pursuit of providing solutions for these issues, Chavinier-Rela et al., (2015:175) said that the professionalisation of sports clubs in France has been at the forefront of the agenda since early 1990. The Ministry of Sports in France advocated that at least the sporting landscape ought to have employees with diplomas that are recognised by the French government within the sporting discipline. Although France

was one of the countries where participation in sports clubs had decreased drastically, it is worth noting that, in order for sports clubs to contribute significantly to the economy of France, the Ministry of Sports had to decide that people with recognised sport qualifications need to work closely with volunteers who are club based.

There are various ways in which sports clubs are categorised. Table 3.2 illustrates how sports clubs in France are categorised.

Table 3.2: Categories of sports clubs in France (Chavinier-Rela et al., 2015:179)

Categories of sports clubs	Aim is to:
Social sports club	- create programmes that contribute towards fostering social relationships
Traditional club	- create programmes with a balance between social and sporting practice
The club focused on sport	- develop programmes that are related to sport specifically
The professionalised club	- ensure that the expenditure is targeted at the delivery of sporting results
The community, professional club	- develop programmes with a balance between sporting practice, quest for performance and sociability
The service provider club	- ensure that the service is delivered in a professional manner

In France, the French government, along with the Sport Ministry agreed that in order for the sports clubs and French government to achieve their objectives, it is crucial for volunteers with the relevant experience, knowledge and qualifications be considered as part of the club setting.

In efforts to achieve this, Chavinier-Rela et al. (2015:180) indicate that the recruitment process to identify competent employees is largely conducted through university students who have studied and also are in possession of a Sport Science or Sport Management qualification. Given this view, one can interpret the decision of the French government and French Sport Ministry as a strategic move to recruit people with Sport Management or Sport Science qualifications from credible academic

institutions because, generally, these are people who are regarded as having good insight and sound knowledge about how clubs can be self-sustainable. The following subsection provides an overview to reach an understanding of the nature and environment in which community sports clubs in Germany operate.

3.5.6 Sports clubs in Germany

Most sports clubs in the EU are predominantly governed by voluntary non-profit organisations. Sports clubs offer affordable sport programmes within the club with the intention of meeting the expectations of many different age groups (Breuer, Feiler & Wicker, 2015:205).

According to Breuer et al., (2015:187) Germany is estimated to have a population of about 81 million with 16 federal states. One-third of the population (over 27.7 million) belongs to community sports clubs (Breuer et al., 2015:190). Germany is estimated to have over 91 000 active sports clubs (Breuer et al., 2015:189). Breuer and Feiler (2017:7) add that all sports clubs in Germany contribute greatly to public welfare because community sports clubs represent an imperative foundation for the areas of elite, mass, recreational and health sports. These figures reveal that sport participation is beneficial and meaningful to the German civil society.

Amid the population size in Germany, the Sport Development report focusing on the analysis of the situation of sports clubs in Germany reveals that one of the challenges that the country is faced with, is the huge influx of refugees. Despite such challenges, the report shows that sports clubs are improving to handle the demographic changes (Breuer & Feiler, 2017:5). Germany is the only country in Europe that is able to accommodate refugees and make them feel welcome as the investigators (Breuer & Feiler, 2015) found that at least 29% of sports clubs in Germany are committed to working with refugees. In addition, the report shows that one of the challenges facing sports clubs in Germany is the lack of adequate sport facilities. Breuer and Feiler (2017:5) found that sport facilities are of great concern because most of the club facilities are now being used as refugee camps. Owing to this challenge, the scholars affirmed that this arrangement had affected many clubs, especially those with a large number of members, in terms of taking part in club activities.

According to the 2009/10 version of the Sport Development report focusing on the analysis of the situation of sports clubs in Germany, conducted by Breuer and Wicker (2011:6) and in the later version (2015/16) of the same report, Breuer and Feiler, 2017:5) asserted that the primary agenda for the development of a community sports club, is to contribute towards:

- transmitting values such as fair play and tolerance;
- offering an affordable opportunity to practise sports for all;
- promoting equal participation of girls/women and boys/men;
- promoting the sense of companionship and friendliness; and
- providing an opportunity for people with a migrant background to practise sports.

Although community sports clubs are viewed as an important setting for the provision of leisure, sport, social and health programmes by various scholars, Wicker and Breuer (2015:32) state that, generally, sports clubs operate in an increasingly challenging environment which may impact its functioning and objectives negatively. Among other factors, the following are key challenges that SDOs need to take into account when wishing to understand the nature of the sport environment:

- operational environment: This refers to the geographical location in which the sports clubs operate.
- political environment: Refers to potential change in policies and public funding owing to an unravelling political climate.
- economic environment: This refers to the SDOs being cognisant of change in the global environment.
- social environment: This refers to change in the demographics within the community.

In respect of the nature of sports clubs in Germany, Breuer et al., (2015:188-189) indicated that sports clubs are categorised into five constituent features:

- membership in sports clubs is voluntary, meaning that members can decide freely to enter into the club and to leave the club;
- sports clubs are autonomous;
- sports clubs focus on the interests of their members;

- decision structures in sports clubs are democratic; and
- sports clubs rely on voluntary work.

With reference to the aforesaid constituencies, literature opine that sports clubs in Germany are autonomous as they operate as an independent body and the decisions that sports clubs made, are not primarily influenced by the central government. This operation could be influenced by the rich culture, tradition and history of sports clubs in Europe where sports clubs in Germany have been operating traditionally as independent bodies to achieve a broad array of socioeconomic goals. Sports clubs in Germany are viewed as important organs that are independent from government, value-driven, motivated and highly inspired to improve health-related matters with the view to obtaining socio-economic goals. Breuer et al., (2015:192) commend the work of Handy and Brudney (2007); Heinemann (1997 and 2007); Ritner and Breuer (2004); Ulseth (2004); and Vos et al., (2012) by indicating that sports clubs around the world are found to be valuable to society and to make a positive impact in terms of promoting youth activities, social integration, crime prevention and health awareness. Generally, there are different types of sports clubs. In an effort to underpin the degree to which clubs vary, Table 3.3 depicts an overview of the different types of sports clubs in Germany along with their purpose for existence and what the club believe in.

Table 3.3: Types of sports clubs in Germany (Breuer & Wicker, 2011:9)

Sports club types	Club main focus is to:
Integrative sports club	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – offers sports to all or as many as possible (including abled and disabled people) – gives an inexpensive opportunity to practise sports – offers sports for persons with a low income – offers sports for people with a migrant background
Youth-oriented sports club	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – gets adolescents off the streets – designs programmes that are beneficial to the youth
Competitive sports club	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – prides itself in successfully excelling in competitive sports – engages in the promotion of young talent
Traditional sports club	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – continues to operate as a non-profit organisation – sets high value on tradition – sets high value on non-sports programmes

	– sets high value on companionship and conviviality
Service oriented sports club	– remains committed to the health sports sector – considers itself as a service provider in the sports sector – primarily cares about the quality of the sports supply

Table 3.3 depicts that sports clubs in Germany are designed in a manner that the community desires (with regard to sport participation), are well regarded and understood by potential service providers. Given the variety of sports clubs to choose from, this strategy has a direct impact in influencing community members to associate themselves with any sports club of their own choice, and their individual goals are most likely to be fulfilled by a particular club.

With reference to Table 3.3, it is interesting to note how sports clubs in Europe, especially in Germany, are shaped and classified. With this in mind, one would confirm that it is clear sufficient information regarding the status of sports clubs is made available for community members to choose. This further implies that community members have a pool of options to choose from when deciding on the type of sports club they desire belonging to. Owing to the collaborative nature of their partnerships with other influential stakeholders deeply invested in the realm of sports, the majority of sports clubs in Germany extend their services beyond capacity-building courses, which encompass mass participation, winning competitions, club administration, management and event coordination. These clubs also provide healthcare programmes, specifically geared towards health promotion, prevention and rehabilitation (Breuer & Wicker, 2011:14).

3.5.7 Sports clubs in Greece

In Greece, the Hellenic Ministry of Sport and Culture is responsible for developing policies for central government. Traditionally, sports clubs in Greece have been youth focused, while the main focus in most of the EU countries has been about providing opportunities for different populations. Alexandris and Balaska (2015:211) go on to emphasise that recreational sports have not been the priority for the Greek government but primarily providing training opportunities for the youth and promoting elite sports. However, it is worth noting that this focus is derived from the tradition of sport in Greece.

During ancient times, Greece was known as an extremely militant country where the youth had to undergo rigorous military training as preparation for combat during war. Given this premise, one could infer that, in modern days, Greece still appears to be extremely competitive owing to the background that their focus is mainly on the results through elite and youth-oriented sport programmes, and not on recreation. However, Alexandris and Balaska (2015:211) said that the Greek government in recent years has started to focus on providing recreational activities, although it is not their strong area. Regarding the funding model employed by the Ministry of Culture and Sports in Greece, financial support allocated to sports clubs is reliant upon their effectiveness in advancing the agenda of promoting sports excellence.

In reference to this practice, one could argue that this funding model appears not to be sustainable for the survival of community sports clubs because it may have a negative outcome in influencing community maximum participation. This practice may further be linked with the 'sport plus' approach, where attention is primarily targeted to a certain population within the group to achieve the traditional sport development goals such as producing greater results at international or national competitions. In terms of the insight regarding how sports clubs are funded in Greece, an argument could be developed that the Greek government appears not to endorse the 'plus sport' approach where the focus is mostly on recruiting, retaining and motivating different populations to be cognisant of global issues such as educational, religious, economical and political. When examining the funding system favored by Greece for community sports clubs and drawing a parallel with South Africa, one can infer that South Africa employs a comparable approach. This inference stems from the fact that community sports clubs in both nations are not self-sustaining entities. Instead, they profoundly depend on their respective central governments for financial support. The central governments in both countries possess the authority to significantly reduce funding allocations to these clubs based on their performance.

In Greece, opportunities for recreational programmes are mainly provided by the local authorities and private sectors (Alexandris & Balaska, 2015:212). This set-up can also be compared to the nature of sport in South Africa. In both countries, local authorities such as non-profit organisations (NPOs) and the private sector are involved in sport

and recreational structures, while the national Department of Sport and Recreation invests plentiful resources into elite sport structures.

Alexandris and Balaska (2015:216) assert that people with equivalent sport qualifications are believed firmly to be in a better position to deal effectively with the challenges such as:

- increasing the club's financial sources;
- reducing the club's operating costs;
- running programmes that are more effective and efficient;
- attracting financial support such as sponsorship from the private sector;
- becoming less dependent on the central government;
- managing sport facilities in an efficient manner;
- ensuring that sport facilities generate income and are self-sustainable (e.g., rental and hosting events);
- expanding new sports (e.g., outdoor and street sports);
- ensuring that sport programmes are modernised; and
- improving networks with its key stakeholders from the community.

The following section gives an overview of how community sports clubs in Italy function.

3.5.8 Sports clubs in Italy

Borgogni, Digennaro and Sterchele (2015:250) also affirm that, as in most other countries, a sports club plays a fundamental role within the Italian society. The authors further highlight that sports clubs played an influential role towards the historical development of creating a sustainable sporting culture in Italy. The importance of sports clubs in Italy can be traced back to the 19th century.

Gymnastics sports clubs are known as the oldest sports clubs, not only in Italy, but also in most of the EU countries. However, owing to political influence, football is the most dominant federation in Italy because the federation developed a competitive system as an alternative to the one organised by the gymnastics body (Borgogni et al., 2015:252). After World War II, sports clubs in Italy were re-democratised. The

'sport for all' programme in Italy was initiated in 1944 by the Italian Sport Centre which was the Catholic sport body (Borgogni et al., 2015:253).

In Italy, grassroots programmes are organised at local and regional level by the vast network local organisations. The 2008 CENSIS report (Borgogni et al., 2015:257), indicated that there are approximately 64 000 sporting organisations in Italy with a workforce of about 850 000 people involved in sport settings. This figure shows that the environment in which sport is operating appears to be convivial and there is high spirit of collegiality among the Italian civil society. Moreover, this practice provides evidence that, if unity is promoted among community members, organisational goals are most likely to be achieved. Borgogni et al., (2015:260-261) state that approximately 5% of the sports clubs own a sport facility, while 46% of the sports clubs use the sport facility for free but play a crucial role in maintaining the facility. Finally, 38% of sports clubs pay rent to utilise the facility. The following section provides insight into the operation of community sports clubs in the Netherlands.

3.5.9 Sports clubs in the Netherlands

In the Netherlands, sport can be traced back in the second half of the 19th century. According to Van der Werff, Hoekman and Kalmthout (2015:271), the Dutch culture is shaped and characterised by cooperation and making compromises rather than by emphasising differences. The authors continue that in the Netherlands, volunteer involvement in sport is based primarily on the willingness to cooperate and share interests as these are essential attributes for the success of the sports clubs. This background signifies that the Dutch population are driven by collective effort in order to achieve set objectives. Late in the 19th century, many existing recreational activities such as running, swimming, horse racing and ice skating were later turned into sport.

As far as sport, health and education are concerned, Van der Werff et al., (2015:272) declare that, for many years, the Dutch primary schools have been governed by the legislation that Physical Education be embedded in the school curriculum. With reference to this background, it is apparent that the Netherlands is operating within a well-balanced system because government plays a crucial role in supporting all schools with funding, personnel, facilities and other forms of resources that may be critical in achieving government's goals. Amid many values that one can benefit from

through sport participation in general, the skills and values that can be learnt through sport are: cooperation, communication, fair play, respect for the rules, problem solving, understanding, connection with others, leadership, how to manage competition, resilience, honesty, teamwork and many others (UN, 2003:8).

The Dutch government and sport federations provide sufficient support for capacity-building courses to technical staff, executives, administrators (including volunteers) and referees (Van der Werff et al., 2015:275). The scholars continue by stating that 'most of the federations in the Netherlands also organise conferences to keep the clubs and their representatives informed about the latest developments in their respective areas'. Local government in the Netherlands has a good working relationship with sports clubs in the sense that the local government provides financial support to assist community sports clubs to hire sport facilities. Although sports clubs are funded by the national and regional government, sports clubs are expected to meet certain demands set by the Dutch government. In order for sports clubs to continue to receive financial support, National Government encourage and expect the community sports clubs to be stimulated to take more social responsibility (Van der Werff et al., 2015:279). This demand implies that sports clubs in the Netherlands are not independent because central government has the authority to dictate what needs to happen, how it should happen and why should it happen. Failure to comply with central government demands is most likely to result in sports clubs losing subsidy from government. The aforesaid assertion could have a direct effect towards the development of sports clubs not only in the Netherlands, but globally.

Other people outside sport participation in the Netherlands are also being given an opportunity to take part in sport through 'open clubs'. Open clubs are described by Van der Werff et al., (2015:279) as the concept that seeks to increase and enhance cooperation between sports clubs and other local organisations. The scholars also state that open clubs not only focus on the needs of their members, but also on the community at large. These are sports clubs that transcend the interest of their own sport and, at the same time, work in harmony with other key sectors of the community such as health, community forums and education (Van der Werff et al., 2015:280). With reference to this view, it is evident that sports clubs operating with the adoption

of this system have a good relationship with and get support from other important sectors of government.

3.5.10 Sports clubs in Australia

This section provides a broader context concerning the understanding of how the Australian government promote and develop sport, particularly community sports clubs. With this in mind, various phases of literature are segmented as follows:

- The overview of sports clubs in Australia;
- The birth of Australian sport policy;
- The position of sport within the Australian government; and
- The origin of community sport organisations in Australia;

i) The overview of sports clubs in Australia:

Stewart, Nicholson, Smith and Westerbeek (2004:5-6) report that, at the time of the first white settlement in Australia in 1788, sport became as prominent in the lives of colonial Australian as they were in the lives of their originators (British people). Stewart et al., (2004:6) highlights further that the pursuit of sport in Australia was widely encouraged, with colonial values advocating that sport creates more rounded individuals; therefore, it has the ability to lead to a better society. The Australians believe that sport was created as a cure-all for social deviance and dysfunction. This notion shows that sport has been recognised by many countries for years as a catalyst for social change and cohesion.

According to the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2007), in Misener and Doherty (2009:457), it is reported that nearly a third of the Australian population participate in organised and physical activity. Australia is among the few countries in the world where, for many years, the National Government has recognised sport as a panacea for addressing and improving socioeconomic challenges. In support of this notion, Hoye and Nicholson (2009:229) extoll the work of Cashman (1995) by providing further background that, although funding of sporting initiatives prior to World War II was sporadic, the local government in Australia was involved by providing sporting infrastructure in the form of sporting grounds and facilities. Furthermore, the state government provided assistance in terms of water safety and lifesaving bodies. Finally,

the National Government was primarily responsible for providing funding to Australian teams travelling to the Olympic and Empire Games (Stewart et al., 2004).

Additionally, Hoye and Nicholson (2009) emphasise that, towards the end of World War II and the beginning of the 1970s, the development of sport policy was not a priority in comparison to other areas such as trade, defence, commerce, work and education. Given the government support for sport during the darkest times globally, one would state that, unlike many other countries, the Australian government has been successful in developing a strong cultural practice in sport for many years which, in turn, has resulted in instilling national pride amongst its citizens.

ii) The birth of Australian sport policy:

In the late 1972, the Australian sport policy was developed. The development of the Australian sport policy emerged after Mr Gough Whitlam gave an important policy speech during his campaign to be Prime Minister, in which he pronounced that 'there is no greater social problem facing Australia than the good use of expanding leisure' and that 'the construction of community centres for cultural, artistic, educational and sporting activities would be a priority of a Labour government' (Hoye & Nicholson, 2009:229).

iii) The position of sport within the Australian government:

A newly elected government (led by Prime Minister Gough Whitlam) had a mandate focusing on three deliverables, namely: i) establishing a specialist 'tourism and recreation' portfolio; ii) establishing a 'capital assistance program' to provide grants for the construction of community sport facilities; and iii) commissioning two reports that were instrumental in establishing a direction for Australian sport and sport policy (Hoye & Nicholson, 2009:230). Owing to the political uncertainties arising in Australia, the Whitlam government was dismantled by the Fraser government, which came to power in 1975, resulting in the Whitlam government being in power for only three years. Then the Fraser government was only in power from 1975–1983, after losing to the Hawke government.

Owing to the change of power in the political arena, it is expected that a newly elected party in power would develop its own set of objectives and further develop unique

measures aligned with how the strategic objectives will be achieved. It was surprisingly interesting to note that the Hawke government as a newly elected government in Australia did not primarily develop new strategies to achieve its set objectives; instead its mandate was about restoring elements of the agendas set by the Whitlam government in the early 1970s, and, in part, by the Confederation of Australian Sport in the late 1970s. Moreover, the new government in 1983 managed to create the Department of Sport, Recreation and Tourism as an independent government department (Hoye & Nicholson, 2009:230).

Literature reveals that, although sport in Australia has been supported by government for many years, on the other hand, sport has also encountered numerous challenges concerning its belonging within government. This stems from the view that most newly elected governments that came to power in Australia since 1973, have changed the names of the department that ought to be solely responsible for the development and implementation of sport policy in Australia. For example, Table 3.4 illustrates the names that have been used to represent the department responsible for sport since the advent of sport policy in Australia:

Table 3.4: Ministries responsible for sport policy in Australia (Hoye & Nicholson, 2009:232)

Year	Name of the departments used to represent Sport and Recreation
1970s	- Confederation of Australian Sport
1972	- Department of Tourism and Recreation
1983	- Department of Sport, Recreation and Tourism
1987	- Department of Arts, Sport, the Environment, Tourism and Territories
1996 to 1998	- Ministry of Sport, Territories and Local Government located within the Department of the Environment - Ministry of Sport and Tourism was relocated to the Department of Industry, Sciences and Resources
2001 to late 2007	- Ministry of Arts and Sport located within the Department of Communications, Information Technology and the Arts (DITA)
Late 2007	- Ministry of Youth and Sport was located within the Department of Health and Ageing

Table 3.4 demonstrates that, since the enactment of sport policy, the Australian government has been struggling for close to three decades to find sport and recreation an appropriate home within government. Surprisingly, it was discovered through literature, that sport in Australia did not have an appropriate home for a long time. It is interesting to note that, to date, Australia is consistently rated amongst the top countries excelling in the international sporting arena. Given the chosen approach that this study is interpretivist in nature, researcher sought to understand the perspectives of the participants.

iv) The origin of community sport organisations in Australia:

There is no clear evidence regarding when the first community sport organisations, also known as community sports clubs were established in Australia. However, since the advent of the Australian sport policy, a year later (1973), the first report on 'the role, scope and development of recreation' was released. The report recommended that the new government should develop recreational programmes that focus on creating community recreation centres, raising community consciousness about the importance of general fitness and also building Australia's elite performance (Hoye & Nicholson, 2009:230). With this background, one would assume that the report played an instrumental role towards the official formation of community sports clubs in Australia.

Hoye and Nicholson (2009:233) report that the Australian government relies solely on the guidance of the non-profit organisations (NPOs) to help deliver its public policy objectives. The reason that the Australian government cannot achieve its set objectives by itself is because the Australian sport system is based on a complex federated model. Since the establishment of community sport organisations in Australia, the local government continues to play a crucial role in ensuring that community sports clubs are better equipped with resources to enhance participation opportunities in their areas. In efforts to support community sports clubs, Hoye and Nicholson (2009:233) indicate that the local government invests heavily in improving sport facilities of a local community club. Given the context, although Australia has many societal challenges, like many other countries in the world, it is evident that the Australian local government recognises sport as a solution to addressing a wide range of socioeconomic challenges and promoting social cohesion; hence, a budget has

been set aside to improve sporting facilities. Although the primary purpose of this study is not necessarily to draw comparisons regarding how both countries (Australia and South Africa) develop sport, this context stimulated the researcher's interest to assess the involvement of the local government in supporting the development of community sports clubs in South Africa.

In order to ensure that the Australian government overcome the socioeconomic challenges through sport, theorists such as Jeanes, Spaaij, Magee, Farquharson, Goman and Lusher (2017:1) acknowledge the recommendation made by Magee and Jeanes (2014) that all the sport governing bodies in Australia must focus on developing programmes and policies that are 'inclusive' to all. In attempts to develop programmes and policies that are inclusive, Jeanes et al., (2017:2) emphasised that sport bodies need to ensure that such programmes are welcoming and accessible to all participants from different regions. Notwithstanding the historic results and the impact that sports clubs made within communities, the scholars further highlight that the Australian government was greatly concerned about how community sports clubs, as key organisations responsible for delivering agendas of inclusion within communities, can adapt to the new government policy. The concern of the Australian government derived from the view that community sports clubs were overwhelmed with their own existing programmes.

3.5.11 Sports clubs in Canada

In Canada, community sport programmes are delivered by the NPOs. This affirms that NPOs are regarded as a key focal point towards the delivery of community sport programmes and services (Babiak & Thibault, 2009:118), which comprises civil society organisation, such as volunteers, federations and national sport organisations (NSOs). Additionally, Hall et al., (2003), in Misener and Doherty (2009:457), indicate that more than 70% of sport and recreation organisations in Canada operate at a community level. Given this premise, the scholars emphasise that the research conducted by the Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute in 2005 revealed that over one-third of the Canadian population was reported to be taking part frequently in organised sport and, of those, 76% were involved in a community-based sports club.

Bravo et al., (2016:6) said that, in Canada, government deliberately use sport as a vehicle to achieve the following objectives: i) building social cohesion; ii) boosting economic development; and iii) fostering international cooperation. Additionally, in 2002, the Canadian government acknowledged that, in order to achieve its mandate of increasing sport and physical activity participation, encouraging healthy lifestyles, personal well-being and developing more cohesive communities, community sport organisations ought to play a pivotal role. Consequently, a policy was established focusing on the critical role of the community sport organisations, asserting the notion that 'sport is best developed at the local level where participation is provided by sport organisations' (Misener & Doherty, 2009:458).

3.5.12 Sport in Latin America

3.5.12.1 The history of sport in Latin America

Broadly speaking, many countries globally acknowledge football as one of the key elements playing an instrumental role towards building social capital and national identity. Likewise, Latin American countries also adopted the global strategy of using football as a solution to address socioeconomic challenges (such as unequal pay, high rate of unemployment, poverty, crime, lack of quality education, housing and healthcare systems).

In an effort to understand what the term 'Latin America' constitutes, Torres and Campos (2010:293) describe Latin America as the nations that gained independence from colonial countries such as Spain, Portugal and France in the 19th century. Also, Bossuyt (2013), in Bravo et al., (2016:3), describe Latin America as one of the most unequal regions in the world. The scholar's reasoning was based on the premise that extreme wealth lives side by side with extreme poverty. In light of Bossuyt's views, most African countries have similar challenges to Brazil. South Africa, for example, is also regarded as one of the countries in the world where extreme wealth lives side by side with extreme poverty; yet the country attracts worthwhile amounts of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI). Although South Africa is able to attract large amounts of money from the FDI, the country's unequal economic situation continues to rise with the unemployment rate (as of the third quarter of 2019) reported to be close to 30% (Statistics South Africa, 2019:1). Subsequently, Bravo et al., (2016:1) said that a

simpler way to gain a broad understanding of the positioning and what constitutes Latin America

... is by looking at the map of the Americas and draw a horizontal line exactly on the border between the United States and Mexico. Therefore, everything that falls south of the border would be categorised as Latin America, including the many islands that are part of the Caribbean.

Torres and Campos (2010) highlight that, in the mid-19th century, the British colonised Latin American cities and brought along a set of modern physical activities that attracted many people globally. The physical activities included tennis, football, field hockey, rugby and cricket. These activities were first practised by local elites and were embraced rapidly by the masses across the Latin American countries. Owing to the inception of what was then 'modern' sport, the British government condemned indigenous and folk activities which were deemed a hindrance to modernity and progress (Torres & Campos, 2010:294). In the early 20th century, the authors refer to the influential role that the United States played within Latin American countries, resulting in other sporting codes such as baseball, basketball and volleyball also being introduced. Much like the British, the Americans coerced the Latin Americans to embrace these sporting codes because they were constructed as carrying modern and progressive values (Torres & Campos, 2010:294).

With reference to this background, one might say that, since the arrival of the British and the Americans in the Latin American countries, sport has always been well structured and contributes a pivotal role towards developing a sense of national identity. This review provides clarity on the misconception that Latin American countries have a strong culture in football only. However, Torres (2010), in Bravo et al., (2016:1), states that football in particular played a key role in contributing to the social and national identity of the Latin American countries. Parallel to this view, the scholars affirmed that, in about the 1920s, the 'modern' sports (introduced by the British and Americans) within the Latin American countries were fully consolidated and a decade later, regional sport bureaucracies were integrated into the developing sport system. According to Torres and Campos (2010:294), football and baseball have become the prime and most played sport in the Latin American nations.

Bravo et al., (2016:1) stated that, in the last quarter of the 19th century, in an attempt by the Latin American countries to create a social and national identity through sport, the discussion became prominent about the role that sport (in particular football) can play in improving social life, shaping identities and serving as a mechanism to promote development. Eaken (2004), in Bravo et al., (2016:2) said that most countries in the Latin American region have a lot in common. The authors also pointed out that the common feature in all Latin American nations is the rich history that is deeply rooted in the Iberian heritage of Spain and Portugal: languages, practising the same religion, and enduring a similar colonial history.

3.5.12.2 Sport policies in Latin America

In an effort to address the research questions for this study, as outlined in Chapter 1, it is imperative also to understand how the Latin American nations, as part of developing countries, use sport as a tool for community development. Therefore, for the purpose of this section, literature within the Latin American region, with special reference to Brazil, will be reviewed in the context of sport development. Brazil is identified because of its outstanding track record in the world of sport. Additionally, literature in other countries such as Argentina and Cuba will be supplementary in providing context concerning the development of sports clubs within the Latin American region.

In order to understand what a developing country is, Keech (2016:24) says that generally, it is classified as 'a nation with an underdeveloped industrial base and low human development index when compared to other countries'. Given the general description of a developing country, Heinemann (1993), in Keech (2016:24), argues that there is no single definition of a developing country because developing countries may differ greatly based on their social and economic orders, per capita incomes, traditions, histories, and the strategies that each country uses for development purposes. In addition, the philosopher explains that some developing countries have more capacity to improve their economic status than other developing countries. Based on this background, Keech (2016) claims that those developing countries with capacity to exhibit more advanced economies than others should be categorised as newly industrialised countries. For example, of all the nations within the Latin American region, in 2011, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) identified Brazil as the only

country that was categorised as a newly industrialised nation (Keech, 2016:24). Parallel to this classification, one might submit that one of the reasons influencing the IMF to give Brazil such a status is because, in 2007, Brazil was a host nation for one of the major events, the Pan American Games.

Subsequently, the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) and International Olympics Committee (IOC) selected the country to host mega events such as 2013 Confederations Cup, 2014 FIFA World Cup, 2016 Olympic and Paralympic Games. In contrast, though the IMF classifies Brazil as a newly industrialised nation, scholars such as Rasella, Aquino and Barreto (2013:661) oppose such classification by maintaining that Brazil is still considered a developing country because its income inequality is among the highest globally. The authors continue to add that Brazil ranks 11th in the Gini index.

In comparison to developed countries (also known as first world countries), Keech (2016:25) highlight that, sport policies in developing countries are structured differently and, as a result, there is no uniform model that developing countries apply for the purpose of ensuring that sport is well developed within them. Given this, one might arguably say that government structures in developing countries generally do not prioritise sport as one of the key sectors of the economy. Moreover, although sport in developing or Latin American countries appears to not receive sufficient financial support from government, it is interesting to note that the same government frequently continues to acknowledge sport as an important force that contributes towards nation building, enhancing its international profile, and fostering a sense of national identity.

As acknowledged by many scholars globally, it is clear that if sport programmes are implemented effectively, there are substantial benefits because sport has the ability to boost the economy of the country in a much quicker way than any other sector. In support of this context, Keech (2016:21) outlines that, in 2015, the government of Grenada paid an amount of approximately US\$500,000 to the West Indies Cricket Board (WICB) to bid for hosting a cricket test series between the West Indies and England. This attempt was considered on the basis of boosting the profile of the Island and also to stabilise the economy through tourism activities. From this point of view, it is worth noting that many governments in developing countries have begun to re-

engineer their policies and to acknowledge the ability of sport to reach their key objectives, while traditionally sport was not a priority in many countries as it was considered to be a tool for promoting military activities, health and fun. Using the case of the government of Grenada as a focal point to understand a sudden change in policies, the author further emphasises that nowadays, most African, Latin American and Caribbean governments use sport as a strategy to:

- foster economic, political and cultural bilateral relations with other developing nations;
- develop policies utilised by nations of all sizes for a variety of political means;
- develop policy responses to broader issues, in the stated case, for example, to boost sports tourism and inward economic investment; and
- stimulate an emerging debate about the particular types or characteristics of sport policy that are suitable or applicable to each developing nation

Keech (2016:21).

3.5.12.3 Sport policies and politics in Brazil

This section of the literature seeks to provide a synopsis concerning the emergence of sport policies and politics in Brazil. Moreover, the section provides an overview of the key strategies that the central government in Brazil employed in its efforts to achieve the national agenda through sport.

Broadly speaking, Brazil is popularly known as one of the nations that have a progressive socio-historical relationship with sport. Sport and politics in Brazil are recognised as siblings and used as a catalyst to improve the socioeconomic challenges that the country faces. This notion can be traced as far back to when President Getúlio Vargas came into power in 1937. During his term in office, President Vargas had a vision of using sport as a solution for the country's repositioning and development. Prior to 1937, the then Brazilian government did not intervene directly in sporting issues apart from rare exceptions like the shooting modality. In 1937, a new government was elected and came to power. David (2003), in Hall and Reis (2019:319), points out that in the early 20th century, sport promotion in Brazil was placed within health policies. The philosopher continues that sport was acknowledged as a powerful tool in educating individuals to take good care of their bodies. The

narrative used as a campaign to promote a healthy lifestyle to the Brazilian population was 'sport is good for you' (Hall & Reis, 2019:319).

Mezzadri, Silva, Figuêroa and Starepravo (2014:2) assert that, between the periods of 1937 and 1945, the federal government (led by former President Getúlio Vargas) expressed a concern that sport should be more institutionalised through the passage of Decree-Law 3,199 of 1941. In 1941, the first ever sport legislation came into existence. Hall and Reis (2019:319) indicate that, post the election of President Getúlio Vargas, for the first time in the history of Brazil, the state was fully responsible to regulate and control sports entities. This legislation (Decree-Law 3,199 of 1941) was purported to:

- instil discipline amongst the Brazilian sport participants;
- improve sport facilities;
- promote unity within various sporting institutions;
- reduce disputes and the existing conflicts between the various clubs, leagues and federations regarding the control of sport in the national territory; and
- decrease the monopoly that individuals of European immigrant origin had in relation to the practice of sports in the country

(Mezzadri et al., 2014:2).

Since the formation of the legislation in sport came to existence for the first time in the history of Brazil, the Brazilian government gradually started to invest in sport as a priority area. Mezzadri et al., (2014) note the work of Mezzadri (2000), that the Brazilian government had become increasingly present in the lives of individuals and, as a result, sport played a critical role in contributing to the process of strengthening the head of state as well as in the building of the national identity. Just like most of the countries globally, Brazil is a country that is influenced by politics. The philosophers indicate that, in the period between 1945 and 1964, there 'were no significant changes in sports policy' (Mezzadri et al., 2014:3). This assertion connotes that various administrations that came into power after 1945 adopted and continued to implement the sport policy developed by the former President, Getúlio Vargas.

In 1969, a Federal Sports Lottery (FSL) was established for the first time in the history of Brazil. In an attempt to achieve government objectives through sport, the FSL allocated 30% of its net revenue for the advancement of sport activities in Brazil (Mezzadri et al., 2014:4). Two years later (1971), the then new Brazilian government was determined to add value to the development of sport policy and to improve how the entire sporting fraternity could implement development programmes effectively. Research was conducted by Mr Lamartine Pereira da Costa (who became a renowned scholar of sport in Brazil) to propose strategies on how sport in Brazil could improve. In his findings, he reported primarily that the legislation which dated from the period of the New State (government of former President, Getúlio Vargas), was considered to be the main obstacle to the modernisation of sport in Brazil. Moreover, his findings were considered sufficient to form the basis for Law no. 6251 of 1975, Decree-Law 80228 of 1977, Zico Law no. 8672 of 1993, and Pelé Law no. 9615 of 1998, which also came into existence. Mezzadri et al., (2014:4) affirms that these legislations played a pivotal role leading towards the establishment of the National Policy for the Development of Physical Education and Sport. In 1988, President José Sarney reviewed the Brazilian Constitution and declared sport as a social right for all (Hall & Reis, 2019:319).

Mezzadri et al., (2014) acknowledge the period between 2003 and 2011 as one of the historical eras for sport in Brazil despite laudable efforts that other Brazilian presidents have made in sport. The authors' justification was on the basis that President Luiz Inácio Lula da Silva used his political authority to create key portfolios, host conferences and develop legislation with the purpose of building and strengthening the economy of the country through sport. Similar to other former presidents, in order to ensure that the objectives of the Brazilian administration were achieved, President Luiz Inácio Lula da Silva invested a significant amount of money in sport. In light of this, in the period between 2004 and 2009, an amount of R\$826.53 million was spent by the federal government to support all sport and non-sporting activities. The scholars also indicate that 90% (R\$750.5 million) of the funding was allocated to the Ministry of Sport, while 10% (R\$76 million) came from other government ministries (De Almeida, Coakley, Júnior and Starepravo (2012:415). Table 3.5 shows comprehensive details regarding the investment of the Brazilian government in sport during the period of 2004–2009.

Table 3.5: Funding for sport from federal agencies and ministries, 2004–2009 (Controladoria-Geral da Uniao (2004a; 2005a; 2006a; 2007a; 2008a; 2009a), in De Almeida et al., (2012:415)).

Ministry	Funding (R\$)
Sport	750,491,554.82
Education	35,496,737.14
Defence	20,789,890.15
Science and Technology	11,084,806.81
Presidency of Republic	6,115,245.33
Plan, Budget and Management	1,073,792.20
Tourism	1,073,792.20
Health	437,567.33
Treasury	242,484.66
Agriculture, Livestock and Supplies	40,154.88

From this point of view, it is evident that President Luiz Inácio Lula da Silva had a vision about the advancement of sport in Brazil. Further argument may be aired that, although Brazil is categorised as a developing country, it may be difficult for any president of a developing country (even for some of the developed countries) to employ a similar approach as that of President Luiz Inácio Lula da Silva. This argument derives from the view that sport policy in most developing countries appears to be presenting significant gaps, and as a result, government generally continues to prioritise other sectors over sport.

Through the development of a rigorous policy and regulations in sport as well as effective leadership portrayed by the previous Brazilian presidents, Brazilian sport flourished remarkably and earned international status during the period of President Luiz Inácio Lula da Silva and his administration. Through his leadership, Brazil was afforded the rights to host four mega events, namely: FIFA World Cup in 2014, the Summer Olympic Games in 2016, the Paralympic Games in 2016, and the University Games in 2019. In comparison to South Africa as one of the developing countries with similar socioeconomic challenges as Brazil, it would be interesting to give a perspective why South Africa has not been able to host the same number of mega events as Brazil within a 10-year period.

As the political landscape in Brazil grew, in 2003, the newly elected administration of President Luiz Inácio Lula da Silva took over the Brazilian government. This administration was regarded as the new era in the history of Brazil as one of his key agendas in the office was to focus on strengthening sport in the country through the development of a robust sport policy. In his first year at the office as president, the Ministry of Sport was established. The scholars reveal that, since the introduction of the Ministry of Sport in Brazil, sport gained status significantly (Mezzadri et al., 2014:8). Starepravo (2011), in Mezzadri et al., (2014:8) also acknowledge that sport gained its significant status after the creation of the said Ministry and the appointment of Agnelo Queiroz, who formulated Agnelo-Piva Law to the post of Ministry. The Agnelo-Piva Law was formulated strategically to improve the administrative structure of the former Brazilian President Lula da Silva. The Law focuses primarily on initiating the following portfolios to the Ministry:

- Executive Secretariat;
- High Performance National Secretariat (also known as Secretaria Nacional de Esporte de Alto Rendimento (SNEAR));
- Educational Sport National Secretariat (also known as Secretaria Nacional de Esporte Educacional (SNEED)); and
- National Secretariat of development of Leisure and Recreation Sports (Secretaria Nacional de Desenvolvimento de Esporte e Lazer (SNDEL))

(Mezzadri et al., 2014:8).

Later, during President Lula da Silva's tenure, portfolios such as Educational Sport National Secretariat and National Secretariat of development of Leisure and Recreation Sports were combined and then the National Secretariat of Sports, Education, Recreation and Social Inclusion was established. In addition, Mezzadri et al., (2014:8) state that, in 2004, the first ever National Sport Conference was held, led by President Lula da Silva. The philosophers affirm that the conference was created purposefully to provide a broad platform with all relevant stakeholders to discuss, deliberate and formulate public sports policies in Brazil. There were two key things that surfaced from the conference. First, Starepravo (2011), in Mezzadri et al., (2014:8), declared that the conference yielded positive outcomes because it served as a benchmark for the construction of the National Sports Policy which was published

in 2005. Second, the conference also emphasised that there is a need for the National Sport System to be developed. President Lula da Silva sought input from all key stakeholders because he wanted the new sports policy to replace the old policy developed in the early 1970s.

In 2006, another conference was held themed. The purpose of the conference was to re-assess how the Brazillians can access sport. To ensure that the set objectives were met in the long run, tasks were set and assigned to all federal entities who operate within the scope of sport in Brazil (Mezzadri et al., 2014:8). In 2010, another conference was held. Mezzadri et al. (2014:8) advocated that the 2010 conference presented the Brazilian government with the opportunity to take sport to greater heights. The scholars also state that the 2010 conference was generally considered a pivotal moment in the history of Brazilian sports, as it gave rise to a 10-year plan that had a transformative impact.

This conference concentrated primarily on improving performance sport in Brazil. The Brazilian government shifted their focus to high-performance sport after being awarded the rights to host not only the soccer World Cup in 2014 but also the Olympic and Paralympic Games in 2016. The opportunity to host the mega events, influenced the central government in Brazil to develop sport policies that are inclusive for all. Furthermore, Starepravo in Mezzadri et al., (2014:8) highlights that various key stakeholders were consulted countrywide to give input in an attempt to ensure that the economy grows gradually and inclusive policies are effectively developed.

In light of this background, it is evident that, during the period of President Lula da Silva (from 1 January 2003 - 1 January 2011), Brazil was at a turning point as far as the development of sport in a broader context is concerned. Given this view, notwithstanding the sterling work of the other previous Brazilian presidents, one might argue that no other Brazilian president has been able to make such a robust change in sport through the development of sport policy as has President Lula da Silva. This view is derived based on that President Lula da Silva and his administration introduced other functional sectors that earned Brazil international recognition not only in the field of football, but also in its ability to bid for other mega events. De Almeida et al., (2012:411) also stress that Brazil subsequently earned international attention after it

was awarded the rights to host mega events such as the Men's Football World Cup in 2014 as well as the Summer Olympic and Paralympic Games held in Rio de Janeiro in 2016. Owing to the decisive leadership and robustness of the sport policy revised by President Lula da Silva, this backdrop affirms that Brazil was the first country in the South American continent to be awarded the rights to host three mega events (FIFA World Cup in 2014, Summer Olympic Games and Paralympic Games in 2016 as well as the University Games in 2019) within a period of 10 years.

In an effort to demonstrate decisive leadership, amongst many, portfolios and sectors such as the Ministry of Sport; Executive Secretariat; National Secretariat of Sports; Education, Recreation and Social Inclusion (also known as Secretaria Nacional de Esporte, Lazer e Inclusão Social (SNELIS)); National Football and Fan Protection Secretariat (also known as Secretaria Nacional de Futebol e Direito do Torcedor (SNFDT)); National Sports Policy; National Sport System; National Sport Conferences; rights to hosting the 2014 FIFA World Cup; and 2016 Olympic and Paralympic Games came into existence under the leadership of President Lula da Silva (Mezzadri et al., 2014:8).

Although today Brazil is under a new administration, President Lula da Silva played a pivotal role in putting in the effort to ensure that the bidding for mega events in Brazil is successful. Furthermore, President Lula da Silva ensured that many sporting codes and developmental programmes are well promoted, financially supported, structurally placed and managed effectively. In the same vein, De Almeida et al., (2012:411-412) report that, during the process of selecting a host nation for the Olympic and Paralympic Games, the IOC was very impressed with the preparedness of Brazil as a host nation. Additionally, the scholars point out that the IOC was enthralled by the leadership role that President Lula da Silva played regarding the provision of financial and emotional support towards the bidding process. Keech (2016:22) points out that, prior to hosting the first mega events in Brazil, the success of hosting the 2007 Pan American Games in Rio de Janeiro, acted as evidence that the Brazilian government has the capacity to host events that are on an international scale. One of the reasons contributing to the success of hosting the 2007 Pan American Games was that the Brazilian government had been consistent in supporting sporting initiatives. For many years, the Brazilian government has believed firmly that the hosting of mega sporting

events will increase sport participation and will improve the economic infrastructure of the country.

These perspectives imply that President Lula da Silva, in particular, had a great interest in sport and understood well that sport can be used as a catalyst to foster the economy in a swift manner like no other sector can. In support of this view, Mascarenhas (2012), in De Almeida et al., (2012:412) agrees that President Lula da Silva was strategic in envisioning the bidding for mega sport events as one of the national development projects because he believed that sport:

- has the ability to reposition the country in world geopolitics;
- can play a crucial role in establishing the state as the primary agent protecting poor and vulnerable people;
- was and continues to be seen as a catalyst for attracting investments, developing needed infrastructure;
- boosts the national economy;
- can strengthen the position of Rio de Janeiro and Brazil in world markets; and
- does not neglect the construction and growth of an economy that is competitive internationally while retaining its sovereignty.

In light of this perspective, it would be interesting to critique how South African presidents (previous and current) use their political influence to support sport for the purpose of pride and nation building. This reasoning is sparked by the viewpoint that both Brazil and South Africa have similarities in terms of population density, geographical setting and socioeconomic challenges. Both countries represent developing countries with football being the most sport played in the country.

Literature shows that sport policy in Brazil officially gained local and international attention in the 21st century as sporting codes such as football, beach volleyball, capoeira, motorsport Formula 1 and martial arts are amongst the recognised sports dominating the international sporting arena, in comparison to other developing countries. This notion implies that since for decades, from 1937 to date, the Brazilian presidents have always prioritised sports and asserts that, prior to the official existence

of sport policy in Brazil, sport has always had a strong position and had a great influence in the lives of the Brazilians.

In both countries (Brazil and South Africa), there are many policies and laws that play an instrumental role in guiding the development of sport. In Brazil, for example, the general documents that are still relevant to guiding sport are:

- the National Sports Policy;
- the Agnelo-Piva Law;
- the Law of Sports Incentive; and
- the Federal Law/ Pelé Law.

On the other hand, in South Africa, the most relevant documents playing a crucial role in shaping the development of sport in general are:

- White Paper on Sport and Recreation;
- National Sport and Recreation Act, and
- National Sport and Recreation and Plan.

In spite of these policies and laws shaping the development of both countries, the researcher was prompted to review the Constitution of each country with the aim to understand whether both governments have a long-standing history in sport. The following section provides a synopsis of the level of commitment in support of sport development from both governments (Brazil and South Africa).

3.5.12.4 Overview of the Brazilian and South African Constitution in sport

In light of the review of the Constitution of both countries, it is interesting to discover that the Brazilian Constitution speaks broadly on how the National Government acknowledges sport as one of the key sectors for development in general.

Article 5 of Chapter 1 of the Brazilian Constitution, under the Individual and Collective Right and Duties asserts:

Sport is basic human rights (Republic of Brazil, 2010:16).

Next, Article 217 of Section III in Chapter III stresses:

It is the duty of the State to foster the practice of formal and informal sports, as a right of each individual, with due regard for:

i) the autonomy of the directing sports entities and associations, as to their organisation and operation;

ii) the allocation of public funds with a view to promoting, on a priority basis, educational sports and, in specific cases, high-performance sports;

iii) differentiated treatment for professional and non-professional sports; and

iv) the protection and fostering of sports created in the country (Republic of Brazil, 2010:147).

Paragraph 1 of the Brazilian Constitution indicates:

The Judicial Power shall only accept legal actions related to sports discipline and competitions after the instances of the sports courts, as regulated by law, have been exhausted.

Paragraph 2 of the Brazilian Constitution emphasises:

The sports courts shall render final judgement within sixty days, at the most, counted from the date of the filing of the action.

Paragraph 3 of the Constitution states:

The Government shall encourage leisure, as a form of social promotion (Republic of Brazil, 2010:147).

The Brazilian Constitution also acknowledges the rights for persons living with disabilities, under the title 'Participation in cultural life, recreation, leisure and sport'. For example, Article 30 no. 5 focuses on the Convention of the rights of persons with disabilities. The article recalls that, in order to enable persons with disabilities to participate on an equal basis with others in recreational, leisure and sporting activities, government parties ought to:

- encourage and promote the participation, to the fullest extent possible, of persons with disabilities in mainstream sporting activities at all levels;
- ensure that persons with disabilities have an opportunity to organise, develop and participate in disability-specific sporting and recreational activities;

- ensure that persons with disabilities have access to sporting, recreational and tourism venues;
- ensure that children with disabilities have equal access with other children to participation, recreation and leisure and sporting activities, including those activities in the school system; and
- ensure that persons with disabilities have access to services from those involved in the organisation of recreational, tourism, leisure and sporting activities

(Republic of Brazil, 2010:410-411).

In order for Brazil to continue dominating the world of sport, Rocha (2016:78) states that the Brazilian Constitution indicates that the development of educational sport should be a priority. Years later, in 2017, the Brazilian government reviewed its Constitution and the current leadership vouched that sport would continue to receive financial and emotional support from government. The review of the Constitution was considered after Brazil was successful in hosting the 2007 Pan American Games, 2013 FIFA Confederations Cup, 2014 FIFA World Cup, and the 2016 Summer Olympic and Paralympic Games.

In South Africa, the interim Constitution (Act no. 200 of 1993), which came into effect from 1993-1996, did not provide information pertaining to the development of sport in the country. The first democratic Constitution was gazetted and promulgated in December 1996. The democratic Constitution was developed on the basis that it calls to redresses historical inequalities in South Africa. Prior to the re-admission to competing in international events (Summer Olympic Games) in 1992, South Africa was banned from competing in any form of international competition. The banning by the IOC of South African sport competing internationally emerged because the unfair and unjust apartheid system that was effective in South Africa.

With reference to the review of Chapter Two of the South African democratic Constitution (Act no. 108 of 1996), which speaks to 'The Bill of Rights', sport is not declared as a basic right for all of the South African population. Although South Africa has various policies, regulations and laws that govern the sport in general, it is

interesting to note that the 1996 South African democratic Constitution appears not to provide much guidance concerning how sport ought to be prioritised as a solution to redress social injustice and historical inequalities created by the apartheid system. Instead, Schedule 5A of the South African Constitution highlights that provincial legislatures are responsible for the development of sport. Schedule 5B indicates that local government ought to be responsible for the provision of local sport facilities (Republic of South Africa, 1996:119) Unlike Article 30 no. 5 of the Brazilian Constitution focusing on the rights of persons with disabilities taking part in sport equally, one may state that the South African Constitution does not seem to highlight the rights of persons with disabilities to participate equally in sport with abled persons.

In support of this view, as stated earlier, government does not seem to recognise sport as part of the Nine-Point Plan (NPP). In contrast, post South Africa gaining democracy in 1994, the , South African government, public and private institutions have constantly used sport as a unique vehicle to address socioeconomic challenges, promote social cohesion and to achieve their strategic objectives.

Notwithstanding other policies (as outlined earlier) that are important in shaping the South African sport, it is concerning to note that the South African Constitution as the supreme law in the country does not seem to give much information. Instead, the Constitution redirects the roles and responsibilities to the sport ministry (including all three arms of government) across the country to develop sport. Although all three arms of South African government are responsible for developing policies and regulations in sport, there appears to be a great imbalance concerning the effective implementation of various community programmes.

Thus far, literature has revealed that, in Brazil, sport is declared to be a 'basic right for all'. In essence, the aforesaid view implies that their leadership along with public and private institutions are committed to invest in sporting programmes emotionally and financially. The citizens in that country participates actively in sporting activities and programmes at a young age.

3.5.12.5 Sport development in Brazil

Since the beginning of the 19th century, the Brazilian population has always shown great interest in sport. Broadly speaking, Brazil is known as a country that is passionate about football. In addition, Rocha (2016:77) describes Brazil as a country that is not only passionate about the national football team, but that, as a nation loves attending, watching and practising sport in general. The scholar indicates that, besides football, sporting events such as Formula 1 races, mixed-martial arts and international volleyball matches are classified as the powerhouse sports in Brazil. The scholar's perspective stems from the view that these sporting codes have the ability to attract a large cohort of supporters and sponsors.

According to Rocha (2016:77), one of the reasons contributing to the Brazilians being classified as a sport-loving nation in general, is the privileged geographic location and the year-round summer-like weather that inspires many people to practise outdoor sports. Often, government and other sporting-related organisations are expected to develop sport policies and support sporting programmes financially. However, it is interesting to discover that public institutions in Brazil are not only involved in sport through the development of policies but they also have a mandate of supporting the development of sport financially (Rocha, 2016:77). This backdrop provides further justification for Brazil being a nation that has been committed and passionate about sport for many years. Furthermore, one might assume that Brazil appears to be the only country within the developing countries and or Latin American region where sporting programmes are not solely funded by government and other key sporting-related organisations, but also by public institutions.

This is unlike in South Africa where, for example, DSAC is primarily responsible for the development of sport policies and funding sporting programmes, while many public institutions as compared to private, contribute little or nothing towards the development of sport in the country. In comparison to Brazil, one might argue that the South African government seems to be struggling to create the right balance between elite performance and mass-participation sport. This perspective comes from the view that, each year, the South African government nominally increases the sport budget. For example, for the 2018/19 financial year, the budget allocation for Sport and Recreation was R1 billion, while for the 2019/20 financial year, it was R1. 1 billion (National

Treasury, 2019:1). Furthermore, one may submit that, although elite programmes in South Africa are recognised internationally, mass-participation programmes are not well supported as they are in Brazil.

In order to ensure that Brazil attains greater outcomes through elite programmes, the Brazilian government acknowledged that the need for the Ministry of Sport to work in harmony with the Ministry of Education. The rationale behind the strategic intent is that the Brazilian government stated that the Ministry of Education should be responsible for promoting educational sport (Rocha, 2016:80). He pointed out that the strategy behind the Ministry of Education being primarily responsible for the promotion of educational sport was employed to decrease the high number of dropouts and to increase the quality of teaching in schools. Since the advent of these ministries working together to achieve the set national objectives, various sporting programmes have been incorporated into the Brazilian schooling system. For example, one of the exceptional initiatives that has been introduced across the Brazilian schools is called 'Atleta na Escola', which means 'Athlete at School'. He also indicated that the proposed programme was designed to provide support and to improve competition at the Olympics. Said programme focuses on improving areas such as: track and field, judo, and volleyball. Rocah (2016) states that the programme also focuses on improving performance at the Paralympic Games in the following disciplines: track and field, judo, boccia, goalball, table tennis, and tennis (Rocha, 2016:80).

The 'Athlete at School' initiative is a programme that seeks to identify raw talent from the early ages and is present in all Brazilian schools (public and private). In light of this background, one might say the initiative affirms that, despite the socioeconomic challenges that Brazil faces, government takes sport into serious consideration. Based on this background, it is interesting to note that the Brazilian government also focuses on school sport. During the tenure of Minister Mbalula (post 2010), the then Department of Sport and Recreation (SRSA) reprioritised their focus in sport development, with School Sport Mass Participation Programme (SSMPP) becoming the key agenda. As a result, it received more financial support from SRSA. Despite the financial support that SSMPP receives from DSAC, the implementation of the talent-identification programme in South African sport remains challenging. Unlike Brazil, South Africa does not have a policy that compels all public and private schools

to work as a collective in ensuring that school sport programmes are promoted equally. Generally, South African private schools continue to uphold and promote their own traditional sporting codes while, in some of the public schools, there appear to be a few sporting codes that are offered and in some areas (mainly rural), there is no sport offered. Owing to the nature of these dynamics within the South African schools set-up, it is evident that this challenge poses a great risk towards sport development and may contribute broadly to the state of South African sport.

It is laudable that not only the Ministry of Education is involved in supporting school sport programme in Brazil, but the Ministry of Health has also forged an effective partnership with the Ministry of Sport in Brazil. This partnership affirm that a systemic governance exists in Brazil. Although Brazil in general has similar socioeconomic challenges (such as a high rate of unemployment, poverty, crime, a lack of quality education, housing and healthcare programmes) to South Africa, the Brazilian Ministry of Health developed a new initiative related to sport participation called Academia da Saúde (Health Gym). Rocha (2016:80) outlines that said programme funds the construction of exercise centres in public areas, in order to stimulate physical activity and sport participation.

Against this backdrop, it is noteworthy that, in a country boasting a population exceeding 210 million (the United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2019:4), various government sectors continue to allocate a portion of their annual budget to support and encourage participation in sports. This implies that the Brazilian government considers the development of sport seriously. Linking to the nature of the partnership among the three tiers of government (Ministry of Sport, Education and Health), one might propose that it is noticeable why various sporting codes in Brazil appear to be competitive and continuously improving at global events. In the South African setting, for instance, the Health Ministry does not have its own programme specifically designed and funded on an annual basis to facilitate the construction of exercise centres in public areas to maximise sport participation.

3.5.12.6 Sports clubs in Brazil

Generally, football brings people from different backgrounds together. For many years, community football clubs in Brazil have been operating as a business, adding significant value to the Brazilian economy.

Through the effective structures of the Brazilian sports clubs, Mezzadri, Maoski and Donha (2016:216) highlight that a large number of football players are exported to elite leagues around the world. This background affirms that sports clubs in Brazil contribute immensely to the economy of the country and also indicates that Brazilian sports clubs have good systems and processes in place. However, the scholars pointed out that, although many Brazilian football players are based in other countries with highly competitive leagues in the world, the recruitment of Brazilian players to join the overseas market makes it extremely difficult for sports clubs to retain their superstars (Mezzadri et al., 2016:216). Despite the difficulties in retaining international celebrities in Brazilian sports clubs, the scholars assert that, of late, many overseas-based athletes who are at retirement age are beginning to return to Brazil to join local sports clubs with the intent to strengthen the home country's domestic league, enhance competition and attract more fans and potential sponsors.

In ensuring that local sports clubs receive much-deserved attention, the scholars affirm that, in 2006, the Brazilian government enacted a new regulation called the Timemania Lottery as a sports publicity policy (Mezzadri et al., 2016:219). The scholars emphasise that the purpose of this regulation was to provide financial assistance to the Brazilian sports clubs that carry significant debt with the government. Moreover, Mezzadri et al., (2016:219) indicate that the regulation was primarily endorsed with the purpose to create sufficient revenue streams for the Brazilian footballs clubs to be self-sustainable. With reference to the South African context, it is interesting to note that CDP was also birthed in 2006 by the then Department of Sport (SRSA). Interestingly, these programmes seek to empower and capacitate community sports clubs with knowledge on how to generate revenue and become self-sustainable in the long run. From the premise that both countries have similar approaches towards developing sport, it is vital for the researcher to understand how sports club programmes in both countries are implemented. This view gives relevant context to the current study and also plays a leading role in addressing the research questions, as outlined in Chapter

One. The following section provides an overview of how sports clubs in Argentina operate.

3.5.12.7 Sports clubs in Argentina

In the world of competitive sport, Argentina is also well known as a football-loving nation. In 2022, Argentina was crowned the FIFA World Cup Champions. Frydenberg, Dezotti and Carrano (2016:236) state that professional football clubs in Argentina function as non-profit associations and are led purely by unpaid volunteers. Parrish, Lee and Kim (2016:270) add that many sports clubs in Argentina are faced with difficulties in generating revenue to sustain their daily operations. In efforts to generate revenue for the Argentine sports clubs, membership fees, ticket sales the selling of merchandise, corporate sponsorships and media broadcasting agreements are some of the strategies used to ensure that sports clubs are self-sustainable (Parrish et al., 2016:273). The authors continue that each club also relies on their local academy system through an initiative called Player Development Programme to generate more revenue. This programme focuses on capitalising the value of the rising stars via transfer and loan deals.

However, it is worth noting that, in a country that won the FIFA World Cup in 1978 and 1986, professional football clubs function as non-profit associations. Based on the Argentine record of international achievement through football, one might assume that, similar to Brazil, the Argentine government would invest a lot in sport since the national football team had made the country proud by winning the World Cup and continuing to put Argentina amongst the top countries globally. Many clubs in Argentina only focus on offering one sporting code instead of a variety of sports, cultural and social activities to its members.

3.5.12.8 Sport in Cuba

Cuba is also regarded as one of the nations that form part of the Latin American region. Similar to Brazil, Cuba is generally also known as a sport-loving nation with a population of just over 10 million. Although Cuba is a sport-loving nation, it is also globally known for developing good systems within the education, health, social security, employment and income distribution sectors (Mesa-Lago, 2005:177). This

section seeks to provide a broader context with a special glance at the development of sport in Cuba.

Prior to 1959, sport in Cuba was not a priority. The Cuban government took control of sport two years after the triumph of the revolution in 1959. During the new leadership of President Fidel Castro, sport received maximum attention from the Cuban government. Sexto (1976), in Pye and Pettavino (2016:90), indicate that, during President Castro's leadership, sport policies focusing on the promotion of physical education and using sport as a fundamental question for the country emerged. Additionally, literature revealed that President Castro was of the firm view that the success of sports administration in Cuba was depended on a collective effort among various institutions, including private organizations, local government, the Committees for the Defense of the Revolution (CDRs) and the newly established central government to share the responsibility of promoting and developing sports in the country.

Pye and Pettavino (2016:89) indicate that, in 1961, the Institute of Sports, Education, and Recreation (INDER) was established. The scholars highlight that, soon after the establishment of INDER, government focused on putting systems in place to support mass and elite sporting programmes. A decade after the advent of INDER, Cuba finished in the top 20 of the nations collecting most medals at the Olympics. After their maiden Olympics in 1971, President Castro established a movement called 'Voluntary Sports Councils (VSCs)' that played a crucial role in the formation of a grassroots base for physical culture (Pye & Pettavino, 2016:90).

Against this background, it is clear that the Cuban government deployed a similar strategy to that of Brazil. This perspective is derived from the view that, in order for Brazil to do well in sport, the government of President Getúlio Vargas had to intervene and he officially made sport a priority during his term in office. This view affirms that, if sport is receiving attention and support from government, it is likely to succeed at international competitions within a short period. For at least a period of three decades (from 1961 to 1991), the Cuban sport programmes continued to be supported financially by the government. However, post-1991, the Cuban government was unable to finance sport programmes as the country was faced with an economic crisis

(Pye & Pettavino, 2016:89). Despite the financial crisis that the country faced, the Cuban government responded to the challenges by making sport largely self-funding. The approach that Cuban government embarked on to do so was that athletes and coaches were sent to other countries to work and compete. While they were in other countries, Pye and Pettavon (2016) indicate that both athletes and coaches mainly continued to teach poor countries sports education through the School for International Physical Education and Sports. Given the economic challenges that Cuba faced, one would applaud the novel strategy that the Cuban government employed to ensure that sport continued to operate with fewer resources during difficult times.

Irrespective of the economic challenges, the government made a commitment to focus fully on developing strategies to resolve the key challenges influencing the development of sport in Cuba (Pye & Pettavino, 2016:89). In light of this background, it is interesting to note that the Cuban government relied on their internal capacity to deal with the challenges that the economy and sport in general faced. In addition to some of the efforts the Cuban government made to ensure that sport remained self-sustainable, to promote a healthier population through sport participation, and to boost its economy, the following initiatives were established:

- The Cuban media institutions played a crucial role in the campaign to promote the government's agenda and to change attitudes;
- The Cuban government produced two different types of affordable sports magazines (one weekly and the other monthly);
- A group of graduates from the Escuela Internacional de Educación Física y Deporte (currently known as EIEFD) published a journal called the 'Scientific Review of the International School of Physical Education and Sport';
- The Ministry of Technical Services and the Environment published a report which focuses on the specialisation of scientific research in sports, physical education and recreation; and
- The Institute for Sports Medicine instituted the Cuban Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Culture

(Pye & Pettavino, 2016:93).

Moreover, this view implies that Cuba did not rely on other countries for financial support, unlike most of the developing countries are likely to do. Similar to Brazil, the Ministry of Sport, Education, Public Health, and the National Institute for Tourism are reported as government sectors that generally play a key role towards financing the development of the Cuban sport (Pye & Pettavino, 2016:95).

3.5.13 Lessons and experiences of the development of community football clubs: From policy to practice in Africa

3.5.13.1 Introduction

In Africa, community sports clubs (particularly football clubs) have been in existence for many years in almost all African countries. Although community sports clubs have been in existence for many years, it is important to note that literature in the field of the development of community sports clubs within the African context is limited. This gap comes from the view that, traditionally, community sports clubs were unstructured, unregulated, and operated in the absence of an official policy. As a result of the absence of recorded documentation and the lack of proper structures in community sports clubs, especially in football, much research in African sport is centred on the development of professional sport and not on the development of community sports clubs.

Given the context of the development of community sports clubs in Africa through football, this section seeks to examine various factors that play a key role in contributing to hindering African community sports clubs from being developed effectively and further highlights good practices through case-study approach that are effective in developing and managing community sports clubs in Africa.

3.5.13.2 The origin of sport policy in the African continent

After the 1978 International Charter of Physical Education and Sport conference, many sporting and non-sporting agencies as well as governments from African countries started to develop policies that govern and provide direction as well as stability in the promotion and development of sport in their respective countries. In contrast, it is interesting to note that the study by Keim and De Coning (2014) on the status and standing policy on sport in African countries, reveals that the terms 'policy formulation' and 'implementation', particularly in sport, is new to most African central governments.

With reference to the developing countries in Africa, Table 3.6 provides insight into the status of 11 African countries and their policies on sport and development. Interestingly, Table 3.6 further reveals that, in other African countries, sport participation has been in existence for years without a formal policy to regulate sport in the context of development, but this was then developed in more recent years.

Table 3.6 The birth of sport policy in African countries (Keim & De Coning, 2014)

Countries	Official establishment of sport policy (Year)
Benin	1991: Charter of Sports
Burkina Faso	2007: National Sports Policy
Kenya	No formal sport policy in place, but Kenya National Sports Policy under review by Kenyan government since 2002
Malawi	No formal sport policy in place, but Malawi National Council of Sports (MNCS) and Malawi Olympic Committee (MOC) are used as legislation guideline for sporting activities
Mozambique	No specific sport policy in place, but few other policies related to sport exist, such as legislation consisting of 23 regulations
Namibia	1993: National Sports Policy
Nigeria	The Nigerian Sport Policy was officially adopted in 2010, but few other policies exist related to sport such as Nigerian Constitution.
Rwanda	1987: National Act of Sport and Recreation 2003: National Policy of Sport and Recreation
South Africa	1996: White Paper on Sport and Recreation
Uganda	1964: National Council and Sport Act 2004: National Physical Education and Sports Policy Framework and a Strategic Investment Plan

With reference to Table 3.6, it is evident that sport policy in the African context is an emerging agenda compared to other continents reviewed in this study. It is interesting to note that in some African countries, a sport policy does not exist, yet sport programmes have been in place for many years. Table 3.6 depicts that although the term 'policy' appears to be an emerging concept, many African countries have made an effort to ensure that sport is somehow regulated and documented.

With reference to the literature on the formulation of sport policy, it is worth noting that Tanzania and Uganda are recognised as the first countries in Africa to develop an official legislation that regulates sport. Although Uganda was one of the first countries to pioneer a legal framework in sport, Birungi (2014:153) states that the formulation of sport policy was regarded as problematic and had many gaps since not all serious issues concerning the development and promotion of sport in Uganda were addressed effectively. In support of this notion, Keim and De Coning (2014:173) point out that their study on the status and standing of policy in African countries found that there is a lack of experience in understanding what an effective sport policy ought to entail. The scholars add:

... huge opportunities exist to share policy experiences across the continent and collaborative action, which is at a very low level at present, amongst African countries may have a drastic impact on the improvement of sport policies and their support systems'.

This finding substantiates the reasoning that African countries generally appear not to perform well at international competitions or even locally, compared to Europe, America, Latin America, Australia and the UK. The reviewed literature affirms that sport policies in these countries and continents have been in existence for a number of years; hence, in most cases, their national teams generally dominate sport at an international level.

3.5.13.3 Key challenges in developing and managing community football organisations in Africa

Generally, football is the most popular sport being played by millions of people in every country and it has more supporters and fans around the world than any other sport. As in many nations across the world, football in Africa has been in existence for many decades. Generally, football is acknowledged broadly as a powerful tool that has the ability to draw support from a large cohort of fans, spectators and sponsors. In light of this notion, one would expect that most of the African football clubs should be at the peak of development. However, to date, the majority of the football community sports clubs in Africa still remain underdeveloped.

In an attempt to understand the challenges that contribute to most of the African community sports clubs remaining underdeveloped, particularly in football, Chiweshe, (2014:27) highlighted that corruption, mismanagement and a lack of accountability have become deeply rooted issues when comes to developing football in the continent. The scholar indicates that football is regarded globally as one of the billion-dollar industries, but the existence of the the factors mentioned above contributes greatly to making African football stagnant.

Chiweshe, (2014) went on to say that local leagues and football clubs in Africa are largely run unprofessionally, except in a very few countries such as South Africa. Although many African countries may associate South Africa as being one of the countries with a good ethos and practice pertaining to the design and implementation of sport programmes, it is vital to note that corruption, maladministration and lack of accountability remain key challenges to the development and effective management of sport development programmes in the country. Coupled with this, he highlights that another factor that is destroying the development of African sport is politics. Similar to South Africa, Chiweshe (2014) indicates that the African football system is designed in such a way that many corrupt leaders continue to serve in their positions for decades and that such practices lead to destroying the future potential of the sport. The scholar argues that most sport administrators in Africa become corrupt in their organisations because FIFA, as a mother body for football globally, does not enforce stringent measures in ensuring that such practices do not prevail.

Chiweshe (2014:27-28) warns that, in most organisations, especially in the world of football, activities such as vote buying, bribery, sponsorship deals, discrimination, nepotism, tribalism, and regionalism play a key role in corrupt activities and destroy the local clubs, players and fans. Therefore, this notion prompts the researcher to probe the duration for which football club leaders serve in their respective organisations. This approach will be useful to determine whether serving in the same position for a long time has the potential to influence controversy within the club structure. Given the fact that CDP appears to have been struggling to achieve its objectives, since its inception in 2006, the researcher will consider the activities that are associated with corruption to indicate the degree to which they have contributed to the programme not achieving its key objectives.

In order to ensure that sporting programmes are implemented effectively, literature reveals that, in most European countries, US, Australia, and Latin America, sport is run by administrators who are passionate and possess qualifications that are relevant for the effective delivery and management of the sport development programmes. This is not the case in Africa. Chiweshe (2014:28) agrees with Khumalo (2013) that the majority of the people who run football administration do not have proper qualification and skills to enable them to perform the task promptly. Similar findings emerged from the study *Delivery of sports club development programmes*, conducted by Moroe (2019:47) that a lack of quality education and training was reported to be one of the key findings hindering the success of community football programmes within various communities in South Africa. Additionally, on 7 April 2013 in the City Press online article *Football's rotten core must be excised*, Khumalo (2013) reports that one of the challenges affecting football organisations is bad governance. He went on to say that the 'international football industry is overwhelmed by the lack of effective systems addressing governance, scandals, corruption, conflicts of interest, infighting, match-fixing, foul play, greed and poor performance on the field of play'.

The lack of accountability is another factor that is destroying football organisations in Africa (Chiweshe, 2014:28). The scholar continues that a lack of accountability arises when local members are not involved in the everyday happenings of football organisations. As a result, sport administrators may not see the need to be held accountable by ordinary citizens but are rather accountable to a higher authority. This view shows that, in order for any community sport organisation to succeed, it is crucial for local members to get involved and to be informed of the daily operations of the organisation. The scholar mentions that much money is donated to the development of community clubs and local infrastructure but the money is often redirected to other agendas.

In West Africa, for example, the scholar reports that in Cameroon, the Mobile Telephone Networks (MTN) injected an amount of \$600,000 of an \$800,000 project to refurbish a number of stadiums. The other \$200,000 was expected to come from the Cameroonian Football Association (known as FECAFOOT). Instead, about \$146,000 ended up unaccounted for and construction was never completed (Chiweshe, 2014:29). Furthermore, he mentions that the Nigerian football governing body received

an amount of \$7m from Globalcom for the purpose of developing sports clubs, improving infrastructure and promoting football, but only about 10% of that funding reached the clubs. Also, the Ivory Coast Football body received \$1.6m a year from the Ivorian Petrol Refinery Company to develop infrastructure and community sport through clubs, but the scholar highlighted that community sports clubs never got any of the money. Khumalo (2013), in Chiweshe (2014:28), indicates that it is concerning to note that FIFA also injects a lot of money for the purpose of developing African sport, particularly grassroots sport but the state of football facilities in Africa is still poor. Chiweshe (2014:30) adds that political interference is also one of the factors that kills the development of sport. He mentions that, although FIFA statutes are clear that there should not be any interference from government, often government does interfere with football programmes and takes control of football matters.

In other parts of Africa, such as Ethiopia, sport was not regulated by government until 1976. Prior to 1976, sport was governed by various associations and churches. For example, in 1928, local sports clubs were linked with the community church that belonged to the British. Over the years, sport participation increased and resulted in the need to develop an overall proper sports administration. Given the high demand for sport participation and governance, the Ethiopian School Sport Association was born in 1938. A few years later, in 1940, the National Sport Federation was also established (Chappell & Seifu, 2000:37). The scholars highlight that said sporting bodies were operating as amateur organisations because there was no support from the Ethiopian government and no one was being paid a salary. In essence, the sport organisations operated purely on a voluntary basis.

In 1976, the Ethiopian government officially took full control of all established sports clubs. Chappell and Seifu (2000:38) report that, owing to political interference in sport, the Marxist government coerced all the sports clubs that were operated and governed by the British system to change their names so that the new clubs could be named after the trade unions in Ethiopia. Given the context, one might argue that the approach taken by the new government was inappropriate and could impact the future growth of community sports clubs in Ethiopia negatively. This perspective comes from the view that, prior to the Marxist government taking power, sport in Ethiopia was facilitated by the British on a voluntary basis without any support from the Ethiopian

government. More examples are drawn on the basis that key supportive structures with good intentions to develop and promote sport in Ethiopia, such as the first sport office (1936), Ethiopian Sport Association (1938), National Sport Federation (1940), and the National Confederation of Sport (1941) were administered by the foreign nationals (British). Although the Ethiopian government intended to take full control of sport, literature recommends that in order for government to achieve its national agenda through sport, it is important to forge partnership with other key stakeholders that are passionate for community development. In this case, for example, the approach may be regarded as irrational because, before the Ethiopian government took charge of sport, the British administrators had already volunteered to develop systems and strategies that are unique for the purpose of developing sport in Ethiopia.

These examples from the various African countries illustrate the high level of political influence, corruption and unfair treatment that exists in Africa. According to Chappell (2008:191), another factor that contributes immensely towards the destabilisation of developing community sports clubs is poor administration. The scholar justifies that community clubs are hampered by poor administration because some members of the club receive payments monthly while others can go for months without any payment. It is likely to be discouraging to discover that some members within the community clubs are getting paid while others are not.

Moreover, it is clear that there is money made available (from mining, agriculture, oil, gas and beverages) to develop African sport, but literature reveals that most African governments easily redirect the funding toward different agendas. In light of this, one may assume that the African continent has great potential to be one of the highly competitive football structures in the world because a huge amount of money is made available by various international donors. However, it is evident that corruption is one of the factors that is destroying the potential of community sports clubs as well as the future of young and promising athletes. Based on these insights, the researcher will probe whether the provincial departments of sport in South Africa targeted for this study practise the same approach. The reasoning for this approach is to establish further whether the grant allocated to promote CDP by DSAC is utilised fully to achieve the purpose of developing community sports clubs in South Africa.

A former Vice-Chairman of the Kenyan Professional League (Mr Bob Munro) also acknowledged that corruption at government level prohibits many football associations in Africa from growing and, as a result, it impacts committed and dedicated coaches, club structures, talented athletes and potential referees negatively (Chiweshe, 2014:30). Given the sharp rise in politics in African football, the scholar states that 'African football suffers from chronic organisational problems' (Chiweshe, 2014:31). He affirms that most of the people who hold administrative positions in most of the football organisations in Africa do not have the relevant qualifications to manage the sport organisations, experience and knowledge to run such organisations. His views stem from the basis that politicians interfere in all aspects of football. The rationale is that football is a popular sport globally; hence, politicians use it for political gain. To overcome corruption in African football organisations, Chiweshe (2014:32) proposes that those personnel with sound management practices and who are highly trained need to be given the opportunity to get involved in sport administration as they could be useful in alleviating the problems that football organisations in Africa are facing. Additionally, the scholar states that, in order for government not to take control over grassroots sport, it is important for local community sports clubs to develop unique ways to be self-sustainable.

Moreover, Chiweshe (2014) warns that, as long as community sports clubs rely on government to provide financial support for the daily operation of the club, many community sports clubs will suffer greatly because government will continue to have an influence over how the task should be executed.

3.5.13.4 Case-study approach: Good practices to develop and manage community sport organisations

The multiple case-study approach was considered to provide broader understanding and unique strategies that various African countries deploy in the absence of sufficient support from their key donors. The multiple case-study approach highlights the efforts concerning the activities that some of the African community sport organisations are making to ensure that community organisations remain operational and self-sustainable. According to Pitney and Parker (2009:5), a multiple case study provides an opportunity to explore comprehensively the differences and to reveal further complementary aspects within cases. Therefore, the case-study approach to be

adopted here will be crucial to the understanding of how various African countries design different strategies to develop and manage community sport organisations. The following countries where the case studies will be applicable are: Malawi, Tanzania and Senegal.

i) The case of Malawi

Similar to many African countries, sport in Malawi is not a national priority. For example, in Malawi, the National Government focuses primarily on developing strategies to combat social ills such as malnutrition as well as HIV and AIDS because the society has been victimised greatly by these social challenges (Mchombo, 2006:326). Based on this premise, one might think that the Malawian government does not seem to interfere with the development of sport. Therefore, the question concerning who (besides government) is primarily responsible for the development of community sport in Malawi remains imperative.

The literature on '*Sport and Development in Malawi*' reveals that, generally, grassroots sport programmes are mainly driven by individuals, international students, groups (such as community churches) and donors. Literature further indicates that many international students commit to visiting Malawi to make a meaningful contribution to the society. For example, amongst many individuals that visited Malawi, Mchombo (2006:332) mentions that one of the students (Anna Key) from the US volunteered to visit Malawi and to provide her services while staying at an orphanage for three weeks. On the other hand, Dr Sam Mchombo (Malawian born and and Associate Professor of Linguistics at California University) started a programme to promote a healthy lifestyle for the Malawian community, asking for donations in the US to promote grassroots sport in Malawi. Literature reports that, through his initiatives, he managed to provide uniforms and gear for nine teams in Malawi (Mchombo, 2006:333).

With reference to this context, the Malawian government plays a minimal role in the development of grassroots sports in the country. However, it is interesting to note that one of the key requirements for community clubs to receive some form of assistance from donors is the commitment that each club ought to make to its community. The scholar highlights that in Malawi it is mandatory for each community team or sports club to provide ongoing services to their respective local communities such as

providing assistance to the homes for the elderly, keeping their surroundings clean, visiting sick people in hospitals, and promoting community awareness about the dangers of HIV and AIDS.

Therefore, the researcher associates this approach as one of the good practices in developing community organisations because such conditions are key to promoting and instilling a sense of ownership amongst community members. Moreover, this approach is likely to infuse discipline and to teach members of community sports clubs to develop a sense of pride, promoting a culture of unity, innovation and most importantly, self-sustainability.

ii) The case of Tanzania

Tanzania gained independence in 1961. Ndee (2005:675) highlights that, shortly after independence, the then President (Mr Julius Nyerere) had a vision of transforming sport through community clubs. Between the years of 1965 and 1967, a historic moment was documented. The scholar asserts that, in 1965, President Nyerere introduced a new political system which led to the deregistration of other political parties in the country. In January 1967, President Nyerere held a general conference which sought to pursue policies around socialism in Tanzania. Coupled with this, on the 5 February 1967, Tanzania developed the Arusha Declaration which speaks to the principles of self-reliance (Ndee, 2005:675). This declaration was developed with the aim to grant President Nyerere's government monopolistic power to gain control over many aspects of society, including sport. The Arusha Declaration developed the National Sports Council (NSC) Act No.12 of 1967. The scholar highlights that the primary role of the NSC was to 'oversee all sport activities in Tanzania'. In line with the purpose of the NSC Act No. 12 of 1967, Article 4.1(a) stipulates:

The function of the Council shall be to develop, promote and control all forms of amateur sports on a national basis.

Article 4.1(c) recalls:

The function of the Council shall be to approve international and national sports competitions and festivals organised by national and other associations (The United Republic of Tanzania, 1967:2).

Based on these Articles of the NCS Act No. 12 of 1967, it is evident that the administration of President Nyerere was determined to govern all sporting activities fully at both national and international level.

In an attempt to cultivate the new social values in Tanzania, the administration of President Nyerere identified football as one of the most powerful tools to liberate and change the attitudes of the Tanzanian population positively. In order to achieve the set objectives through football, in 1967, the Nyerere administration labelled the Football Association of Tanzania (FAT) incompetent, inefficient, chaotic and incapable of managing its funds appropriately (Ndee, 2005:676). In an effort to provide solutions given these allegations, Ndee (2005) indicates that the Nyerere government did not waste time dealing with the alleged matter but took the drastic decision of sacking the entire leadership of FAT. Following their immediate dismissal, an interim committee was appointed by the Nyerere government. Prior to the appointment of the new FAT leadership, government exercised fine-screening measures to ensure that competent people were appointed to run the affairs of FAT. This response illustrates that the government of President Nyerere was not only determined to achieve the set objectives through the development of policy design but also to take bold decisions against any malpractice at the level of administration.

Interestingly, although various scholars had spoken against government intervention towards sport development in general, one could argue that it all depends on how the government leaders view sport in their respective countries. Similar to Brazil, President Nyerere's act against incompetent and inefficient leaders as well as his efforts in appointing a capable interim committee to run the FAT affairs successfully, can be compared with the Brazilian presidents since the new dawn of Brazil in the early 1930s. The aforesaid narrative affirm that President Nyerere firmly believed that sport can be used as an agent to provide key solution for national development and liberation. This further shows that President Nyerere was supportive and prioritised sporting activities in Tanzania just like the Brazilian presidents and other leaders where sport is thriving around the world.

Ndee (2005:677) highlights that the administration of Nyerere viewed sports clubs as settings that have the capacity to bring people together and to build new civic bonds

between people through joint participation in competitions and joint membership in clubs. Ndee (2005:677) reports that, in 1973, the Nyerere government welcomed another resolution that recognised sport as one of the most important sectors in the lives of the Tanzanians and, as a result, sport gained the same status as other developmental projects in the country. Subsequently, the scholar claims that the resolution mandated the promotion of sports in different regions of Tanzania for all government departments and parastatal organizations. To fulfill this requirement and considering the enormity of the undertaking, the Tanzanian government expanded its capacity by hiring additional Sports Development Officers (SDOs) to carry out the task effectively. Based on the context, the researcher found this approach to be an ideal practice to increase capacity as the tasks get bigger. This rationale is initiated on the basis that sufficient personnel is likely to deliver their mandate at the anticipated time. Additionally, this view further stimulated the researcher to probe whether the CDP in South Africa has sufficient SDOs to assist with the effective delivery of the programme so that its set objectives can be achieved.

iii) The case of Senegal

Recently, Senegal gained international status in the world of football. This recognition was gained during the 2018 FIFA World Cup when Senegal was the only country in Africa that just fell short of reaching the quarter-final stages of the competition. This context gives rise to the connotation that Senegal seems to have good development systems at grassroots level. This case study focuses on examining the good practices that contributed towards the Guediawaye Football Club, which operates as an amateur club and is recognised as one of the most successful clubs in Senegal. Bouchet and Kaach (2004), in Akindes (2020:179) state that there are three models of sport organisations that most governments in various countries adopt. The three models are: a) countries where the government is in total control of sport and physical education at every level of practice and competence; b) countries where sport and physical education programmes are predominantly run by private initiatives; and c) countries where the government is in partnership with private sectors to assist with the implementation of sport and physical education programmes and activities.

For the purpose of governing sport organisations in Senegal, Akindes (2020:179) declares that the Senegalese government uses the mixed model where both government and private organisations have control over sport and physical education.

In relation to the roles of the aforesaid organisations, In Senegal, the government is primarily responsible for defining the legal framework of federations and clubs, while the private sectors as the agents of sport development such as private companies, sport federations and community clubs are solely responsible for the administration and implementation of the sporting programmes at a grassroots level. Based on this background, one might add that the practice is commendable because, in most parts of the world, especially Africa, there appears to be a lack of a good working relationship between government and private organisations. This practice illustrates that, if government and private organisations could clearly define and agree in principle on the roles and responsibilities of each party, the set objectives are likely to be achieved.

In reference to the aforesaid, one of the common practices between Senegal and South Africa is the use the mixed-governance approach, where both the government and private organisations work hand in hand to support sporting programmes. However, although both countries are involved in the support of sport at large, it is worthy to note that the Senegalese government does not interfere with the club's governance, while in South Africa, all three tiers of government interfere with how sports clubs and programmes ought to be developed, implemented and managed. This behaviour could be influenced by the political environment in which sport is operating.

Another example of good practice was documented in 2011 when the Guediawaye Football Club appointed new management to rescue the club from the brink of bankruptcy (Akindes, 2020:185). The scholar indicated that, in an effort to rescue the club from bankruptcy, the previous leadership that had been running the club for many years, was replaced with a management team with highly competent personnel motivated to turn things around successfully. Akindes (2020) reports that the new management established a vision with clear goals that, in 2015, the club should be the champions of the league. In light of this, it is evident that appointing individuals who are passionate, possess the requisite qualifications, experienced and exhibit the right skills, the organization is anticipated to succeed.

This approach affirms that effective recruitment system is key to any success of the sport organisation. Hager and Brudney (2011:138) caution that organisations need to

be strategic when recruiting volunteers because the recruitment process has the ability either to build or to destroy the future of the organisation. Shafique (2012:887) agrees with Hager and Brudney (2011) that the recruitment process should not be done for the sake of filling potential gaps, but that managers need to be intentional when recruiting potential candidates who possess specific experience and skills to be involved in the organisation.

3.6 Summary

In this chapter, literature has shown that, for sport programmes to achieve their objectives effectively, it is fundamentally important for the SDOs to ensure that policies exist because they play a crucial role in the direction that sport should take. Parallel to this context, literature also recommends that, in order for sports clubs to be successful, it is crucial to employ administrators who are skilful, knowledgeable and competent in managing the affairs of the club as well as forging social capital on a daily basis with key members of the community.

Although the purpose of this study is not primarily to do a comparative analysis between countries (developed and developing), it was imperative for the researcher to probe and to provide a broader perspective and context in terms of which sports clubs internationally are structured, governed and operate. This approach was considered based on the premise that South Africa uses a similar concept in terms of developing communities through sport as the developed countries do. While reviewing concepts of community sports clubs, literature emphasises that sport participation is built through sports clubs. Furthermore, literature highlights that, despite universal challenges that most sports clubs are faced with (such as lack of sufficient funding to run the programme effectively), many sports clubs across the globe still play a key role in contributing to addressing social ills, promoting social cohesion and positively contributing towards the generating revenue for both clubs and government.

This chapter also affirmed that the absence of sport policies, a lack of proper structures and systems in place, the high level of corruption and maladministration in many African countries, many sports clubs will continue to struggle achieving its objectives. Therefore, one may state that many sports clubs in Africa appear to be lacking the knowledge for how they can be self-sustainable. The researcher also identified the

challenges that community sports clubs are broadly faced with in various African regions.

Following the aforesaid challenges, the researcher, through a case-study approach further acknowledged the good practices that some of the sports clubs within the African regions use to implement sporting programmes effectively in their respective communities. The following chapter provides a specific overview with special reference to the operation of CDP in South Africa.



CHAPTER FOUR: CLUB DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

4.1 Introduction

South Africa is a country that is generally faced with a high level of socioeconomic issues. Since the advent of democracy (post 1994), South Africa has developed crucial policies that support the development and promotion of sport (such as the White Paper on Sport and Recreation and the National Sport and Recreation Plan (NSRP)), however, the socioeconomic issues continue to be ongoing challenges. In efforts to achieve transformation with the purpose to address these critical issues, sport and recreation programmes have been endorsed by many institutions (including non-sporting institutions) as a tool to address the country's challenges effectively. The purpose of this section is to provide an overview of the South African sport policies and how the CDP functions within the South African setting. This section interrogates the challenges faced by DSAC to reach the objectives of the CDP.

4.2 The formulation of the South African sport policy

In South Africa, the first official policy, the White Paper on Sport and Recreation, was developed in 1996. Five years later (2001), the second edition was published. In the foreword of the third edition and final draft of the White Paper on Sport and Recreation in 2012, the former Minister of Sport and Recreation (Mr Fikile Mbalula) said that the White Paper serves to pronounce clearly the intentions of how government aims to support and advance the promotion and development of sport and recreation in South Africa (Sport and Recreation South Africa, White Paper: Republic of South Africa, 2012:10). The former Minister stated that the review of the White Paper by the National Department of Sport and Recreation was fuelled from being cognisant of the constitutional imperatives and the changes that their mandate as the National Government imposed on the lives of many South Africans. He emphasised that the responsibility of his office is to carry out the mandate in a manner that ensures that basic human rights are safeguarded and adhered to at all time. In light of this view, Maralack (2014:129) adds that the policy in South Africa was formulated to address two vital issues, namely; to promote sport development in previously disadvantaged communities and also to accelerate elite success at international events by South African sportspersons.

This view is consistent with the adoption of the policy, International Charter on Physical Education and Sport. There are many key documents that have been developed by DSAC which are imperative for the betterment and advancement of sport and recreation in South Africa. However, the following key documents are recognised and acknowledged as the leading policies and acts that govern sport and recreation in South Africa:

- the White Paper on Sport and Recreation;
- the National Sport and Recreation Plan (NSRP);
- the Safety at Sport and Recreation Events Act of 2010 (Act No. 2 of 2010);
- the South African Boxing Act of 2001 (Act No. 11 of 2001);
- the National Sport and Recreation Act, 1998 (Act No. 110 of 1998), and Amendment (Act No. 18 of 2007); and
- South African Institute for Drug Free Sport Act of 1997 (Act No. 14 of 1997), and Amendment (Act No. 25 of 2006)

(Maralack, 2014:130).

Years later, DSAC endorsed a new policy document that serves as a guiding tool regarding how finances in sport ought to be managed and utilised. This compelling document is named 'Sport and Recreation Financial and Non-Financial Support Policy'. As far as the adoption of this act is concerned, this policy was established after the then department (SRSA) had experienced that, for many years past, the resources made available to various sport and recreation bodies across the country were not allocated and utilised adequately in order to address effectively the challenges that sport individuals, groups and sectors were faced with (Sport and Recreation South Africa, National Sport and Recreation Financial and Non-Financial Support Policy, 2017:3-4). This policy is guided by the following legislative frameworks:

- National Sport and Recreation Act (Act No. 18 of 2007, as amended);
- White Paper on Sport and Recreation;
- National Sport and Recreation Plan (NSRP);
- Public Finance Management Act (PFMA), 1999 (Act No.1 of 1999);
- National Treasury Regulations;
- National Development Plan (NDP); and
- Constitution of the Republic of South Africa.

In providing evidence that not only South Africa but many sporting and non-sporting institutions across the globe adopted the resolutions of the General Conference of the International Charter of Physical Education and Sport in 1978, see: SDP IWG (2008:4); Maleka (2015:15); and IHRP (2018:13).

4.3 The overview of community sports clubs in South Africa

For decades, sport in South Africa has made a significant impact through the establishment of local community club structures. Given the history of Sport in South Africa, this assertion implies that local community sports clubs have been in existence for decades. However, owing to the oppressive (apartheid) system that South Africa was faced with for decades, sports clubs that were based in the previously disadvantaged communities could not be recognised by the previous government prior to 1994. During the mid-millennium years (mid-2000s), the first democratic government (post 1994) in South Africa realised that, in order to create “an active and winning nation”, it is vital to recognise and formalise community sports clubs that were unstructured to benefit greatly from the CDP. DSAC (through SRSA) initially pioneered a CDP with the aim to assist previously disadvantaged sports clubs to be self-sustainable after a period of three years.

In South Africa, most of the community sports clubs that are associated with the CDP are not yet independent as they have been on the programme for more than a period of three years, resulting in clubs continuing to benefit from the National Government in South Africa. Initially, community sport clubs are involved in the CDP for a period of three years. Although the clubs are the recipients of the programme, it is the government's responsibility and obligation to ensure that all community sports clubs receive support, including capacity building, transportation assistance, equipment and clothing throughout the three-year programme cycle. In lieu with the CDP policy that community clubs are anticipated to have been independent after a three-year cycle. However, most community sport clubs still seem to be dependent on the programme. As a result of the community clubs not existing the programme, their dependence may potentially strain the CDP's budget for future planning.

This notion indicates that many community sports clubs may lack capacity to enable them to become self-sustainable and independent from DSAC. The operation of the CDP is regulated by the Division of Revenue Act (DoRA) grant. Tutu and Mkalipi (2018) indicate that the purpose of the grant is 'to provide additional funding in order to support sport and recreation programmes with the efforts to contribute positively towards the active and winning national initiative'. In addition, they both imply that the grant does not only support community clubs, but also programmes such as: recreation, schools sport, national academies, sport councils and provincial confederations. For the funding to be made available, Tutu and Mkalipi (2018) add that the grant is generated through the National Treasurer from taxes that are collected as well as funding from other international donors.

Therefore, in order to attain this purpose, key documents such as government gazettes, policies, regulations and academic reports that are relevant for the development and promotion of sport and recreation were reviewed as key strategic apparatuses to understand the design and implementation of CDP in South Africa. With the understanding of sports clubs in the international context in mind, this approach is fundamental as it is likely to provide a broader perspective on areas that may be of concern regarding the improvement of CDP since its inception (2006) in South Africa.

4.3.1 The evolution of community sports clubs

In this section, the researcher demonstrates how a community sports club changed from what it was initially designed for to what it is envisaged to be in modern days. Harris, Mori and Collins (2009:3) state that community sports clubs were seen as organisations that were responsible primarily for talent identification, support in the development of performance, and delivering competitive programmes successfully. Owing to the nature, size, scope and demand of participation in sports clubs, there has been a great shift towards how sports clubs are perceived in modern days. More than two decades ago, Nichols et al., (1998) and Handy (1988), in Harris et al., (2009:5), envisioned that sports clubs in coming years would shift from operating as mutual aid organisations to being service delivery organisations. The philosophers suggested that *'such shift was anticipated on the premise that modern society expects voluntary sports clubs to deliver a service of comparable professional quality to*

private/public alternatives, reinforcing a 'service delivery' culture as opposed to a loose and informal organisation run by the shared enthusiasm for the common enjoyment of its membership' (Harris et al., 2009:5). Kendal (2000), in Harris et al., (2009:3) points to a shift that, in recent years, governments have allocated community sports clubs a key leading role in delivering its (government) sports policy within communities. Additionally, nowadays, community sports clubs have the ability to operate as a business. Although there are likely to be obstacles at the starting phase of the club's operation, it is imperative for a sports club to operate as a business. In view of notion that the government has a tendency to reduce the sports budget in South Africa, the shift may provide many community sports clubs with an opportunity to revise how they would like to conduct their business and further negotiate their goals with respective funders.

4.3.2 The significance of community sports clubs

Misener and Doherty (2009:457) describe community sport organisations (here referred to as community sports clubs) as a key setting to provide opportunities for active participation, social engagement and community cohesion. Additionally, Allison (2001), in Misener and Doherty (2009), agrees that community sports clubs are an important part of the society because they have the ability to provide individuals and groups with social benefits and cohesion. For the mandate of sport promotion and development to yield greater results in South Africa, DSAC took the initiative of identifying and assisting clubs in disadvantaged communities in various parts of the country to participate in structured platforms. With reference to the background and position of sports clubs within communities, The NSRP also recognises that a solid foundation of club structures is essential for the provision, development and excellence in sports to thrive (Sport and Recreation South Africa: NSRP, 2013:37).

In the past two decades, South Africa has been privileged and honored by the international sporting bodies to continue to host major and mega events. This opportunity suggests that by increasing the National Government's investment in sports, South Africa has the potential to join the ranks of top countries globally where sports make a substantial contribution to the nation's GDP. However, with this in mind, it is concerning to discover that although sport in South African is regarded as an important attribute to the GDP, the current state of South African sport continues to be

of key concern in terms of performance at an international level as compared to most countries that South Africa is competing with at an international level. In Denmark, there are more than 16000 sports clubs with an estimated population of just over six million people who are active within the community (Ibsen et al., 2015:85), while in South Africa with an estimated population of just over 58 million, Appelcryn (2012:5) reports that there is no accurate information to measure the number of clubs that are affiliated to national and provincial federations. Detailed information regarding the operation in respect of the design and implementation of CDP will be discussed at a later stage in this section. During the budget speech for the Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa held on 17 July 2019 in Parliament, the former Minister of Sport, Arts and Culture (Mr Nathi Mthethwa) who occupied the position from 2019-2023 announced that an amount of R1.1 Billion had been allocated to promote and develop sporting activities and programmes in South Africa for the 2019/20 financial year. Of this amount, the Deputy Minister of Sport, Arts and Culture (Ms Nocawe Mafu) declared that about 65% of the funding was directed towards improving the School Sport Mass Participation Programme (SSMPP). She added that an amount of R45 million would be used to purchase equipment and apparel for community sports clubs. Given the development context of community sport within the EU countries, central government does not only advance the agenda of the school sport programme but has a great interest in the development of community sports clubs. This connotes that the European government understands that the two areas are equally crucial for the purpose of developing community sport.

In relation to advancing the development and promotion of sport in South Africa, one could argue that the Sport Ministry in South Africa appears not to prioritise investing in education and training as part of capacity building to enable the SDOs to run their respective clubs effectively. This view is derived from discovering that each year since the inception of the concept (CDP) in 2006, community clubs have been receiving equipment and apparel. From the findings that emerged in a study conducted by Moroe (2013:92), it was revealed that equipment and apparel were reported not to be priorities for community sports clubs to succeed. Instead, frequent training was reported to be an attribute important for community sports clubs to be successful and self-sustainable.

In light of Moroe's (2013) findings, Koloba and Surujlal (2014:33-35) also conducted a study with the aim to determine the key factors and challenges that are associated with participation within Eldorado Park community, Johannesburg, South Africa. According to their study, the following emerged as key factors and challenges:

- Shortage of sport facilities and poor state of existing facilities;
- Undesirable behaviour (such as gangsterism, violence, drugs and alcohol);
- Lack of involvement of key stakeholders (business people are not investing in sport);
- Negative impact of social factors (such as poverty, high unemployment rate, teenage pregnancy, domestic violence, etc.) makes it difficult for the youth to take part in sporting activities; and
- Lack of leadership and education from competent community leaders (like role models) have contributed to the youth not being ambitious to participate in sporting activities.

With reference to the significance and provision of sport equipment to community clubs, Awoma, Okakah and Arainwu (2015:62) emphasise that the provision and availability of the correct and quality equipment plays a vital role in the development of community sport. Therefore, it is important for the SPOs to ensure that the equipment to be distributed to community clubs is of high quality. During the 2019/20 budget vote for DSAC, the majority of the political parties were unsatisfied with the overall budget (R1.1 Billion) announced by the Minister of Sports, Arts and Culture. One member of the opposition party (Mr Tsepo Mhlongo) expressed that the budget allocated for sport purposes is far too little. Another member of the opposition (Mr Ringo Mandlingozi) held the view that government funds community sports clubs that proclaim to offer aquatics activities in the absence of suitable aquatics facilities. The aforesaid notion points to a disjointed sports system where a poor systemic governance approach is at play. Given the background, one may conclude that government does not appear to have lack capacity to monitor and evaluate its programmes. Additionally, on the premise that CDP currently has more aquatics sports clubs with no suitable facilities, one could argue that this practice may pose a negative outcome and impact on what the club and programme at large, seeks to achieve. Notwithstanding various programmes initiated by DSAC, one may argue that there is

a particular age population that DSAC do not seem to prioritise when it comes to the delivery of sporting programmes. The missing population is deemed to be the population mostly between the ages of 36 and 55 years of age. This assertion originates from the view that there appears to be a lack of sufficient programmes specifically designed to promote talent and maximum participation in sport programmes. Most of the individuals from the mentioned age groups are generally not part of the club setting.

4.3.3 Social capital as a panacea for community sport development

Social capital is a concept that is old but it entered into academic and policy debates only in the 1990s (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2009:480). This is a concept that has become popular in relation to achieving the desired outcome of implemented programmes within communities. Jarvie (2003:139) reveals that this concept has gained popularity after many scholars have acknowledged its unique contribution to sporting communities in sociological and political era. Bhandari and Yasunobu (2009:487) agree with Jarvie (2003) that social capital plays a key role towards adding value in boosting the economy and culture of the community. Jarvie (2003:143) added: '*social capital has the ability to attract a lot of attention*'. Also, that social capital has been seen as a way of contributing to social inclusion; hence, civil citizens and communities rely on it heavily. He continued that social groups and individuals learn more when they can draw upon the cultural resources of people around them. They learn from each other directly but they also learn to trust that social arrangements are in place to ensure that learning through a multitude of media, including sport, will benefit them both culturally and for employment opportunities. The scholar's perspective is derived from the view that trust is key for any partnership to succeed. Furthermore, he holds the opinion that those who embark upon partnership must be able to trust each other that their partnership and systems will operate constructively (2003). In light of this background, Coleman (1988), in Jarvie (2003:143), emphasises that the concept has become popular within contemporary policy-oriented discourses about sport and leisure.

4.3.4 Overview of social capital concepts

Jarvie (2003) defines social capital as 'the network of social groups and relationships that fosters cooperative working and community well-being'. The scholar further cited

that social capital is a concept that involves communities and other social groups exercising a certain degree of trust through taking on mutual obligations, Bhandari and Yasunobu (2009:480) point out that social capital includes social networks, civic engagement, norms of reciprocity and generalised trust. The scholars further defined the concept as a 'collective asset in the form of shared norms, values, beliefs, trust, networks, social relations, and institutions that facilitate cooperation and collectively take action for mutual benefits', while Dixon, McGarry and Evanovich (2019:131) praise the work of Hoye and Auld (2006), who define social capital as 'contextual characteristics that describes patterns of civic engagement, trust, and mutual obligation among individuals'. Wells and Hancock (2017:133) articulated that in order for sport organisations to be successful, it is important for the SPOs to take advantage of the benefits of networking. Given the review of literature, it is evident that community sport programmes are less likely to achieve their intended objectives in the absence of developing strong social capital.

In an effort to achieve social capital within communities, theorists such as Lin, Chalip and Green (2016), in Dixon et al., (2019:131-132) stress that social capital can be gained when participants and the agents who work together to deliver a community sport programme establish a strong foundation of network, share common norms and standards, and the understanding that can lead to a greater cooperation and cohesiveness between all parties concerned.

4.3.5 Common characteristics of social capital

Having to review the wider meaning, significance and impact of the concept of 'social capital', the following common characteristics deriving from the literature suggest that, for any community sport programme to be successful, the SDOs must therefore, ensure that:

- they develop and foster good relationships with other key community stakeholders;
- community members are engaged from the onset to be part of the programme;
- trust is established among all parties concerned;
- there are mutual obligations and benefits among all parties concerned; and

- there is a great understanding among all the parties concerned pertaining to promoting a spirit of collegiality.

Bhandari and Yasunobu (2009:484) agree that these characteristics are crucial to be considered by the SDOs because they could potentially serve as powerful means of developing communities. Based on the background, this notion propels the researcher to assess whether the objectives of CDP (as a community sport programme) embrace the development of social capital.

4.4 Lessons to be learnt for community sport development programmes

Generally, many people in South Africa take part in unstructured sport activities that are facilitated outside the scope of community sport clubs. Interestingly, the majority do not belong to a sports club as members. Another point worth noting is that, in most European countries, it is mandatory for children of a young age to associate themselves with a community sports club, whereas in South Africa, this is not the case. For example, In Denmark, children as early as 7 years old are involved in fulfilling sports club duties. On the other hand, in South Africa, there is no mandatory requirement stipulating at what age group children, boys and girls, should become members of the community sports club. However, for the purpose of providing baseline information in relation to the background, it would be interesting to probe the underlying factors that influence the majority of the South African population not to belong to a sports club.

In pursuit of promoting health awareness within the sports club in South Africa, one may postulate that educational programmes such as healthcare awareness need to be offered on a regular basis to members of the community sports clubs. This practice is most likely to equip community members with necessary skills and a basic understanding pertaining to living a healthy lifestyle on a day-to-day basis. Therefore, in order for this approach to manifest, DSAC ought to have conversations with all relevant community stakeholders to discuss strategic initiatives on how this can be implemented successfully.

As far as physical education is concerned, in most European countries, in particular, the Netherlands for example, physical education is still currently embedded in the

schools' curriculum. In the South African context, it is concerning that in the late 90s, central government phased out physical education, which was commonly known as 'physical training' (PT) in all public schools as part of the schools' curriculum. The decision resulted in a high decline of participation in sport because nowadays, school children do not seem to have great interest in sports participation. However, owing to the constant outcry from the general public in South Africa and the high demand for sport participation from key stakeholders, the National Government is currently in the process of negotiations to bring back physical education as part of the school curriculum.

Presently, private schools in South Africa offer physical education as part of their school curriculum. This is due to the fact that private schools are using a different education syllabus from the public schools. The conditions of the sports facilities in the majority of the public schools in South Africa are appalling, compared to in the private schools because their facilities are well maintained and of a good standard. With respect to the governance of the CDP, DSAC appears not to have an existing policy stipulating how CDP administrators ought to be capacitated to implement the programme effectively. Moroe (2013:119) applauds the work of Vail (2007) by emphasising that the 'intent of community development is to educate and involve citizens in the process of individual empowerment and community change'. Moreover, his study reveals that the majority of community club officials had not received sufficient training since the programme's inception. Of note, the study revealed that only one CDP official was reported to have attended a training course but it was not specifically for CDP purposes. Therefore, this finding may provide reasonable understanding why CDP appeared not to be delivered effectively within the respective communities since its inception in 2006.

In Germany, people with relevant qualifications and experience are considered and hired to add value towards the development of community sport clubs. Najafloo (2019:183) advises that, in order for a sports club to prosper, it is important for the club management to ensure that all the members are properly recruited and placed in the right positions so that they can perform efficiently and strategically, as envisaged in the organisational policy. The scholar further suggests that, to ensure that there is order within the organisation, each club ought to have its own human resources

manager to assist with the arrangement regarding the placement of and their behaving in an appropriate manner. In light of this, it will be interesting to find out whether all the targeted CDP clubs that are part of this study embrace the advice of the author.

Literature reveals that in places like the UK, USA, Australia, Europe, and China, people with appropriate qualifications (such as coaching and sports administration) run sports clubs, while in the South African context, it is not entirely the case because most community sports clubs are managed by individuals or a group that the club entrusts, with no relevant qualification in place. In the Netherlands, France and the UK, those with capacity to add value in the sports clubs are given the opportunity to do so. From the human capital point of view, this approach is different from the South African context, where, for example, there are no stringent prerequisites for people wanting to be part of the management within the club, especially at an executive level.

Often, individuals without equivalent qualifications, experience, background, willingness or shared interest are found to be occupying key positions within sports clubs. In Greece, graduates in the fields of sport science and PE are employed by government and community sports clubs to help deliver effective sport programmes for all (Alexandris & Balaska, 2015). In contrast, in South Africa, graduates who are in possession of a recognised and relevant sport qualification generally struggle to get employment within the sporting environment. Instead, the positions within the sporting environment are mostly occupied by those who do not necessarily possess a recognised and relevant sporting qualification. Given this premise, one could argue that a lack of relevant person(s) to run the day-to-day affairs of the community sports clubs appears to be one of the primary reasons that multiple community sports clubs in South Africa are less likely to be valued by the private sector in terms of assisting with the provision of resources. Broadly speaking, this set-up could contribute to the various factors why the private sector does not seem to show an interest in investing resources to sports clubs as they may envisage that their Return on Investment (RoI) is less likely to be quantifiable.

One could argue that, if only people with relevant qualifications and experience were employed to manage sports clubs effectively in developing countries, those people could potentially develop effective constitutions as well as educational policies

independent of central government and could most likely develop unique strategies of sourcing additional revenue for sports clubs.

4.5 Programme design

In an attempt to understand how DSAC designed the CDP in South Africa, various government documents aligned with CDP were reviewed, but with not much success. This context provides the researcher with the assumption that there appears to be a lack of supportive literature pertaining to how CDP in South Africa was designed. In South Africa, the programme is guided by the key strategic objectives, as indicated in the NSRP (2013) and the White Paper on Sport and Recreation, which seek to provide formal sports participation opportunities through an integrated and sustainable club structure (Sport and Recreation South Africa White Paper, 2012:36). In light of this, Table 4.1 illustrates the statement of intent for the design of the programme, along with the direction (from a policy perspective) which the programme ought to take in order to attain its targeted strategic objectives.

Table 4.1: Statement of intent for the existence of CDP (South Africa White Paper, Sport and Recreation, 2012:36)

Statement	Policy Directives
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A network of club structures integrated into provincial and national sport structures, spanning urban and rural areas across the country, forms the basis of sports provision in any sports system. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - An integrated and sustainable club structure is recognised as a prerequisite for the foundation of the South African sports system. - National Federations (NFs) must take responsibility to ensure that the growth of their sport is supported by a well-developed club system. - The formation or revitalisation of clubs and leagues must be supported at a local level by introducing programmes and procuring sports equipment and attire.

According to the existing document on the Club Development Project (South Africa. Department of Sport and Recreation. Club Development Project, n.d:4), the strategic objectives of the CDP are to:

1. increase the levels of participation of South Africans in sport and recreation;
2. develop the human resource potential for the management of sport and recreation in South Africa;
3. ensure that sport and recreation bodies achieve their transformation objectives;
4. motivate the communities to develop active lifestyles;
5. ensure that those athletes with talent are channelled into the competitive areas of sport; and
6. integrate planning and implementation of programmes by the three spheres of government.

Initially, identified community clubs are involved in the programme for a period of three years. In the process of being part of the programme, DSAC had committed that each community club across all nine provinces would receive assistance such as capacity building, transport, equipment and clothing. At the inception of the CDP in 2006, the programme commenced with only six sporting codes, namely athletics, aquatics, netball, rugby, cricket, and football. Interestingly, since 2006 to date, the number of sporting codes to receive support from CDP have grown tremendously and such increase varies from province to province. Given the scope pertaining to the significant increase of the number of CDP sporting codes, the CDP has more sporting codes with less capacity, yet the existing policy (to be referred as the 'blueprint') only indicates that six sporting codes will be given support by DSAC. Therefore, this narrative affirms that the number of sporting codes to receive assistance from CDP has grown over the years. In light of this, Appelcryn (2012:2) reveals that DSAC designed the blueprint but it is not being properly implemented as originally intended.

4.6 Programme management

Generally, the terms 'programme' and 'project' tend to be used interchangeably without understanding the actual meaning of the terms. Therefore, it is important to understand the differences between the terms. Van Baalen and De Coning (2011:172) quote Brinkerhoff (1991:8) by saying that programmes can be defined as 'long-term, multi-activity endeavors implemented by networks of country institutions in multiple

locations whose production and/or service delivery objectives and impact goals derive from indigenous policy choices'. The authors (2011) assert that, on the other hand, 'projects can be viewed as the building blocks of programmes'. Van Baalen and De Coning (2011:173) emphasise that programme management in a public context, is referred to as 'purposeful management and coordination of a portfolio of projects on the basis of geographical targeting, sectoral and functional mix as well as the nature of assistance'.

The authors further highlight that, when wishing to develop an effective programme-management tool, it is ideal to consider factors such as multiple-year planning, time scheduling and sequencing (programming) and budgeting. However, failure to take these factors into account, could lead to a programme being implemented unsuccessfully. Conversely, project management is commonly referred to as the 'process by which a project is brought to a successful conclusion' (Van Baalen and De Coning, 2011:180-181). The authors further highlight that, for the project to be implemented successfully, it is important to understand the nine areas of project management body of knowledge (PMBOK), which are: project integration, project scope management, project time management, project cost management, project quality management, human resources management, project communications management, project risk management, and project procurement management. In 2016, in a meeting, one of the experts in programme management in South Africa, (Mr Jan Koster) said that the point of departure for any programme to be successful is through programme/project management steps. He described the programme-management stages as: concept (stage 1); design (stage 2); implementation (stage 3); and monitoring and evaluation (stage 4).

Stage 1: Concept

This stage is also known as the planning phase. The point of departure for developing and implementing any successful programme for a particular organisation, is planning. Gouws (2001:20) defines planning as the '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', while Estedadi, Shahhoseini and Hamidi (2015:41) define succession planning as a 'process that is in place for a future planned retirement or permanent exit of the employee'. Additionally, Timms (2016:1) emphasises that

succession planning 'involves making the preparations required to have the right people ready to fill key roles when vacancies arise', while Thurmond (2018), in Swanson (2018:45), identifies succession planning as a key facet that plays a pivotal role in developing leaders and maintaining a continuous talent pipeline within the organisation.

These scholars highlight that planning is an instrument that managers use to anticipate the future and deal with it effectively. More theoretical content on the importance of strategic and planning processes such as forecasting, key results, programming, scheduling and budgeting are significant elements that ought to be examined in detail when wishing to implement a programme successfully. Koster (2016) postulates that the organisation responsible for programme design needs to ensure that community needs assessment is conducted effectively within communities, that the goals and objectives are established, and that potential shareholders are identified.

Stage 2: Design

This is the stage when organisational structures and approaches are in place. Koster (2016) further recommends that, in this stage, responsibilities and resources should be allocated accordingly. In addition, he stated that the risks of the programme need to be assessed and the scope of the baseline to be developed. In addition, the approaches relating to the master plan, and budget policies and procedures should be developed. The appointment of key team members is crucial in this stage.

Stage 3: Implementation

Broadly speaking, programme implementation seems to be the biggest area of concern. In this stage, the concept and design activities are put into action with the intent to achieve a specific goal. Brynard et al., (2011:136) said that the 1995–1997 White Paper era in South Africa did not provide strategies for how to translate policies into practice. Additionally, implementation is defined as the 'process in which all planned actions are executed' (Van der Walddt and Knipe, 2001:82). Koster (2016) emphasises that a work plan is vital, and he goes on to explain that a work plan is a detailed schedule that indicates how the planning should be implemented. He indicates that the key to effective implementation is motivation since employees are most likely to perform better when there is effective communication and incentives for

achieving great results. It could be said that, in general, if deliverables are linked to employee performance, then the goals are likely to be achieved. Koster argues that valuable programmes tend to fail because most organisations go from the plan stage and rush to the implementation stage without spending quality time on the design stage.

Stage 4: Programme monitoring and evaluation

Often, practitioners seem to misconstrue the contextual meaning of the two concepts, namely: '*monitoring*' and '*evaluation*' and, owing to this confusion, the concepts are generally used interchangeably. Astle, Leberman and Watson (2019:174) state that, in most cases, monitoring and evaluation are perceived as compliance that purports to satisfy the demands or to justify the resources invested by potential investors, rather than being seen as a solution presenting an opportunity for the organisation to reflect critically on its own effectiveness and the impact it has made while delivering the programme. The scholars emphasise that monitoring and evaluation are concepts that seek to recognise the gaps that emerged during the implementation stages and ultimately, they provide the opportunity to address what works, what does not work, what needs to be done and how it should be done (Astle et al., 2019:175).

Monitoring is described as the process that 'involves observing, recording and reporting information as evidence of a sport organisation's performance', while evaluation reflects on the 'evidence to determine whether a sport organisation's performance is on track, or if a change is required or constraints alleviated, to make improvements' (Astle et al., 2019:175). In the same vein, Mouton, Rabie, de Coning and Cloete (2014) state that programme evaluation is a concept that was introduced in the United States in the 1960s during the Great Society era. The scholars stress that the concept was developed with the intention of combatting the negative effects of World War II.

Although the scholars report that evaluation in Africa emerged during the 1980s, Mouton (2010) indicates that the official academic programme commenced in 2007. Therefore, this statement implies that the term is emerging in South Africa. With reference to this view, Mouton (2010:162-163) asserts that many individuals and groups do not have formal training in monitoring and evaluation and, as a result, they

rely solely on their own resources to establish themselves in their respective fields (Mouton, 2010:135). Rossi, Lipsey and Freeman (2004), in Rabie (2014:123), assert that programme evaluation 'entails the use of social research methods to systematically investigate the effectiveness of social intervention programmes in ways that are adapted to their political and organisational environments to inform social actions that may improve social conditions'.

Equal to this view, Mouton (2010:2) describes programme evaluation as 'the use of social research methods that aims to systematically investigate the effectiveness of social intervention programs in ways that are adapted to their political and organisational environments and are designed to inform social action to improve social conditions', while Weiss (1998), in Rabie and Goldman (2014), describe evaluation as the 'systematic assessment of the operation and/or outcomes of a programme or policy, compared to a set of explicit standards, as a means of contributing to the improvement of the programme or policy'. The scholars continue to highlight that the SPOs and volunteers are primarily responsible to monitor the programme. For monitoring to be effective, this definition implies that those responsible for the programme monitoring need to observe, record, and report the information pertaining to the club's performance frequently. One of the renowned consultants of programme management, implementation and evaluation in the South African context (Koster, 2016), advised that, in order to monitor and evaluate the implementation of the programme effectively, it is ideal to appoint an external organisation to assist with the review of the programme implementation.

4.7 Programme implementation

In order to reach the objectives of the CDP, each provincial Department of Sport and Recreation in South Africa is responsible for the implementation of the programme. With reference to the implementation plan of the CDP (see document: National Sport and Recreation Plan, 2013), one might argue that the implementation plan (as outlined in the NSRP) does not seem to have provision for detailed guidance regarding how provinces ought to implement the programme in respective communities. Instead, the CDP blueprint generally speaks more to 'what needs to be done', rather than to 'how it should be done'. In this view, one might postulate that the implementation plan is equivocal as it appears to be lacking a clear direction on how the implementation will

be done. Additionally, since the inception of the CDP in 2006, the model for programme implementation is yet to be seen. Owing to the lack of an implementation model for the programme, this continues to be worrying because it is generally difficult to implement programmes effectively without proper guidelines that ought to be followed. Bailey (2015:64) stressed that CDP ought to be implemented in accordance with the National Sport and Recreation Plan (NSRP) and the White Paper. However, since the programme has not achieved its objectives since its inception, one may assume that the current practice regarding the implementation of the programme, specifically at a local level, seems not to have been aligned with the national mandate.

In efforts to develop a strong cultural practice within the club, Stenling and Fahlén (2014:2) stress that it is imperative for each community sports club to develop an 'organisational identity'. This is the term used to define the values of the organisation regarding who they are and what they stand for. Moreover, Stenling and Fahlén (2014:4) describe organisational identity as a term which implies that there is a 'shared and common understanding of a particular set of legitimate core purpose and practices' amongst members of the club. Through the definition of 'organisational identity', one might postulate that each club member is likely to understand what the club stands for and to uphold its values and morals at any given time. This synopsis prompts the researcher to probe whether all the community sports clubs that are targeted as part of this study have their own identity. The researcher finds the approach interesting because it provides a clear indication of whether community sports clubs deliver programmes and implement policies that are aligned with their organisational and national identity.

It is against this backdrop that the findings of Appelcryn (2012:4) are acknowledged, that the current implementation approach to CDP in South Africa has not yielded the desired results. She continues to indicate that the current approach has influenced community sports club systems to being dysfunctional and, in many areas, non-existent. Her findings are based on the premise that:

- there is no information on the status of each member;
- many clubs do not have a constitution;
- clubs do not have a strategic plan in place;

- most clubs officials are not trained;
- clubs do not make use of volunteers; and
- there is a lack of a succession plan

Appelcryn (2012:5).

On the other hand, Bailey (2015:68) endorses the recommendations of Hoye et al., (2015) that, in order for a sports club to be an established organisation and fully functional, the following obligations need to be fulfilled:

- annual general meetings must be held;
- financial and non-financial statements should be presented annually;
- any key changes should be reported to key officials;
- clubs' annual financial statements must be audited;
- information needs to be made available to club officials; and
- sports clubs should communicate constantly with their key stakeholders about any matters relating to the affairs of the organisation.

Notwithstanding what CDP has done over the years of its existence to improve community sports clubs in South Africa, Appelcryn (2012) indicates that, overall, there is no accurate information about which community clubs exist and how many clubs were developed but are still not sustainable. This view is worth noting as it may be influenced by many factors. The aforesaid assertion may contribute to the challenges that the SPOs experience in relation to the effective implementation of the programme in various communities. A further argument could be that the finding may also be influenced by lack of an available policy in place, indicating how DSAC intends to support multiple sporting codes in the future as part of CDP. In the same vein, the study conducted by Moroe (2013:112) concerning the identification of the factors influencing the delivery of the CDP in the Cape Metropole, revealed that the majority of the SPOs were not trained to implement the programme effectively in their respective communities. In addition, to the study, Moroe (2013) found that one of the key challenges to the effective delivery of the programme is that CDP has many sporting codes to service with less capacity to implement the programme successfully within the Cape Metropole communities.

The aforesaid background denotes that the programme does not seem to have been implemented in accordance with its design because the CDP blueprint clearly states that six sporting codes will be the key priority as far as club development is concerned. Given the findings emerging from the studies by Appelcryn (2012), and Moroe (2013), this further propels the researcher to investigate whether the programme implementation is aligned with its design with special reference to looking at the key strategic objectives of the programme. Many scholars in the sport development discipline have touched on key areas that are pivotal regarding the theoretical concepts of effective design and implementation. Amid other scholars, May, Harris and Collins (2013) have successfully developed a basic framework that is key in terms of the policy implementation in communities. Figure 4.1 represents the basic framework that is important in policy implementation, and such framework has been adopted by the English government.



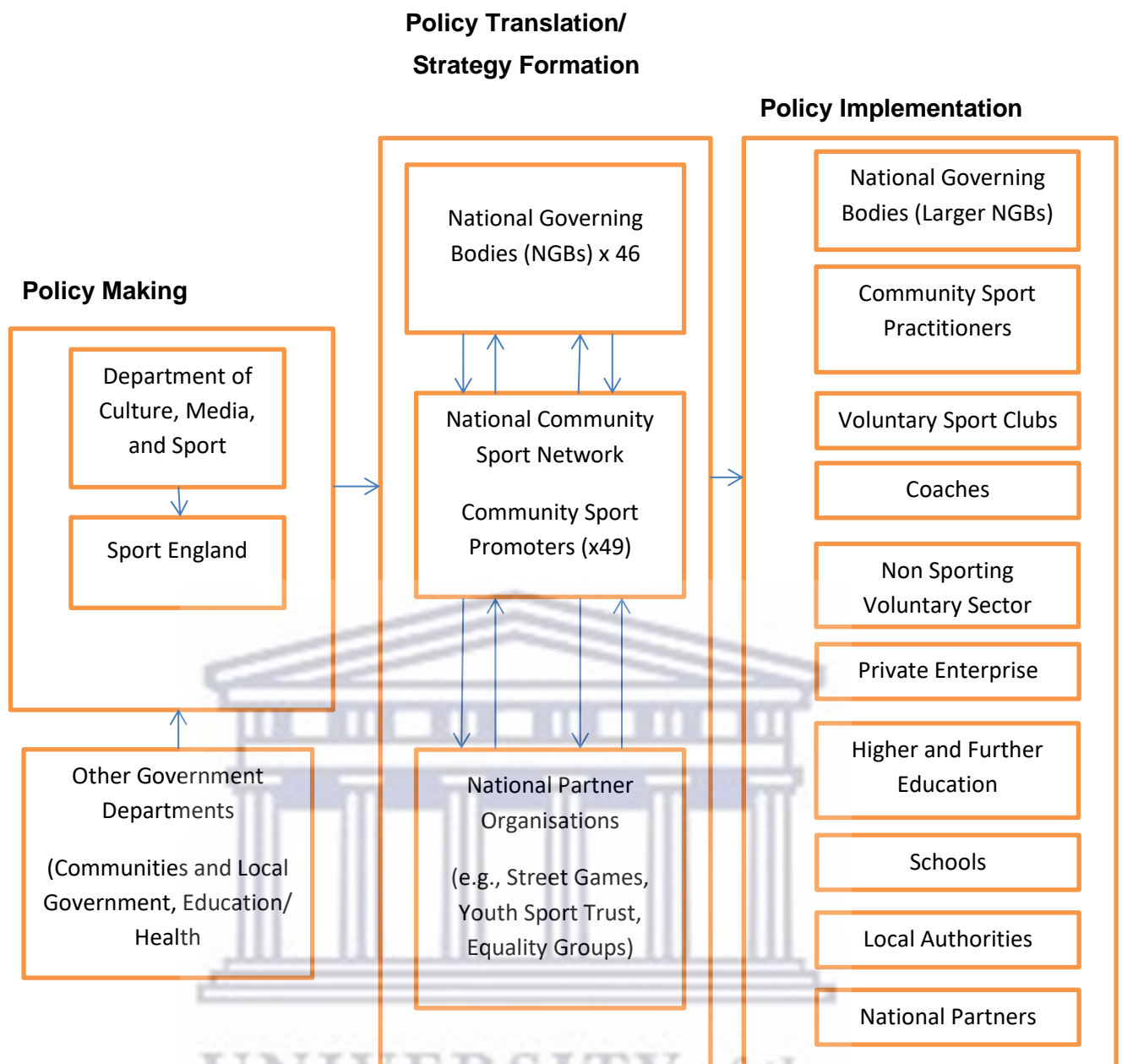


Figure 4.1: Key stakeholders in policy making, translation and implementation

Source: (May et al., 2013:398)

Figure 4.1 demonstrates that there are many key stakeholders that should be considered when wishing to develop and implement a community sport programme successfully. Based on the principles of this framework, the context enables the researcher here to delve into whether all the targeted community sports clubs that are part of CDP in South Africa have key stakeholders playing a crucial role in ensuring that the programme is implemented successfully in respective communities to achieve its intended goals.

4.8 Club development toolkit

These days, if a community sports club wishes to function as an independent entity and not rely solely on its funders, Najafloo (2019:182) recommends that the club should develop a sound plan. The scholar expresses clearly that, when developing a plan, the focus should be on defining the club's goals, mission, vision, structures, policies and procedures. The author explains that the focus on these elements is important because they contribute towards the club being sustainable. For example, in 2011, the budget for the local government in England was considerably reduced by the UK government as a consequence of implementing a new policy to reduce public expenditure. As a result, the scholars highlighted that many sports clubs that use government facilities were affected greatly. This is why they recommend that sport organisations should not rely on government to be the sole service provider of funding.

Given the background, the difference between sports clubs in the UK and South Africa, is that in the UK, community volunteers raise sufficient revenue as their main source of income rather than being dependent on central government for the provision of resources, while in South Africa, for example, most public sports clubs indicate that their source of income is primarily from the central government. Therefore, in order to achieve social objectives, it is recommended that special attention ought to be given to a good working relationship with key stakeholders and with government agencies (Nichols & Taylor, 2015:112). The club's plan is also likely to attract lucrative investors to do business with the club. This perspective proposes that the executives of the club need to be strategic and vigilant when developing the club's plan, which will determine whether the club is likely to survive in future and ultimately to become self-sustainable.

Consequently, the AFL (2004:8) echoes Najafloo's (2019) sentiments that, in order for the programme to attain its set goals, the club should at least have:

- a well-established and coordinated structure for the administration and implementation of programmes;
- a development and implementation plan that incorporates elements of fun, enjoyment, skills development, social skill, and, most importantly, the long-term benefits of a healthy lifestyle;

- concrete plans on how to recruit, to educate, to retain volunteers, and to recognise their service; and
- a marketing plan that shows how to promote its range of programmes to all the various levels of the community.

During the 2014/15 financial year, provinces such as KwaZulu-Natal and Limpopo initiated a new system called 'Club Development Toolkit (CDT)', which was recognised by DSAC as an official pilot study to assist CDP effectively in achieving its objectives. Hendricks (2015:26) describes a CDT as a resource that has been designed to improve the skills of administrators who are running sport and recreation clubs to understand how the club functions efficiently. Although only two provinces undertook the new system as a guideline to improve the implementation of CDP, the rest of the South African provinces have not yet adopted the toolkit as their guideline.

As part of achieving the objectives of this study, the researcher will also use the CDT adopted by some of the provincial departments responsible for CDP in South Africa, to analyse whether the elements of the toolkit contribute positively towards achieving the objectives of CDP. Given the period of existence of CDP, it is concerning to note that different provinces appear to have a different understanding of how the programme ought to be delivered in their respective communities. In the absence of uniformity, one would argue that DSAC appears to be lacking direction regarding the provision of effective ways to implement the programme successfully in various provinces across the country.

With reference to the view that SDOs in various provinces seem to be implementing the programme in the way they deem appropriate, it could further be argued that CDP does not appear to have an effective systematic assessment in place to monitor and evaluate whether the programme achieves its goals. Interestingly, the South African government has a similar programme to the Australian government. For example, in South Africa, the programme is called 'Club Development Programme' (CDP) and in Australia, it is called the 'Club Management Programme' (CMP). The resemblance between both programmes was discovered through reviewing the welcoming letter of the then Chief Executive Officer (Mr Demetriou) of the Australian Football League. In

his opening remarks, he stresses that both volunteers and administrators undoubtedly make a significant contribution to the club, leading to officials and community members being encouraged to attend courses that have been designed to empower them with knowledge (AFL, 2004:3).

Both of the programmes are designed strategically to enhance mass participation and are used as key instruments in addressing socioeconomic challenges through sporting programmes. In light of the objectives of the CDP and the CMP, generally, both programmes seek to: i) provide support to the community; ii) capacitate community members through education and training; iii) improve on the delivery of the programme; iv) promote maximum participation; v) recruit, retain and empower volunteers, coaches, umpires, and administrators to be competent in their niche areas; vi) improve the quality of the club environment; and vii) establish social capital with community key stakeholders.

Although the objectives of the programmes from both countries (South Africa and Australia) are similar, it is important to bear in mind that the programme implementation may not necessarily be the same owing to the uniqueness in geographical location. Therefore, in order for the sports club to be self-sustainable, Hendricks (2015:26-29) affirms that sports club administrators need to: develop a broader understanding of how to establish a club (convene and follow meeting procedures, constitution, roles and responsibilities for each committee member); manage the club's finances; market the club; manage volunteers effectively; maintain and manage facilities; register, maintain and store equipment properly; raise donations and apply for funding; secure lucrative business deals through sponsorship; develop strategic planning for the long-term survival of the club; formulate an effective coaching programme that focuses primarily on the development of athletes' mental and physical skills; run leagues, tournaments and events; develop a succession plan for new members to take over the leadership roles within the club; design an environment that is fair and without prejudice for all community members; and ensure that administrative duties are performed by competent people who are able to relay information effectively to the club's key stakeholders. Traditionally, the top-down approach was considered to be a favourable method for many institutions when it came to the development and implementation of the programme within communities. However, May et al.,

(2013:401) discards this approach because it has the connotation that implementation is seen as 'the carrying out of a policy decision'. This approach is regarded as one of the processes that weakens the effective delivery of the programme.

The authors added that this approach denotes an authoritative, hierarchical relationship to achieve success, but often fails to take into account adequate norms, behaviours, values and attitudes of those who are implementing the programme at a local level. On the other hand, Lipsky (1980), in May et al., (2013:402) argues that the bottom-up approach is relevant in modern days because the local grassroots organisations have greater expertise and practical knowledge of policy problems, and they are in a better position to design policy that will be implemented within communities. In relation to this perspective, May et al., (2013) applaud the work of Skille (2008) by stating that any policy imposed by others without the community agents being consulted may not be welcome; also, if such policy does not correspond with the objectives of the ordinary citizens. In addition, Jeanes et al., (2017:3) indicate that the point of departure for implementing the programme successfully is to develop an understanding of the reason that community clubs engage with certain policies and implement such policies differently.

Stenling and Fahlén (2016), in Jeanes et al., (2017:3), forewarn policy developers that if they wish to implement a new policy or programme in the community through sports clubs, it is mandatory to ensure that such policies are aligned to the clubs' organisational identity and also fall within the realm of what clubs sought to do and achieve. Subsequently, deLeon and deLeon (2002) echo the sentiments of Lipsky (1980), and Skille (2008), that service deliverers are most likely to be compliant implementers on condition that they are involved in the initial policy decision-making (May et al., 2013:402). Thus far, literature recommends that community clubs should be at the forefront of implementing a successful programme, therefore, they should not be overlooked or ignored.

Although the aim of this study is not to investigate where CDP members end up in the development programme, the researcher proposes that it is necessary for future research to be conducted with a specific focus on why most of the CDP members appear not to represent the country at a national and international level. This proposal

comes from the basis that CDP has a mandatory role to play in ensuring that DSAC achieves one of its goals which is, in this case, becoming an active nation. Therefore, in ensuring that DSAC achieves its primary goal through the CDP operation, the following section will provide detailed methods on what practices are regarded to be ideal by experts around the globe.

4.9 Good practices in developing and sustaining community sports clubs in South Africa

In an effort to develop a community sports club successfully, the facets were reviewed that are considered to be good practices in other countries. In the process of reviewing such practices, the researcher discovered that they differ from country to country. However, there are standard practices recommended by many community sports clubs. The practices presented here serve as standard practices towards the understanding of how to get started with developing a community sports club. Said practices are adopted based on the premise that they have a similar set-up to how CDP operates within the South African setting.

As stated in Chapter Three, literature discourages the notion that the government should not take a leading role in designing and implementing community-based programmes without consulting with key community stakeholders. Instead, literature states that the design and implementation of any community programme must be in the hands of the community members. This notion emerges from the standpoint that community agents are in a better position to understand the socioeconomic challenges facing the community. Additionally, literature states that community agents are most likely to propose solutions and to play a key role in adding value to boosting the economy and developing community culture. According to the Club Development Guide, developed by British Triathlon (2007:3), the following facets indicate what an effective community sports club ought to have:

Club structure: The guide suggests that an ideal club needs to have a constitution in place. As part of the club structure, the guide further recommends that a club needs to have an official bank account and that the roles of the office bearers (such as chairperson, secretary, treasurer, welfare officer, etc.) must be clearly defined. This

stage is crucial for the club management to consider as it provides a wider sense of communication, leadership, transparency and accountability within the club.

Welfare: Once the club structure has been developed, the next important element to consider is to develop a code of conduct. The code of conduct serves as a foundation regarding how discipline will be enforced by the management of the club. Another point worth noting is that the club management in first world countries has a robust child protection policy, which is a policy that inculcates child safety within the club.

In the UK, all community sports clubs working with young people and vulnerable adults are advised by the National Government and sport federations to develop a safeguarding and child protection policy (British Triathlon, 2007:4). This policy is developed with the intent to ensure that community sport programmes are delivered in a safe manner and setting for everyone. In addition to the primary objectives of this study, the researcher will also seek to determine whether each targeted community sports club that is part of the CDP in SA has adopted the same basic principle when it comes to the safety of its members. The approach is found to be necessary to avoid any potential unforeseen litigation by individuals, groups or parents.

In the light of this, the Safety at Sport and Recreation Events Act of 2010 (Act No. 2 of 2010) will be considered as a key instrument to determine whether community sports clubs comply with the national regulations as far as safety is concerned in their respective operational environment. The aforesaid policy preamble states:

... the physical well-being and safety of all persons attending sports, recreational, religious, cultural, exhibitional, organisational or similar events as well as the safety of their property at stadiums or other venues must be protected; and the rights of persons who attend sport, recreational, religious, cultural, exhibitional, organisational or similar events must be protected. (Republic of South Africa. Safety at Sport and Recreational Events Act no 2, 2010:2).

Recruitment: The guide indicates that this element mainly focuses on the process that will be followed to recruit people such as new volunteers and coaches who are driven to provide their services for free without necessarily expecting anything in return. In respect to volunteers, many scholars around the world applaud and recognise volunteers as some of the key public figures who play an instrumental role in

developing sustainable community sports clubs. In order for volunteers to add value and to be productive within the club setting, Leinster Rugby Club (n.d.) recommends that the club management have a mandatory duty to:

- assess the need for volunteers in the club for positions and events;
- get to know all club volunteers as well as potential volunteers;
- ensure that the roles and responsibilities of all volunteers are clearly outlined;
- coordinate the implementation of the volunteer recruitment, training and support plans;
- work to organise volunteer rosters where required;
- recognise and nominate volunteers who have done exceptionally well;
- identify and organise training opportunities for volunteers; and
- work with the club committee to organise social events for volunteers.

In addition, Leinster Rugby Club (n.d.) emphasises that, once the roles and responsibilities of volunteers have been outlined clearly by the club management, the next step is recruitment. This is a crucial phase as it has the potential to provide the club management with a broader understanding regarding where and how to find potential and competent volunteers who are willing to endorse the club's objectives. In the process of recruiting competent volunteers, club management should provide answers to the following basic questions:

- What skills do volunteers need to possess?
- Why does the club want to recruit volunteers?
- How many volunteers are needed?
- For how long are the volunteers required?
- What plan does the club have to recruit volunteers?
- Where can the club find competent volunteers?

In contrast, prior to recruitment, club management needs to ensure that the recruitment policy, grievance procedure and club information are in place (Leinster Rugby Club, n.d.). Thereafter, once the new recruits have joined the club, the guide suggests that the club management need to ensure that they enrol for training that is relevant to their areas of expertise. This approach is worth noting as the researcher

will be encouraged to establish whether this practice was applicable to the coaches and volunteers who are part of the CDP before assuming their duties within the club.

Club funding: Funding is regarded by many scholars as an integral part of a club's future (Leinster Rugby Club, n.d.). In order for a community sports club to survive, it is crucial for the club management to identify funding opportunities that the club could pursue. Earlier in Chapters Two and Three, the literature emphasised that, for a club to be self-sustainable in the long term, it is important that cross-sector partnerships with key stakeholders are initiated. We learnt from the literature that other countries such as Canada, Germany, UK, US, Finland, are using community volunteers to develop initiatives that help clubs to raise more money. In such countries, club members pay a minimum fee as part of their membership. In relation to the study, the researcher will also investigate what activities CDP clubs could come up with in order to raise revenue because South Africa has socioeconomic challenges that are not necessarily prevalent in the countries listed above.

Coach Education: Although coaching may have a negative impact on the community sports club (as highlighted in Chapters Two and Three), scholars, such as Nesti (2002), Keim (2006), Green (2008), Merkel (2013), Maleka (2015), and Nichols and Taylor (2015) found that coaching can undoubtedly be one of the most useful practices in adding significant value towards developing a sustainable sport development programme in various communities. The scholars argue that, if coaching is used for what it is intended and in the right manner for the right course, community sports clubs are likely to achieve their set objectives. For example, the Club Development Guide developed by the British Triathlon emphasises that coaching is important because it is at the heart of the community sport. In Wales, for example, community club coaches are expected to undergo compulsory training on aspects such as: safeguarding and child protection; first aid, and disability inclusion training (British Triathlon, 2007:11). These learning opportunities are identified as priority areas because coaches are expected to possess knowledge in those areas when dealing with a diverse group daily.

Club promotion: This facet is ideal for developing club sustainability because it generally provides the executive of the community sports clubs with great ideas on

how to promote clubs to attract more participants and potentially lucrative investors. In efforts to market the club widely, the Club Development Guide developed by British Triathlon (2007:13-14) recommends that Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, newsletters, signage, company logo, flyers and leaflets, club kit and merchandise are ideal tools that could be beneficial in assisting the club to achieve its objectives.

On the other hand, Leinster Rugby Club (n.d.) reports that the club development toolkit comprises of five phases, namely: i) good governance, club development plan, funding model; funding strategy; and building a case for support.

Phase 1: Good governance

As far as good governance in a club setting is concerned, Leinster Rugby Club (n.d.) recommends that the following elements are present: club constitution, committee, bank details, accounts, policies, and meeting minutes.

- Club constitution: Important aspects to emerge from the constitution are the name of the club, objectives, a clear map out of how the relationship with key members will be regulated, as well as clearly identifying the roles, rights and responsibilities of the members.
- Committee: The roles and responsibilities of those in office must be defined. This is crucial because it helps everyone from the office to understand what is expected of them while serving in the higher structure within the club.
- Bank details: The club must open a bank account that has the same name as the club. In order to ensure that the financials of the club are safe and in good hands, it is advisable to have two or more unrelated people who would scrutinise any movement of the club's finances.
- Accounts: In ensuring that club's finances are healthy, it is crucial that club finances are audited by an independent financial institution. This exercise is deemed to be necessary because it promotes trust, transparency and accountability among those who are responsible for the finances of the club.
- Policies: In order to avoid possible litigation, club management should ensure that a policy exists on Health, Safety and Welfare because community sports clubs provide services to diverse groups of people.

- Meeting minutes: This facet promotes the culture of record keeping. Club management need to ensure that all minutes of committee meetings are documented and stored in a safe place.

Burger and Goslin (2005:2) echo the recommendation that the principles of good practice should be considered in any sport organisation because the facets have multiple benefits, such as ensuring that there is accountability for any action, responsibility, and transparency to the broader social stakeholders, creating a balance of power within the organisation and establishing mechanisms to identify and manage the risks associated with the organisational programmes. Coupled with these facets, Burger and Goslin (2005:4-6), also recommend that, in order for any sport organisation to achieve its objectives successfully, it should:

- have a governing body with clear roles and responsibilities;
- establish a structure that displays a clear separation of certain functions, such as the roles of the office bearers and accountability to the stakeholders;
- ensure that it has capacity to serve and take into account the interests of its members;
- ensure that the recruitment, selection and appointment process for the new members occur in a free, fair and standardised manner;
- ensure that there is transparency and frequent communication with all key stakeholders;
- involve key stakeholders in decision-making and also ensure that the decisions taken by the club executive are easily accessible;
- always guard against any situation where conflict of interest may arise and potentially hamper the reputation of the sport organisation; and
- recognise other interested parties from the community and work with them in an amicable manner.

Phase 2: Club Development Plan

According to the report conducted by Leinster Rugby Club (n.d.), each club ought to have a document clearly stipulating where the organisation is heading. This document is crucial because it provides guidelines in identifying key organisational goals, outlining strategies that are considered to be useful to achieving organisational goals

(vision and mission), and providing clear direction pertaining to how funding will be secured and allocated within the club. Furthermore, this document should outline the state of the club concerning its operation, where it wants to go, and how it plans to get there. During this step, the short-, medium- and long-term plans must be aligned with what the club seeks to achieve.

Phase 3: Funding model

As stated earlier, funding is one of the most critical facets that management needs to be mindful of when planning for the sustainability of community clubs. In order for the club to be self-sustainable, Leinster Rugby Club (n.d.) recommends that club management needs to examine how the club generates income. These questions are deemed to be important because clubs are likely to be in a better state to make informed decisions on how much money may be required to roll out various programmes or projects. This step is crucial as it allows clubs to assess the state of their finances and also to make early detection of whether organisational goals can possibly be achieved within a set time-frame.

Phase 4: Funding strategies

During this step, club managements need to develop appropriate funding techniques to raise funds. Club management must ensure that different fundraising activities are adopted within the club. Once funding has been raised, club management needs to prioritise developing unique strategies that will help to disseminate resources within the club in a fair and orderly manner.

Phase 5: Build the case for support

This step emphasises the significance of developing a good relationship with community members. Club management needs to bear in mind that community members have the power to make the club succeed or fail in reaching its objectives. To avoid disappointment, it is crucial for the club management to ensure that community members are consulted from the onset and kept up to date with any developments within the club.

Subsequent to the principles associated with good practices for developing and sustaining a community sports club, the University of Rochester (in New York) also developed a Club Sport Manual, which states that clubs should:

- focus on increasing and retaining the club's membership status;
- establish a code of conduct;
- provide inclusive programmes at all times;
- develop a risk-management plan;
- develop health and safety guidelines;
- have a first aid kit at each practice session, game or special event;
- do medical examinations prior to participants participating in any of the club's activities to understand any physical problem that may hamper their participation;
- discuss and develop recruitment plans concerning the processes to be considered in hiring and training coaches and volunteers;
- develop strategies regarding the usage, storage and maintenance of the club's equipment;
- focus on how the club will be funded in the long run; and
- develop a schedule for the usage of the club's facilities.

(University of Rochester Student's Association Government, 2018:5-14).

Following the club development tools recommended by the student governing body at the University of Rochester, Utah State University also deemed the following guidelines important for a club to be sustainable:

- club goals (mission and vision statement);
- retaining and increasing club membership;
- consultation with key club stakeholders;
- office bearers and/or club council;
- code of conduct;
- constitution;
- risk-management plan;
- recruitment processes for coaches and volunteers;
- health and safety policy;
- marketing of the club;

- fundraising strategies; and
- facilities and equipment management plan.

(Utah State University, 2015/16:2-22).

In the absence of a specific model that could be used for the purpose of developing the CDP in the South African setting, Wefering, Rupprecht, Bührmann and Böhler-Baedeker (2013:15) indicate that the following steps could be endorsed by the practitioners when wishing to develop and implement a sustainable community development programme effectively:

- Step 1: Determine your potential for success
- Step 2: Define the development process and scope of plan
- Step 3: Analyse the situation and develop scenarios
- Step 4: Develop a common vision
- Step 5: Set priorities and measurable targets
- Step 6: Develop effective packages of measure
- Step 7: Agree on clear responsibilities and allocate budgets
- Step 8: Build monitoring and assessment into the plan
- Step 9: Adopt a sustainable plan
- Step 10: Ensure proper management and communication
- Step 11: Learn the lessons

These steps were deemed to be relevant in the South African context as the current implementation is believed to feature some of the elements. These features have great relevance with the CDP in South Africa.

Among many institutions, institutions like British Triathlon (2007), Leinster Rugby Club (n.d.), the Utah State University (2015) and the Rochester Student's Association Government (2018) view the aforesaid facets as key guidelines associated with good practices for developing and sustaining a community sports club. With this in mind, the researcher intends to use the aforesaid practices as a foundation to examine whether all the CDP-targeted clubs for this study in South Africa recognise and apply a similar approach as the countries identified in Chapter Two and Three of this study. Although one might argue that it may be imprudent to compare community sports clubs within

so called first world countries with those in third-world countries (in this case, South Africa), the researcher believes that the two can be compared directly on the basis that they both have some commonalities, which are:

- promoting mass participation;
- discovering and ultimately feeding talent to the national or federal government (high performance);
- promoting social cohesion;
- capacitating communities through education and training programmes;
- building social capital within communities; and
- assisting community clubs to be self-sustainable in the long run.

Therefore, this approach is believed to be coherent because it is likely to provide the researcher with a broader sense to understand the rationale behind the struggle of the CDP in South Africa to reach its set objectives since its inception. Given the notion that CDP in South Africa is primarily designed and implemented by DSAC, through this study, it will be interesting to probe how much authority community clubs have to implement the programme that was designed by the National Government and to assess to what extent community clubs make independent decisions.

4.10 Summary

This chapter has provided the broader context in which CDP is rolled out in respective communities in South Africa. In efforts to understand the operation of CDP within the South African context, two key areas were closely examined, namely programme design and implementation. This chapter also demonstrated a significant shift in how the concept of a community sports club changed from what it was initially designed for to what it is envisaged to be today. In South Africa, many community sports clubs rely excessively on all three spheres of government for subsidy. However, literature reveals that this approach is not ideal because, in the event where government may not be able to subsidise community sports clubs, this could leave most sports clubs in a dire situation. Literature further proposes that it is not ideal for a sports club to provide programmes and activities while there are insufficient facilities to stage the respective sporting codes, since such practice might contribute to the severity of the problems with which the club is faced.

Based on the premise that CDP, in particular, is an emerging concept in South Africa, it is of paramount importance to acknowledge that insufficient literature exists regarding the development of specific theoretical perspectives on club development in peer-reviewed articles. As a result, the researcher consulted the government reports, policy documents, publication and handbooks in order to understand the nature and operation of CDP within the South African environment. Given the challenges that developing countries are faced with, clear views were submitted that, in order for community sports clubs to improve, literature suggests that it is crucial for community sports clubs to develop a sound plan and to ensure that its members are well capacitated to comply with the club's policy.

In comparing the positioning of sports clubs in developing and developed countries, literature indicates that individuals in developed countries pay their membership fees in order to be associated with a certain club, while in developing countries, in particular South Africa, the majority of individuals (irrespective of age, gender, race, culture, education, background) associated with community sports clubs seem to struggle to pay membership fees. Although paying a membership fee to a club is regarded as a threshold for one to be part of sports clubs, it is crucial to bear in mind that most developed countries have a long-standing tradition and culture of governing sports clubs, whereas community sports clubs in South Africa do not necessarily have that strong culture. Furthermore, owing to the historical background of colonisation that existed in South Africa for more than two centuries, one could argue that such an era evidently played an influential role in the development of sports clubs, not only in South Africa, but in African countries at large.

Through this Chapter, literature in many cases, the national governments in numerous international countries have established strong partnerships with key strategic allies responsible for fostering and advancing community sports clubs. However, in the South African setting, it appears that DSAC does not have a strong relationship with its key stakeholders who are believed to play an important role in developing sports clubs within communities. This notion result to weak systemic governance in sport in South Africa. Furthermore, the government and sport federations do not seem to prioritise 'grassroots' programmes as other countries in the world do in terms of constantly supporting programmes offered by the clubs. There are many key experts

within the South African sporting environment, but somehow their skills, knowledge and expertise have not yet been fully recognised and utilised by the central government for the betterment of improving sports clubs and sport in general in the country. Literature on club development reveals that funding is reported to be one of the key factors concerning the development and sustainability of community sports clubs globally.

In this Chapter, it was also learnt that, although CDP in South Africa appears to have been implemented differently from developed countries, it is imperative for DSAC to be familiar with some international practices that developed countries are using to keep their respective community sports clubs sustainable, even in the absence of sufficient support from central government.



CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology and the methods of the study. This study sought to:

1. assess theoretical principles and approaches relevant to CDP for community football clubs;
2. identify success factors in implementing the CDP in South African communities;
3. assess the framework or models that are used to measure the outputs, outcomes and impact of the implementation of the CDP;
4. provide options that will enhance the effective implementation of the programme; and
5. identify the factors that hinder the effective delivery of the implementation of the CDP in selected football communities within the Western Cape (WC) and KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) provinces.

The CDP is an initiative of the Department of Sports, Arts and Culture (DSAC), which was previously known as the Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA). The chapter proceeds to discuss the research methods used to collect data and why they were chosen, the research setting, data preparation and analysis, sampling procedures followed, and ethical considerations met in the study.

5.2 Research methods and methodology

Often, people tend to use the concepts of 'research methodology' and 'research methods' interchangeably. However, scholars such as Struwig and Stead (2001), in Ntloko (2016:158), caution that the two concepts must not be confused with each other because research methodology focuses on identifying a particular scientific method that the researcher undertook to collect and analyse key information in order to establish a solution for the problem. On the other hand, research methods are described as important tools which play an instrumental role in the process of gathering or interpreting data (Dawson, 2009:16).

To address the research questions and to achieve the research aims (as outlined in Chapter One), the study adopted a qualitative approach. This approach was chosen on the basis that the researcher wanted to attain meaningful data from the various subjects that play a pivotal role in the design and implementation of CDP in selected provinces in South Africa. Smith and Sparkes (2016:2a) assert that the qualitative method is beneficial because the approach has great potential to draw on a variety of empirical materials, including case studies, personal experience, life-story- and life-history interviews as well as helping the researcher to gain a better understanding of the subject matter at hand. Gratton and Jones (2010:28) further emphasise that the deployment of a qualitative approach needs to be considered based on the premise that the researcher interprets data in an attempt to uncover meanings, values and explanations. In support of this notion, Creswell and Creswell (2018:182) also assert that the application of qualitative methods in research provides the researcher with a broader scope to learn and understand the challenges with which participants are faced.

Gratton and Jones (2010:28) state that one of the strengths of using the qualitative approach is that the researcher gains an insider's perspective in understanding the subjects from within, while Smith (2018:10) emphasises that the strengths of the qualitative research approach are:

- the data are based on the participant's categories of meaning;
- it is useful for studying a limited number of cases in depth;
- it provides individual case information;
- the data are usually collected in naturalistic settings;
- it is responsive to local situations, conditions and stakeholders' needs;
- it provides understanding and description of people's personal experiences of phenomena;
- it can describe, in rich detail, phenomena as they are situated and embedded in local contexts; and
- it helps the researcher to explore how and why phenomena occur.

Conversely, Smith (2018:11) also cautioned that a qualitative research approach could have weaknesses because:

- it may have lower credibility with some people;
- it generally takes more time to collect the data;
- knowledge produced may not generalise to other people or other settings (findings may be unique to the relatively few people included in the research study);
- data analysis is often time consuming; and
- the results are more easily influenced by the researcher's personal biases.

Given the chosen approach, this study is interpretivist in nature because the researcher sought to understand the perspectives of the participants such as programme coordinators, government officials, community club chairperson, secretary, club players and federation liaison officials. Smith and Sparkes (2016:1a) assert that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings and attempt to make sense of the data presented to them. In light of the view that the focus was on analysing the design and implementation of the CDP within South African communities, particularly in the WC and KZN, the study assessed the good practices associated with effective implementation for community sports clubs from countries that have a similar programme as the CDP in South Africa.

There are different types of case studies in a qualitative research study. Stake (1995), and Yin (2009), in Creswell (2013:99-100), described the case study types as: (i) the single instrumental case study; (ii) the collective or multiple case study; and (iii) the intrinsic case study. Given these case study types, this study adopted the intrinsic case study approach. The rationale was that Stake (1995) indicated that the intrinsic case-study approach enables the researcher to evaluate a particular programme that seems to be experiencing difficulties in achieving its goals.

In reference to the context, the researcher regarded a case-study approach as one of the paradigms best suited to address the research questions, as outlined in Chapter One. Yin (2014:4) describes a case-study approach as a method that arises out of the desire to understand complex social phenomena. On the other hand, Smith (2018:146) describes case-study research as 'a strategic approach that involves the detailed and intensive analysis of a single case'. Additionally, the scholar emphasises that the

single or multiple cases in a research setting affords the researcher with the opportunity to gain an in-depth and enriched perspective about the individual, group, or programme. Hodge and Sharp (2016:63) also mention that a case study is an in-depth exploration, from multiple perspectives, of the complexity and uniqueness of a particular project, programme or policy. Creswell (2013:97) agrees with Yin (2013), Smith and Sparkes (2016a), and Smith (2018), that a case-study research approach is suitable for producing qualitative data because the investigator explores real-life or multiple bounded systems over time through using research instruments such as in-depth interviews, observations, interviews, documents and reports. Yin (2009), in Creswell (2013:97), asserts that 'a case study research involves the study of a case within a real-life'. Moreover, the scholar asserts that a case-study method allows the researcher to focus on a particular case so that a holistic view can be retained through studying the subjects' behaviours. Yin (2009) highlights that a case-study approach becomes relevant in research on the basis that the research questions seek to explain present circumstances; also, where the research questions require an extensive and 'in-depth' description of some social phenomenon. The case being investigated in this study is the analysis of the design and implementation of the CDP in two provinces (Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal).

Generally, various philosophical assumptions guide research studies. Creswell (2013:18) explains that it is crucial to understand the philosophical assumptions that lie behind a qualitative research approach. In his efforts to justify the significance of understanding the philosophical application in research, he elaborated that the understanding of philosophy in research shapes how the problem is formulated and the information is sought to provide critical answers to the research question. Table 5.1 depicts the types of philosophical assumptions with their characteristics that are generally considered in research.

Table 5.1: Philosophical Assumptions with implications for practice (adopted from: Creswell, 2013:21)

Assumptions	Questions	Characteristics	Implications for practice (Examples)
Ontological	What is the nature of reality	Reality is multiple as seen through many views.	The researcher reports different perspectives as themes develop in the findings.
Epistemological	What counts as knowledge? What is the relationship between the researcher and that being researched?	Subjective evidence from participants; the researcher attempts to lessen the distance between himself or herself and that being researched.	The researcher relies on quotes as evidence from the participant; collaborates, spends time in the field with participants and becomes an 'insider'.
Axiological	What is the role of values?	The researcher acknowledges that research is value laden and that biases are present.	The researcher openly discusses the values that shape the narrative and includes his or her interpretation in conjunction with the interpretation of participants.
Methodological	What is the process of research? What is the language of research?	The researcher uses inductive logic, studies the topic within its context and uses an emerging design.	The researcher works with particulars (details) before generalisations, describes in detail the context of the study and continually revises questions from experiences in the field.

With reference to the philosophical assumptions outlined in Table 5.1, this study followed the methodological philosophical approach. The decision to follow said philosophical approach originated from the view that, to address the research questions, the researcher needed to review key sources that were relevant to the research problem before making any generalisations and to revise questions

continually from experiences gathered while collecting data from the targeted participants of the study.

5.3 Research design

Gratton and Jones (2010:101) describe the research design as 'the overall blueprint that guides the researcher in the data collection stages', while Bogdan and Taylor (1975), in Creswell (2013:5), define research design as 'the entire process of research from conceptualising a problem to writing research questions, and on to data collection, analysis, interpretation, and report writing'. These definitions emphasise that, for a researcher to develop a meaningful conclusion emerging from the study, it is imperative for said researcher to be well informed about the important steps that are to be undertaken when collecting the data.

Generally, there are numerous characteristics of qualitative design. To ensure that the research questions are addressed through qualitative design methods, the researcher considers the inductive and deductive data analysis and emergent design approach. Creswell and Creswell (2018:181) describe the inductive data analysis approach as the process that enables 'working back and forth between the themes and the database until the researcher has established a comprehensive set of themes'. They continue to describe 'deductive data analysis' as the process that allows the researcher to look back at the data from the developed themes to determine whether sufficient evidence is gathered from each theme developed or whether further information ought to be gathered (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Creswell and Creswell (2018:182) caution that, owing to the nature and scope of the qualitative design approach, it is important to bear in mind that the initial plan for collecting data cannot be prescribed entirely because, in some cases, the process may change or shift after the researcher enters the field so that data may be collected. The scholars indicate that this characteristic is important for consideration because the questions may change, the forms of data collection may shift, and the sites where the study ought to take place may also be modified. Furthermore, the authors imply that such shifts may be important because the researcher seeks to delve deeper into the problem informing the study. In light of the context mentioned and amid the deadly global pandemic known as the coronavirus pandemic of 2019 (COVID-19), the

researcher experienced significant delays and challenges when collecting data for this study. The delays were driven by the stringent compliance regulations around the containment of the disease.

As a contingency, if participants were not available for a face-to-face interview, telephone and online video interviews were considered ideal tools for data collection. The instruments required to conduct this process were a quiet room, a telephone with a loudspeaker option, voice recordings or video conference platforms such as Skype, Zoom, etc.

5.4 Data collection procedure

This section gives details about the process and procedure that was followed when the data was collected. Necessary procedures were followed when conducting fieldwork for data collection. The relevant forms such as the information sheet; consent form; and focus group confidentiality from the University of the Western Cape (UWC) were created and utilised as guiding tools to ensure that all important areas concerning the fieldwork are covered by the researcher.

In ensuring that the administration of the face-to-face interviews was constructed carefully, a pilot study was undertaken by the researcher. The researcher identified four senior members (present and past) from the national and provincial government to be part of the pilot study. Said members were approached on the basis of their involvement, knowledge and capacity as senior leaders in the programme. The pilot study was considered for three reasons. First, to test the relevance of the questions, second, to be familiar with the structure of the questions and lastly, to adopt the responses to guide the methodology of the research.

Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2002:33) describe a pilot study as 'mini versions of a full-scale study as well as the specific pre-testing of a particular research instrument such as a questionnaire or interview schedule'. Although pilot study is recommended prior to collecting data, the scholars warned that pilot studies 'do not guarantee any success in the main study, but does increase the likelihood of success'. Furthermore, the scholars indicated that one of the advantages of conducting a pilot study is that it provides an advance warning to the researcher of the setting where the main research

could probably fail, where research protocols may not be followed, or even whether proposed methods or instruments are inappropriate for the research (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002:33). In the same vein, Smith (2018:121) also recommends that a pilot study must be considered especially when conducting a postal questionnaire, face-to-face interviews or focus groups. The scholar emphasised that a pilot study helps the researcher to enhance the instrument and provides the opportunity to be familiar with how questions are asked and how the notes ought to be recorded. In addition, the author highlights that a pilot study provides the researcher with the opportunity to have an idea of the right setting and time in which to ask questions of the targeted participants. This process plays an instrumental role as the responses provided guidance on the order of the questions. Therefore, the pilot study was undertaken in the Western Cape, at the offices and hotel restaurants of those targeted to participate in the pilot study.

Thereafter, to ensure that rich data is collected that addresses the research questions and aims, the national and provincial programme managers from the targeted provinces (WC and KZN) were contacted. The managers were requested for a database of the provincial administrators who are responsible for the facilitation of the CDP in their respective provinces. The administrators of the targeted provincial Departments of Sport and Recreation (WC and KZN) were contacted and access was requested to the database of all the community football clubs that were part of the CDP in their respective provinces. Thereafter, each participant from the targeted province was contacted and informed about the purpose and significance of the study. In an effort to ensure that participants are available during data collection, a schedule was established detailing the person to be contacted, dates, location, venues and times for the interviews.

Data collection was divided into three phases. The overall period for the first phase of data collection was from 19 September to 26 October 2020. The initial data collection occurred within the Cape Metro region between 19 September 2020 and 2 October 2020, while the subsequent data collection happened within the eThekweni municipality from 19 October 2020 to 25 October 2020. The second phase of data collection took place in Thabo Mofutsanyane District, Free State from 8 to 10 November 2020. Free State province was not the initial target for the study. However,

during the interview, some of the government officials interviewed claimed that the CDP is being implemented far better in the Free State than in most of the other provinces in South Africa. It was against this background that the researcher decided to visit the Free State province to validate the claims. Lastly, the final phase for data collection was a follow-up with the identified community sports clubs that were initially targeted to take part in the study. The follow-up period took place in the WC from 22 to 23 September 2021, while in KZN, it was from 12 to 17 October 2021. The follow-up interviews were scheduled with community club officials as the data collected during the first phase was not rich and meaningful to answer the research questions for the study.

To collect qualitative data, an exploratory research approach was considered an ideal research type for the study. This was in line with Babbie and Mouton's view, who maintain (2006) that the 'exploratory studies', usually lead to insight and comprehension and involve the use of in-depth interviews, the analysis of case studies and the use of informants, rather than the collection of detailed, accurate and replicable data.

5.5 Research instruments

In-depth, semi-structured interviews were deemed crucial for collecting primary data. Subsequent to determining the preferred type of interview, a key informant schedule was followed to establish a set structure regarding the dates, times and venues for the interviews. Gratton and Jones (2010:156) describe the semi-structured interview as an approach in a qualitative study that uses a standard set of questions or schedules. The scholars add that this approach allows the researcher to be flexible during the interview process in that the sequence of questions can be changed or the researcher can probe for more information with subsidiary questions. Knott (2014:134) states that this approach allows the researcher to keep focused on a wide range of topics and also enables the researcher to probe or clarify any issues that may be raised during the interview. An interview guide was developed with the intention to help the researcher to know the type of questions that ought to be asked, in what sequence, how to ask key questions as well when and how to pose follow-ups. The interview guide was designed in relation to the key themes emerging from the literature throughout this study.

The techniques chosen for the purpose of collective qualitative data were face-to-face interviews with individuals and documents analysis. Smith (2018:119) suggests that the advantage of conducting face-to-face interviews was that the technique provides the researcher with the opportunity to build rapport with key informants, allows for elaboration if the responses are not clear and helps the researcher to be flexible when asking questions. Adding to the view, Brinkmann (2013:1) emphasises that, in a qualitative study, an interview is generally an instrumental tool since people talk with others to obtain knowledge from them and to learn more about individuals' experiences, feelings and life perspectives.

The semi-structured interviews consisted of open-ended questions. Creswell and Creswell (2018:187) emphasise that qualitative interviews generally contain open-ended questions that are few in number because the questions are designed in such a way to elicit the views and opinions of the participants. Open-ended questions were considered because of their nature to allow the targeted respondents to answer the questions in any manner they wish.

Gratton and Jones (2010:157) affirm that one of the advantages for using semi-structured interviews was that the approach allows for the emergence of important themes that may not emerge from a more structured format. Therefore, the approach enables the study participants to disclose insights into their attitudes and behaviour that may not be obvious to the researcher. In contrast, the scholars cautioned that it is important to bear in mind that the application of said approach could lead to the researcher becoming unconsciously biased during the interview process. For example, one of the common ways to become unconsciously biased could be through the result of the researcher's verbal and non-verbal reactions during the interview. The scholars went further to caution that another potential danger in the adoption of said approach is that the interviewee may become dominant and could end up driving the interview in an undesirable direction.

Therefore, data were collected through two sources, namely primary and secondary. The instrument that was an ideal source and employed for collecting primary data was face-to-face interviews with individuals, while the document analysis instrument was considered for the purpose of collecting secondary data.

5.5.1 Primary data

There are different types of interviews that are useful in qualitative inquiry research. For the purpose of this study, in-depth, semi-structured interviews were designed for the administrators consisting of programme coordinators and managers from the national and provincial government, community clubs (such as chairperson, secretaries and players) as well as liaison officials from the football federation in the WC and KZN. The rationale behind targeting participants from the two spheres of South African government (national and provincial) was because the CDP was initially designed by the National Government (DSAC) but the implementation is facilitated by the provincial governments in each province. The local government is not involved directly with the design and implementation of the programme.

In-depth, semi-structured interviews with individuals were targeted on the basis of Creswell and Creswell (2018:188) who advocate that the approach provides the researcher with the information, which the participants have given attention to prior to the interview. Smith and Sparkes (2016:104b) also assert that semi-structured interviews are useful methods for considering a qualitative research study because the approach provides the researcher with the opportunity to use a pre-planned interview guide with the aim of asking a participant relatively focused but open-ended questions about a specific subject matter that is being investigated. In respect to the disadvantages of adopting the approach as one of the ideal instruments for collecting data, Creswell and Creswell (2018) emphasise that the approach may be complicated because the participants may not easily provide the researcher with the information, especially in the absence of an established trust relationship between two parties. The scholars further justified that the information may be protected and unavailable to the public and also that materials may be incomplete (Creswell & Creswell, 2018:188). Overall, the shortest interview with the participants took about 30 minutes with federation liaison officials, while the longest lasted almost three hours with government officials.

5.5.2 Secondary data

Secondary data were collected through the analysis of the documents listed below. To comprehend the nature and scope of the study (in this case the analysis of the design and implementation of CDP in selected provinces), the researcher considered

document analysis as one of the key instruments in qualitative inquiry research. For the purpose of collecting secondary data, the documents that were relevant and useful for consideration were the CDP blueprint, minutes and reports, the National Sports and Recreation Plan (NSRP) as well as the White Paper on Sports and Recreation.

5.5.3 Triangulation

Triangulation was considered to produce data that are meaningful to address the research questions and study objectives. Scholars such as Smith (2018:181), and Gratton and Jones (2010:119), describe triangulation as a process where the researcher uses various research strategies to collect data for the purpose of measuring the same phenomenon in order to increase confidence in the conclusions. Similar to Smith (2018), and Gratton and Jones (2010), Creswell (2013:251) also describes triangulation as a process where the researcher uses multiple sources, investigators and concepts to substantiate evidence. Therefore, to enhance the credibility of this study, the findings were mainly drawn from the data that emerged through the interview and document analysis methods.

5.6 Research setting

The study involved two provinces with Metropolitan areas namely; Western Cape (WC) and KwaZulu-Natal (KZN). In each of the Metropolitan areas, there are numerous community sports clubs. The study was conducted in a public area. In an attempt to confirm the setting for the interviews, the researcher encouraged the participants to identify the date, time and place for the meeting. This approach was taken with the intention to assure all the participants that the environment was safe and convenient for everyone. The Western Cape comprises six districts and 24 local municipalities, and the KZN province has 11 districts and 50 local municipalities. The study was intended to take place within the Cape Metropolitan and eThekweni Metropolitan municipalities since both Metropolitan municipalities have big populations and the largest number of community sports clubs that are affiliated to the CDP.

5.7 Study population and sampling procedure

Only participants who were affiliated with football under the CDP from said provinces were considered for the study. Both provinces were targeted for the study based on the premise that, at the 2017 SASReCon, the delegates asserted that there seem to

be good practices in relation to governance, administration and implementation of the programme compared to others provinces in South Africa. The study population and sampling was centred around three types of sample groups, namely the programme coordinators (from two spheres of the South African government), community club officials (including club chairpersons and players), liaison officials from the football association. In each of the identified community football clubs in both provinces (WC and KZN), the chairperson and players were targeted to participate in the study. However, in the absence of the chairperson, the secretary was targeted to represent the club. This was because the secretary usually works in harmony with the chairperson and is most likely to be familiar with the operations of the club. The participants for this study were purposefully selected because the researcher believed that they were in a better position to help gain a broader understanding of the factors affecting the effective implementation of the CDP in South Africa and also to address the research question of the study.

Etikan, Musa and Alkassim (2016:2) defined the purposive sampling technique as 'the deliberate choice of a participant due to the qualities the participant possesses'. Etikan et al., (2016) also state that purposive sampling is critical for the researcher to decide what needs to be known and, thereafter, to set out to find people who can and are willing to provide the information by virtue of knowledge or experience. In support of the this view, the participants were useful for convenience sampling purposes because the researcher viewed them as subject matter experts for the programme's implementation.

The purposive sampling method was, therefore, considered to be applicable in the research study aiming for qualitative data as it notes that the participants were selected according to their experience, knowledge and exposure to the programme. In addition, a random sampling method was also considered. Kothari (2004:15) mentions that random sampling is where each and every item (referred to as a community sports club) in the population has an equal chance of inclusion in the sample and each one of the possible samples, in case of a finite universe, has the same probability of being selected. Maleka (2015:71) also emphasises that convenience sampling is relevant when all the selected experts involved in the chosen field are available to participate in the research study. This research method was

considered to promote justice in helping the researcher to select a small number of community sports clubs fairly without any prejudice.

In each of the targeted provinces, a minimum of three CDP coordinators were targeted for the study, who are currently involved and have previously been responsible for the design and implementation of the CDP. In addition, two provincial senior managers, and two coordinators from the National Government involved with the CDP were targeted, one liaison official from the football federation in each province was identified, ten community club chairpersons from each of the targeted provinces, and a total of ten players from the clubs that are associated with the CDP were targeted for this study. Table 5.2 shows the profile of the participants who were targeted as key informants for the study in each province.

Table 5.2: The key informants profile per province

Community club officials	
Western Cape, Cape Metro	KwaZulu-Natal, eThekwini
Function: Chairperson or Secretary	Function: Chairperson or Secretary
Quantity per club #: 1	Quantity per club #: 1
Targeted clubs #: 10	Targeted clubs #: 10
Community club players	
Western Cape, Cape Metro	KwaZulu-Natal, eThekwini
Function: Player	Function: Player
Quantity per club #: 1	Quantity per club #: 1
Targeted clubs #: 5	Targeted clubs #: 5
National Government (DSAC)	
Title: National Coordinator for the CDP	Quantity # 2
Provincial Government (DCAS and DSR)	
Western Cape	KwaZulu-Natal
Title: Programme/Regional Coordinator	Title: Programme/Regional Coordinator
Quantity #: 3	Quantity #: 3
Provincial Government (DCAS and DSR)	

Western Cape	KwaZulu-Natal
Title: Senior Coordinator	Title: Senior Coordinator
Quantity #: 1	Quantity #: 1
Federation Liaison Officials	
Western Cape, Cape Metro	KwaZulu-Natal, eThekwini
Quantity #: 1	Quantity #: 1
Total number (#) of targeted participants for the study: 42	

Overall, 42 participants were identified as the population for the study. However, of the initial number of participants, only 31 made themselves available with a response rate of 74%. The researcher deems this response rate sufficient to produce data important in addressing the research questions.

As far as club representation is concerned, in each of the targeted provinces, five community football clubs that have been with the CDP for more than three years (including those clubs that were already out of the CDP cycle period), three community football clubs that have been with the CDP for a period of two to three years and two community football clubs that have been part of the programme for at least a period of one year, were targeted for the study. Table 5.3 represents the number of community football clubs that were initially targeted to take part in the study as well as the years associated with CDP in each province.

Table 5.3: Targeted number of community football clubs in each province

Western Cape, Cape Metro		KwaZulu-Natal, eThekwini	
Targeted number of community football clubs	Years associated with CDP	Targeted number of community football clubs	Years associated with CDP
# 5	More than 3 years	# 5	More than 3 years
# 3	2-3 years	# 3	2–3 years
# 2	Less than 1 year	# 2	Less than 1 year
Overall clubs targeted for the study: 20			

In total, 20 community football clubs were targeted for the study. All of the outlined numbers of community clubs, as illustrated in Table 5.3 were targeted on the basis of

receiving any form of support from the DSAC through the CDP since its inception in 2006. Overall, the identified informants in Table 5.2 were believed to have more experience, could contribute significant value to the research and could further provide the researcher with detailed information regarding the current failures and successes of the programme in respect to their communities.

Although the data collected from fieldwork was satisfactory and sufficient to address the research questions, the researcher discovered that club players were not interviewed. The rationale for not identifying them initially as study subjects was purely on the basis that they are not the ones dealing directly with the government officials; rather the club chairpersons are. However, with the view that club members or players in particular are regarded as key stakeholders of the programme, the gap afforded the researcher the opportunity to develop an interview schedule with players from the targeted clubs. In an effort to ensure that the data speak to addressing the research questions, similar questions to the ones asked to the club chairpersons were posed. Club players were not asked administrative questions but mostly questions related to the operational matters within the club. This distinction was considered carefully on the premise that club players may not be involved in making leadership decisions at a managerial level. Of 10 players identified to participate in the study, only six players representing different football clubs were interviewed face to face. The researcher could not pursue the interviews further on the grounds that saturation was reached from said number. The targeted participants were found to have repeated information that had already been gathered through face-to-face interview proceedings. Therefore, the researcher deemed the set number sufficient for the purpose of a qualitative study.

With reference to the review of literature in qualitative studies, there is limited information that determines the sample size that is ideal for the purpose of collecting qualitative data. In support of this view, more than two decades ago, Sandelowski (1995:183) argued that, although numbers are crucial in data collection, the aim of collecting qualitative data through interviews is to ensure that the 'sample size is small enough to manage the material and large enough to provide a new and richly textured understanding of experiences'. Similarly, Sim, Saunders, Waterfield and Kingstone (2018:2) argue that a scholarly debate concerning the identification of the ideal sample

size when employing a qualitative approach remains a global question. Sim et al., (2018:3) also state that determining a sample size has been a classical challenge owing to the view that sample size is often adaptive and emergent, especially if based on a grounded theory approach. The authors' belief indicates that a grounded theory adopts the principle of saturation. Instead, one of the authors about qualitative interviews asserted that, when employing a qualitative research, a researcher 'cannot get close to the lives of fifty or one hundred people' (Brinkmann, 2013:59). The author pointed out that the aim of following a qualitative method through interviews, is not for statistical purposes but instead to get an opportunity as a researcher to look at things from a different lens and in detail at how the targeted participants view things.

5.8 Data preparation and analysis procedure

Whereas previously, many researchers used to analyse their data manually, today, many researchers have opted to use various computerised software programs to analyse their data. Smith (2016:171) notes that computer software packages that exist to help the researcher to handle a large cohort of data are NUD*IST and NVivo, while Creswell and Plano Clark (2018:213) advocate for MAXQDA, Atlas.ti, NVivo, HyperRESEARCH and QDA Miner as software programs that best analyse qualitative data, stating that these software packages have multiple benefits. The benefits of using these software packages are their ability to: i) store text documents and visual data for analysis; ii) enable the researcher to block and label text segments with codes so that data can be retrieved easily; iii) organise codes into a visual; making it possible to diagram and see the relationship between the data; and iv) search for segments of text that contain multiple codes (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018:214).

Therefore, for the purpose of analysing qualitative data, the researcher opted for version 9 of the computer data analysis program known as ATLAS.ti as an ideal application to present the findings of this study. Scholars such as Sotiriadou, Brouwers and Le (2014:10) performed a search in three leading mainstream journals (Sport Management Quarterly, Sport Management Review and the Journal of Sport Management) to determine the software tool that is most endorsed by researchers employing a qualitative study within the sport management discipline. Their findings revealed that, out of eight of software packages identified (NVivo, Atlas.ti, NUD*IST, HyperResearch, Alceste, Ucinet, MAXqda and Leximancer), Atlas.ti was found to be

the second-most popular and used software tool across all three sport management journals, after NVivo. A few decades ago, Smit (2002:65) indicated that Atlas.ti is a powerful workbench for qualitative data analysis, particularly when dealing with a large cohort and sections of text, visual and audio data. The scholar further emphasised that Atlas.ti offers instrumental support to the researcher during the data analysis proceedings where texts are analysed and interpreted using coding and annotating activities. Therefore, the decision to employ Atlas.ti to facilitate the coding of the data for this study, was endorsed on the basis that the researcher has received training on it by a certified provider. Creswell and Creswell (2018:192) also indicate that this computer software program was commonly popular in qualitative studies because the tool helps the researcher to organise, sort and search for information in text or image. Furthermore, Creswell and Creswell (2018:192-193) point out that, although the researcher has to go through each line of text to assign codes, one of the advantages of using this computer software is that the process of analysing data is faster and more efficient than hand coding. This software can help the researcher to locate quickly whether all passages are coded in the same manner and to determine whether the participants responded to the same code in the same way or differently (Creswell & Creswell, 2018:193). To ensure that the shared information is credible and correct, the researcher took his own notes in addition to the voice-recording system. Prior to the interview proceeding, an audio recording device was made available. The purpose of the device was to record and store all the information shared by the informants. The recording device had a play-back feature which enabled the researcher to play back the recordings gathered from the fieldwork at any time and it can help in circumstances when the researcher was unable to capture all the shared information.

Various steps that were considered and followed when preparing to analyse data that emerged from the fieldwork are discussed here. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011:204), the steps are:

- Step One: Preparing the data for analysis
- Step Two: Exploring the data
- Step Three: Analysing the data
- Step Four: Representing the analysis
- Step Five: Interpreting the analysis

- Step Six: Validating the data and interpretations

Similar to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), Creswell and Creswell (2018:193) also identified steps that are crucial for preparing analysing qualitative data as follows:

Step One: Organise and prepare the data analysis

In this step, the researcher transcribes all the data collected from the interviews using the semi-structured interview technique and document analysis technique. This is the step where all the data from the fieldwork is typed out manually on the system. The researcher arranges the data into different types according to the codes and themes developed.

Step Two: Read or look at all the data

During this step, the researcher is familiar with the data. The purpose of this step is to remind the researcher to make sense of all the data collected. Creswell and Creswell (2018:193) affirm that, in order to understand the meaning of the data collected, it is crucial for the researcher to reflect on the type of said data.

Step Three: Start coding all of the data

Coding is described as 'the process of organising the data by bracketing chunks and writing a word representing a category in the margins' (Creswell & Creswell, 2018:193). In this step, the researcher categorises the data that was collected from the fieldwork accordingly. Thereafter, the researcher labels the responses in an orderly manner.

Step Four: Generation of description and themes

This step guides the researcher to use the coding process in order to generate a description of the setting or themes for analysis. Creswell and Creswell (2018:194) indicate that the significance of generating a description and themes in this step, is because 'themes appear as major findings in qualitative studies and are often used as headings in the findings section of the research'. Additionally, the scholars emphasise that the development of themes is crucial because they have the advantage of displaying multiple perspectives of the participants and can be supported by diverse quotations.

Step Five: Representing the description and themes

This step symbolises the description and themes generated in Step 4 that are represented to produce a qualitative narrative. Therefore, to produce a qualitative narrative, Creswell and Creswell (2018:195) suggest that the ideal approach is to use a narrative passage to present the key findings of the analysis. For example, the researcher establishes a detailed discussion that emerges from several themes or a discussion with interconnecting themes.

5.9 Ethical considerations

Permission to undertake this research was approved by the Higher Degrees Committee of the University of the Western Cape. In light of the view that the programme is linked with the government, permission was also granted by the government of KwaZulu-Natal to interview those who are involved with the programme. In respect to the Western Cape and the National Government, permission was secured through a telephone call with the senior leadership of the programme.

All respondents were informed sufficiently that their participation in the study was voluntary and that they were more than welcome to withdraw from participation at any time should they wish to do so. Prior to the commencement of the interview, participants were informed about the nature of research and were requested to give their consent to participate in the study. They were assured that the information that they provided was confidential and informed that their anonymity was guaranteed. However, in cases where participants might be exposed to traumatic experiences, counselling services were to be provided.

To ensure that maximum response was attained from the fieldwork, participants were communicated with in languages that they felt comfortable using. The information sheet with details of the study will be translated into English. In light of the view that the targeted participants represent different tribes and to ensure that the results of the qualitative in-depth study yield the outcome it desires, multilingual translators were identified. The translators were always available on site throughout the study to accommodate participants who might wish to express themselves in a language they are comfortable with or who might need further clarity on issues raised.

The following chapter presents the findings and discussions that emerged from the interviews with participants who were deemed to be experts in implementing the CDP at various levels in their respective communities.

5.10 Summary

The research methodology discussed in this chapter facilitated the entire process of data collection. To address the research questions and to achieve the research aims (as outlined in Chapter One), this study adopted a qualitative approach. The aforesaid approach was desired on the basis that rich and meaningful data from the various subjects that play a pivotal role in the design and implementation of CDP in selected provinces in South Africa needed to be attained. Given the chosen approach, the study was deemed to be interpretivist in nature as the researcher sought to understand the perspectives of the participants.

The following chapter focuses on the presentation of the fieldwork results and research findings emerged from the study.



CHAPTER SIX: FIELDWORK RESULTS AND RESEARCH FINDINGS ON DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF CLUB DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

6.1 Introduction

The primary aim of this study was to assess the design and implementation of the CDP, while the secondary aim was to understand the factors that hinder the effective design and implementation of the programme in selected football communities in South Africa. This chapter focuses thematically on presenting the fieldwork results and subsequently, developing the research findings in relation to the effective design and implementation of the CDP in selected football communities in South Africa.

The data presented in this chapter emerged from themes referring to the semi-structured interviews (face-to-face and telephone) concerning the dominant approaches and practices informing the design and implementation of the CDP, the success factors in implementing the CDP in South African communities, frameworks that are used to assess the impact of the CDP implementation, strategies to improve the implementation of the CDP and factors hindering the success of the CDP in South Africa. In an effort to ascertain meaningful data, various key role players were explored who were involved in the design and implementation of the CDP. The key respondents were: programme coordinators (comprising government officials) federation liaison officials, community club officials, and community club players.

The purpose of the fieldwork results and research findings is to address the research questions that are important for the study as outlined in Chapter One. In light of the given context, it is imperative to note that the presentation of the responses reveals differing views of the respondents about how the CDP is designed and implemented within selected football communities. In an effort to ensure that the respondents' identity and profile are kept anonymous, the respondents are deliberately recognised as Respondents 1–10 (Community club officials), Respondents 15–18 (Programme coordinators/SPOs), Respondents 19–22 (Senior government officials), Respondents 23–25 (Federation liaison officials) and 26–31 (Players from the targeted community football clubs).

6.2 Presentation of fieldwork results and research findings

6.2.1 Theme one: The dominant approaches and practices informing the design and implementation of the CDP in South Africa

For this theme, only the programme coordinators comprising of eight were targeted to respond. This theme was established in an effort to understand whether the programme coordinators are familiar with the approaches and practices informing the design and implementation of the CDP, as initiated by DSAC. In response, it was found that 88% of the respondents involved in the programme mentioned that DSAC expects them to implement the programme but they were not sure how it was designed initially. Another programme coordinator (Respondent 17) confirmed that he is not certain about what the dominant approaches and practices constitute for designing an effective community sport programme because the respondent believed that each province has its own approach and understanding of how the programme ought to be implemented in communities.

Although the respondents reported not to have played any role in the design of the programme, it was found that the respondents respectively believed that the dominant approaches and practices informing the design of any community sport programme was to ensure that the programme contains a lot of fun and enjoyable activities. In support of this view, another senior government official (Respondent 22) believed that, if the programme had the spirit of fun, then the programme was going to attract a large cohort of participants, while Respondent 15 expressed his frustration that the programme does not seem to be innovative as he felt that they had been doing the same thing for the past decade.

The research findings suggest that the coordinators seem to have less knowledge about the approaches and practices informing the design and implementation of the programme. Given the view that the CDP blueprint does not provide clear guidelines on the approaches and practices informing the design and implementation of the programme, one might argue that the coordinators are most likely to implement the programme according to their own understanding. This proclamation is supported by the finding that the respondents confirmed that they are not certain about what the dominant approaches and practices are informing the design of an effective community sport programme; hence, each province implements the programme in the

way they see fit. Furthermore, one might argue that the finding implies that the CDP blueprint appears to lack the basis and uniformity which proposes how the programme ought to be implemented within South African communities.

With reference to the finding that the programme coordinators seem to have less knowledge concerning the dominant approaches and practices allied with effective implementation, literature such as British Triathlon (2007); Maleka (2015); Burger and Goslin (2005), and Utah State University (2015) (see section 4.9 in Chapter Four) advocates that, for a club development programme to be implemented effectively and be sustainable, the primary focus should be on good governance, structure, frequent communication, leadership, transparency, education and training (club administration and management), the recruitment policy (processes to identify, select and recruit competent staff) and the club funding model.

6.2.2 Theme two: Success factors important for the implementation of the CDP in South African communities

For this theme, all the participants were targeted. The responses of the respondents are presented in Table 6.1.



Table 6.1: Success factors important for the implementation of the CDP in South African communities

Respondents (n = 31)		
Fieldwork results	Respondents	Percentage (%)
The availability and deployment of resources (finance, human, information and physical)	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28 and 29	90
Capacity building (education and training)	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 10, 11, 12, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24 and 25	65
Partnership collaboration	15, 17, 18, 19, 20 and 23	19
The invitation of community clubs to planning sessions	5, 11 and 12	10
Expert involvement/ mentorship programme	6 and 4	6
Hosting the championship event	3 and 25	6

6.2.2.1 The availability and deployment of resources

The majority (90%) of the respondents stated that the availability and strategic deployment of the CDP resources are believed to be the key factors important for the effective implementation of the CDP in South Africa. In the discipline of management, Smith and Cronje (2002:5) define resources as the essential assets within an organization that play a crucial role in helping the organization achieve its objectives with maximum efficiency. The definition connotes that for the organisation to achieve its goals, it is largely dependent on the availability and strategic deployment of its resources. In support of the motion, Respondent 15 advocated:

Clubs that are travelling far should get more budget because they have to travel longer distances. Sometimes they have to travel three hours to go play a game and because of the long distance travel, taxi drivers charge R1000 to travel for three hours. So, the uniform thing should stop.

Therefore, the research findings of the study assert that programme coordinators need to ensure that at least key resources are available and dispersed strategically should they wish to see the programme implemented successfully. Furthermore, the findings reveal that the respondents believed unanimously that in order for the programme to

be sustainable and implemented successfully, those who are responsible need to make a commitment to invest basic resources into the programme. The basic resources that were found dominant as success factors important for implementation were finances, human capital, information and physical resources. Annually, DSAC allocates funding through the Division of Revenue Act (DoRA) grant to various provincial departments of sports across the country. This funding is apportioned to provinces to advance the agenda of the CDP.

Based on the premise that 90% of the targeted participants expressed that the need for and access to funding is one of the factors that is crucial toward the successful implementation of the programme, the research findings show that the funding that is allocated by DSAC appears not to be sufficient for provinces to achieve their objectives through the CDP. Hums and MacLean (2013:50) assert that for any organisation to be fully functional and achieve their set objectives, it is important that effective and vibrant financial policies are developed. In respect of the view that sport in South Africa operates in an unstable political environment and that it is the least-funded sector, one might argue that this could be one of the reasons that the key informants reported funding as an essential factor. Although funding for sport development, particularly for the CDP in South Africa is reduced each year, one needs to laud and acknowledge the efforts of DSAC to ensure that the provincial departments of sport have a budget to cover at least the basics at an operational level. In light of the background that DSAC reduces the sport budget yearly, the research findings of the study reveal that more than 60% of the respondents have proposed that the government needs to seek additional funding from potential sponsors. Almost half of the community club officials and one programme coordinator from government believe that any additional funding secured by the government could play a fundamental role in contributing to the programme and club success.

In light of the assertion that more funding was required for the purposes of travelling, capacity building, purchasing of equipment, clothing as well as the smooth running of the club administration, the participants were further asked to explain what initiatives they put in place in their efforts to assist the programme and community clubs to become viable financially and self-sustainable. The findings indicate that, apart from infrequent capacity-building courses, the government seems to lack significant

initiatives aimed at aiding the CDP and community clubs in obtaining additional funding. Parallel to the responses of the coordinators, more than 70% of the community clubs also indicated that they do not have any initiative programmes that exist to assist their respective clubs to secure more funding, hence the continuation to rely on the government to provide funding.

Conversely, 29% of the respondents at a community level responded that their clubs have taken the initiative of hosting various community competitions to raise funds at least once a year. In light of the finding that community clubs were found to depend solely on the government to develop initiative programmes, one might deem the views of the participants worrying. This assertion is derived on the basis that, for example, if the National Government reduces its funding towards the development and implementation of the CDP, community sports clubs could become less efficient. This notion stems from the standpoint that the announcement made between 2018 and 2019 that SRSA is likely to merge with the Department of Arts and Culture and give birth to DSAC, raised great concern among the sporting fraternity in South Africa. Since the merger, sport, in terms of support, continued to be one of the least-funded departments in South Africa. Therefore, given the context, the research finding of the study is that the community clubs and programme coordinators need to establish a culture of financial independence to circumvent any situation where funding continues to be reduced greatly by the National Government.

In support of the finding that human resources is seen as one of the factors that play an instrumental role in the sustainability of the CDP, Meyer and Kirsten (2005:1) assert that human resources management encompasses 'all the processes, methods, systems and procedures employed to attract, acquire, develop and manage human resources to achieve organisational goals'. In the same vein, Hoyer et al., (2015:142) also define human resources as 'a central feature of the organisation's planning system which cannot be isolated from other management tools such as strategic planning, financial planning or managing organisational culture and structure'. These definitions imply that, for any organisation to achieve its objectives, human resource capacity is at the forefront of success. For the purpose of this study, human resource capacity will be categorised in two contexts, namely personnel (sport administrators and volunteers) and recruitment. As far as personnel is concerned, the programme

coordinators and community club officials were asked to give their views on whether the current personnel involved in the CDP are sufficient to implement the programme successfully. In response to the question, more than 80% of the respondents believed that the programme does not have sufficient personnel for this purpose in various communities. The majority of the respondents cited that one person is expected to coordinate multiple codes and frequently visit various community clubs in the respective district.

One of the senior government officials in the programme (Respondent 19) expressed that DSAC needs to take initiatives to employ more administrators and volunteers to be part of the CDP, while another community club official (Respondent 4) recommended that, for the programme to be implemented successfully, the government needs to recruit more people on a full-time basis so that the goals can be achieved. Given the responses, one might indicate that the acknowledgement of Respondent 19 (senior government official) seem to suggest that both provinces and the national government are familiar with the challenges facing the CDP. Therefore, the research findings indicate that the government does not seem to have prioritised getting more human capital such as volunteers to assist with the implementation of the programme in various communities. Parallel to this, Meyer and Kirsten (2005:38) agree that, for the programme to be successful, more personnel need to be recruited. In agreement with the view of Meyer and Kirsten (2005), Wicker and Breuer (2011:190) also describe human resource capacity as the ability to deploy human capital within the organisation. These definitions corroborate that human resource capacity is more necessary for the organisation's success. In acknowledging the existing challenge, Respondent 19 said:

... we need to bring back the spirit of volunteerism because decades ago, nobody looked at the money and communities benefitted immensely (Respondent 19. Senior government official).

With respect to recruitment, for decades, many professional and amateur sports clubs relied greatly on volunteers to govern, administer and manage their organisation without necessarily being paid. In the Netherlands, for example, the government and sport federations provide sufficient support for capacity-building courses for technical staff, executives, administrators (including volunteers) and referees (Van der Werff et

al., 2015:275). Furthermore, scholars such as Ibsen et al., (2015), Nichols and Taylor (2015), and Chavinier-Rela et al., (2015) highlight that one of the greatest challenges facing most community sports clubs is the lack of recruiting and retaining competent volunteers to assume key strategic positions. The guidelines of the CDP blueprint indicate that a key focus of the CDP is to empower community volunteers with a set of skills that will help community clubs to be self-sustainable through a series of workshops by accredited services (Club Development Project, 2006:7).

In light of this, the findings of the study show that DSAC seem to lack clear guidelines and practises concerning the processes of recruiting effective administrators, compared to other countries. In view of the findings from Respondent 19 (a senior government official) and the CDP blueprint that any community member showing interest in the CDP be trained as a volunteer, one might argue that the lack of an effective recruitment process may seem to influence DSAC to recruit anyone without relevant experience, skill and qualification as a volunteer or sport administrator. This concept differs from the approach used in other countries. It has been noted that other countries take a measured approach when recruiting sport administrators to get involved in the programme. For example, France, Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands, Australia and many other countries prioritise recruiting graduates who possess a qualification or have a relevant skill and experience within the Sport Management, Sport Administration and Sport Science field. In justification for the argument, Section 9.1 of the blueprint (Club Development Project, 2006:7) states that 'all interested people should be encouraged to join and assisted through capacity-building programmes'. This proclamation could be considered a gap in the programme and affirms that the CDP in South Africa does not seem to be coherent with good practices as countries that have a similar programme to South Africa.

It was found that the CDP blueprint acknowledges volunteers as important factors toward the development of community sport. However, the research findings reveal that the programme coordinators may not appear to have acquainted themselves adequately with the content of the CDP because it is believed that, had they done so, they would have taken the initiative to recruit more volunteers who possess the necessary skills and qualifications as practised by most of the successful countries with similar programmes. Each year, there are thousands of students who graduate

from various accredited institutions that offer Sport Management or Administration qualifications which are believed to contribute significantly to the development of community clubs in South Africa. In ensuring that the recruitment is effective, the research findings point that government needs to go into the market to attract employees/volunteers with the necessary knowledge and skills to apply for particular positions within the organisation.

With reference to the provision and availability of physical resources, this term can be described as any asset that is tangible and needed for the organisation to achieve its goals. Relating to this perspective, the key informants identified physical resources as one of the factors important for the programme to be implemented successfully in various communities. For this section, physical resources were described in three categories, namely sports facilities, sports equipment and basic sports apparel. Manda (2019:57) asserts that for community clubs to succeed, a secured space and comfortable sport environment is crucial. Respondent 2 claimed that access to facilities is crucial to help community sport clubs to achieve its goals. In relation to the question, the study revealed that a significant number of community club officials in the Cape Metro noted that within the Strand Municipality, only one facility is well-maintained, causing more than thirty community clubs to compete for its use. In eThekweni Municipality, the majority of the club officials reported that they use open spaces or their homes' back yards for training purposes. In respect to these findings, it was found that if the club does not have a steady and secured location, it would be difficult to execute its daily activities and, as a result, a club could lose out potentially on increasing their number of participants. Accessibility and availability of sport facilities were recognised as one of the factors important for the successful implementation of the programme.

Lussier and Kimball (2014:444) declare that without facilities, there is no sport. Furthermore, the scholars emphasise that the availability and accessibility of sport facilities play a crucial role in the success of a community programme. Often, facilities are regarded as an existing infrastructure that can house certain activities. For example, the majority of the respondents indicated that government does not provide their respective clubs with sport facilities and, as a result, clubs are unable to achieve their strategic objectives. On the other hand, Fried (2015:4) defines sports facilities as

natural areas, such as open spaces where people engage with each other. Fried (2015:97) condemns the notion that sports facilities should not be considered as an existing infrastructure because there are countless sports facilities ranging from empty fields to erected, structured buildings. In light of the respondents' views, one might argue that the majority of the community club officials do not seem to understand that a sports facility cannot only be described as a building with an erected structure, but also as an open space where activities can take place. This assertion emerged on the basis that community sport officials and club players expressed their concern that the government does not provide them with sport facilities and, as a result, they opted to train or utilise the available open spaces mentioned earlier.

Although the CDP blueprint (2006:6) identified the local authorities as the sole partner responsible for the provision of sport facilities, one might argue that it is not feasible for the local authorities to be the sole partner responsible for the provision of sport facilities. This argument derives from the viewpoint that the CDP has a large cohort of community clubs they need to support. The research findings suggest that the local authorities are strained owing to the demands of the community clubs needing to gain access and use sport facilities for different gains. Instead, Fried (2015:97) postulates that, in situations where the demand for the accessing of sport facilities is unmatched, the government and community clubs need to consider using recreational areas such as open spaces as sport facilities to serve their constituencies. As far as the provision of sport equipment is concerned, in most cases, particularly in developing countries, many SPOs do not regard equipment as one of the integral facets of sport development. Awoma et al., (2015:62) advocate that the availability of the right quality equipment plays an integral role in sport development. The scholars make a comparison that one of the reasons making developed countries excel in international sport is that such countries, unlike developing countries, invest in high-quality equipment, hence the outcome for said developing countries is not satisfactory. The scholars add that a good sport programme can only function fully when the equipment is available and in good condition.

In an effort to respond to the question asked by this theme, the study reveals that more than 90% of the respondents firmly believe that the provision of sport equipment (soccer balls, bibs, etc.) plays a significant role in the successful implementation of the

programme. The findings is aligned with the views of Awoma et al. (2015) who emphasised that the provision of high-quality sports equipment plays a crucial role in sport development. In the absence of the response of the programme coordinators, one might submit that government officials appear not to consider equipment as one of the factors that are important towards the successful implementation of the programme. Although most of the clubs have acknowledged having received sport equipment from the government, the respondents (community club officials) affirmed that they are still in need of more equipment because the equipment that the government provided to them was reported to be of low quality as evidenced by the ongoing experience that the equipment gets damaged frequently.

Although the government officials were also targeted for this theme, it is concerning to note that they did not perceive the provision of quality equipment as one of the important factors that can help the programme to attain its goals. This discovery is perturbing because one of the support services according to the CDP blueprint, is the provision of basic sport equipment for community clubs. Notwithstanding that some equipment was issued to community clubs, it is crucial for the government to issue equipment that is of good quality and high durability to all clubs. Even though the programme coordinators are often not involved in the process of securing quality equipment but the National Government is, it is nevertheless crucial for the programme coordinators to advise the government on the type of the equipment that should be procured for the community sport clubs in their respective provinces.

Lastly, the provision of the basic sports apparel (clothing) among other physical resources is deemed important for the successful implementation of the programme. This view stems from the standpoint that most of the community sports clubs acknowledged that the government did provide apparel, however, the majority of the respondents voiced that such apparel was insufficient as only first team players used it. The majority of the community clubs believed that sports apparel helps to promote unity and establishes a unique culture within the organisation. One of the support services stated in the CDP blueprint is the commitment to providing basic playing uniforms to community clubs (Club Development project, 2006:9). In light of the statement as outlined in the CDP blueprint that the provision of clothing and equipment must be provided to all the CDP clubs, one might argue that the programme

coordinators do not seem to comply with the guiding policy of the CDP. This submission is developed on the basis that if the programme coordinators understood fully the key components of the CDP blueprint, it is believed that they would have understood that basic apparel plays a crucial role (as stated earlier) and would have ensured that all community clubs or at least one division within a club had sufficient basic sporting apparel.

6.2.2.2 Capacity building

In this theme, the majority (65%) of the respondents felt that capacity building is one of the important factors that contributes to the success of the programme. Section 9.3 of the CDP blueprint commits to providing training for administrators and managers. However, the study revealed that DSAC has not yet empowered the programme coordinators (including senior programme officials) with any relevant training that could enable them to implement the CDP effectively. Although section 9 of the CDP blueprint makes mention that one of the mechanisms ideal for the successful implementation of the programme is the recruitment and development of coaches, administrators, technical officials and athletes, one could argue that the CDP blueprint does not seem to make provision to train its programme coordinators and managers specifically to gain knowledge on implementing, monitoring and evaluating the programme effectively. The following responses represent the views of the programme coordinators followed by the community club officials.

In response to the question, eleven participants were targeted and, of those, seven responded explicitly. In justification of the programme coordinators' views, one of the senior managers in government (Respondent 19, Senior government official) said: *"certainly, they are not sufficiently trained, but there is always a room for improvement"*. Subsequently, another senior government official (Respondent 20) said: *"I don't think we take good care of our staff and I'm guilty of this as well myself"*. The respondent articulated further by saying *"we don't have a succession plan for them. Even if we take them to training, it will take a long time for them to get promotions"*. Additionally, Respondent 15 (Programme coordinator) declared that the programme does not seem to have personnel who are trained sufficiently to assist the CDP in achieving its strategic objectives successfully. In his response, he reflected by saying:

I don't think most people who work in club development are trained. People are not trained and not given the proper experience to be part of the programme ... We want to do things to complete the Annual Performance Plan (APP), so that is the ultimate danger of the government and how we run programmes.

The majority of the programme coordinators asserted that they have not received any training from the government. Following the responses of the programme coordinators, the study also found that the majority of the community club officials were aligned with the programme coordinators' views as they believed that DSAC officials have not yet received sufficient training for the programme to achieve its objectives. In support of their claim, the community club officials believed that if the programme coordinators were sufficiently trained, they believe that their clubs would have been given sound advice on how clubs can survive and be sustainable, than doing things according to their knowledge and experience.

It was found that the lack of club visits, frequent communication, information sharing, club accessibility and other factors have contributed significantly to the affirmation of the community club officials perceiving the programme coordinators as lacking sufficient training about programme implementation and management. In light of the key informants' responses, one might submit that the provision of capacity building for the programme coordinators seems to be a concerning factor since the early days of the programme's inception in 2006. This standpoint is created on the basis that, even those who have been in the programme (for example, senior government officials) for more than 10 years were aware that the programme coordinators had not yet been trained to implement the programme effectively.

Given the response of the community club officials, one might posit that the programme coordinators do not seem to be knowledgeable about how clubs ought to be self-sustainable. Based on the premise that the majority of the community clubs were found to be struggling with securing funding and ensuring that clubs are sustainable, it is concerning to note that most of the programme coordinators have been involved in the programme for at least five years, but the majority of the community club officials do not perceive them as personnel who are knowledgeable about club sustainability. This view was formulated on the basis that the majority of community club officials expressed their frustrations that programme coordinators do

not visit their respective clubs and share knowledge about how community clubs can attain their goals. With reference to the context that not only community club officials felt that the programme coordinators were not sufficiently trained to implement the programme successfully, it was worrying to learn that the majority of the programme coordinators also felt that most of their colleagues were not sufficiently trained to assist the programme to achieve its set goals.

The aforesaid context implies that the government recruited the programme coordinators but did not seem to have provided sufficient training to enable them to carry out their mandate effectively. Hoyer et al., (2015:157) indicated that '*training and development*' are at the heart of any organisation that seeks continual growth and improvement. The scholars emphasise that organisations that do not capacitate their employees, are likely to experience operational challenges and may function far below their optimum. In support of the scholars views, Meyer and Kirsten (2005:70) stress that, once staff have been employed, it is crucial for such employees to be trained so that they can acquire the knowledge and skills that are needed to execute their tasks effectively. In response to the view that the respondents indicated that they have not yet received training that is specific to advance the agenda of the CDP, the respondents were probed to verify the types of training received since they have been part of the CDP. In response to the question, the views of government officials will be presented first, followed by the views of the community football club officials.

To begin with, Respondent 19 (senior government official) confirmed that no one had yet received training about the advancement of the programme. In solidarity with Respondent 19, another official with more than eight years of experience in the programme (Respondent 20) confirmed that he had not received any training that would enable him to implement the programme effectively. Parallel to these responses, the majority of the programme coordinators respectively stated that their department had never offered them any training opportunity that would help to advance the mandate of the CDP. Instead, in efforts to seek knowledge to implement the programme effectively, the majority of the programme coordinators stated that they had taken the initiative of attending other courses but not specifically related to the advancement of the CDP. In light of these responses, it is worrying to discover that the programme coordinators are expected to contribute significantly to the

programme's success, but have not yet received adequate training to empower them to do so. On the basis that the programme coordinators appear to lack adequate training, one might submit that the findings provide validation for why the majority of the programme coordinators do not seem to make an effort to share their knowledge with community club officials on how clubs can be self-sustainable.

Following the programme coordinators' responses, community club officials were requested to indicate the types of education and training courses that they had received. In the WC, the government officials confirmed that courses such as administration, first aid, technical officiating and D-licence coaching were facilitated to community club officials as a foundation to empower clubs to be self-sustainable. In contrast, the majority of the community club officials criticised the claims by asserting that since they joined the programme in 2017, they had only received the D-licence coaching course from the football federation. Similar to KZN, the government officials declared that the majority of community clubs had received administration, coaching, first aid, events, financial and facilities management. The findings reveal that in KZN, most of the community clubs confirmed that they had received courses such as administration, coaching (D-licences) first aid, events and facilities management as well as financial management courses.

In light of this view, one may argue that the research findings suggest that there seems to be an imbalance concerning the service delivery and also a lack of uniformity amongst the programme coordinators across the targeted provinces as some community clubs received more support from the CDP than others. For example, in comparison to how the programme is delivered in both provinces, the majority of the community clubs in the WC claimed that, since they have joined the programme, they have not been exposed to other training workshops except for the coaching course. Conversely, in KZN, the majority of the CDP clubs reported to have completed coaching, finance, administration and facilities management courses. This finding depicts that there seems to be an imbalance within the CDP in relation to how the programme ought to be implemented by the government officials. Moreover, this finding is concerning because one of the strategic objectives of the CDP is to develop the human resource potential for all clubs through the management of sport and recreation in South Africa. In reference to the finding and the objective of developing

human resource potential for all clubs, one may argue that it seems not to have been attained by the CDP coordinators.

Another noteworthy finding is that, in KZN, community club officials covered the facilities management content during their three-day training. With reference to this finding, one might argue that such a course is deemed insufficient and secondary for club officials to enrol for. This assertion originates on the finding that there is a lack of sport facilities and that community sport clubs do not own any sport facilities but the local municipalities. Therefore, given the challenge that no CDP club owns a sport facility, such courses are believed to be inappropriate as community club officials may not be able to effectively implement the contents that they learnt during training. Although facilities are a crucial facet of sport development, the provincial departments of sport and recreation should primarily focus on courses that will enable clubs deliver efficient services within their respective clubs. In most parts of the world, sport is run by administrators who are passionate and possess appropriate qualifications that are relevant for the effective delivery and management of the sport development programmes. Therefore, to ensure that community sports clubs are properly governed, governments play a crucial role in empowering everyone involved in various community programmes to undergo training frequently that may be relevant in assisting them to execute their day-to-day duties within clubs.

In light of the view that different capacity-building courses are provided to community club officials, one may argue that the latter, rather than the programme coordinators, may be perceived as officials who seem to possess basic knowledge and understanding about how community clubs ought to become self-sustainable. In addition to the factors important to the successful implementation of the CDP, both programme coordinators and community club officials pleaded with the government to expose community clubs to key information that enables them be self-sustainable. Of all the respondents to the question, only Respondents 16 and 4, respectively, associated marketing of the programme as one of the factors important towards the effective implementation of the programme. In an attempt to respond to the question, Respondents 16 said:

I think the management should prioritise more on marketing the CDP so that it can attract a large number of participation and get the same attention as other programmes

because we cannot effectively achieve our grassroots objectives in the absence of club development.

In addition, community club officials believed that the National Government needs to empower the LFAs and community clubs with information through courses that will be important in assisting clubs to be sustainable.

6.2.2.3 Partnership collaboration

Of the respondents, 19% recognised partnership as one of the factors that is important in making the programme successful. Globally, scholars and practitioners affirm that for any community programme to reach its envisioned objectives, partnership must be recognised because it is at the forefront of success. Kickbusch and Quick (1998:69) defines partnership as a set of actors that bring together the common goal of improving the health of populations based on mutually agreed roles and principles. Watt (2003:83) stated that effective partnerships can bring different organisations together with their aims to achieve agreed common goals and through such a partnership approach, everyone involved is a winner. Buchthal, Taniguchi, Iskandar and Maddock (2013:21) also emphasise that partnership is about working together as a formal team with specified responsibilities with the intent to achieve a common goal. Furthermore, the national policy on DSAC shows that the success of a sport programme is dependent on the smooth operation of a system that has a clear definition of authority, responsibility and accountability combined with seamless progression, and that such a system must be consistent with government policy (South Africa. Department of Sport and Recreation, 2011:51).

Adding to the definition, Goal 4 of the SDG points out that for the programme to be sustainable, it is vital for stakeholders involved in sport and education to work in harmony to promote tolerance, diversity and non-discrimination within programmes (UNOSDP, 2015:3–17). Similar to other countries such as Germany, France and England, in Denmark, the national sports organisations and the Danish government have expressed an interest in establishing a close relationship with universities and other public institutions so that the national agenda may be achieved (Ibsen & Levinsen, 2019:188). To understand the distinction between the two concepts, Buchthal et al. (2013:21) advise that, when wishing to forge a partnership, one needs

to be aware that a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) is in existence from the onset as it focuses on identifying common goals and areas of responsibilities for each party involved while, on the other hand, the scholars describe 'collaboration' as an attempt to find ways to work together but without necessarily establishing the MoU as a formal agreement. Given the views on partnership, the report produced by the (I&DeA) suggests that, in an attempt to forge an effective partnership, it is vital for the SDOs to understand and be clear on the demarcations of the established partnership with its key stakeholders.

Therefore, the research finding of the study is that DSAC needs to establish an enabling environment where programmes are undertaken by relevant stakeholders. In addition, the research findings state that, if three sectors of the South African government work in harmony with key partners such as municipalities, the role players would assist the government with the maintenance and provision of playing facilities. Respondent 19 stressed that, for partnership to be effective and to achieve its desirable outcome, each party ought to play its role and that such roles must be clearly defined. Another senior official within the programme (Respondent 21) echoed the views of Respondent 19 since the respondent believed that the programme has great potential to be more impactful if the government could focus more on consulting and partnering with key role players.

Literature on effective partnership (see: Kickbusch and Quick (1998); Watt (2003); I&DeA (2009); and Buchthal 2013)) suggests that the community agents must be clear on which agent integration ought to be endorsed and for what purpose. More than 90% of the programme coordinators confirmed that they had been involved in the CDP for more than five years. In light of the period of the programme's existence, it was found that DSAC seems not to have prioritised establishing formal partnerships with its key partners to assist with the effective implementation of the programme in South African communities. Buchthal et al., (2013:19) highly recommend that to build a sense of shared mission and to increase collaboration between agencies, it is vital for programme coordinators to make every effort to forge coalitions and networks with key potential partners because a single agency cannot solve complex public problems alone. With regards to the above, the findings reveal that DSAC has officially

embarked on a partnership with a sole service provider that is responsible for the manufacturing and distribution of sports equipment and clothing countrywide.

Although the efforts of the DSAC to support and provide the basic resources to community sport clubs are lauded, it is worrying to note that a service provider that is responsible for a certain aspect of the CDPs success was prioritised by the national government. Buchthal et al., (2013) discourage this kind of practice, alluding that a single agent cannot resolve community problems alone. In support of the recommendation by Buchthal et al., (2013), the majority of the programme coordinators from the targeted provinces lamented the existing partnership agreement that the National Government has endorsed with such a service provider. The majority of the programme coordinators expressed that they are often not satisfied with the quality of the manufactures' products and also the geographical location of the supplier. Moreover, the respondents indicated that the return process is likely to take longer than expected as compared to using a company that is within the proximity of the club. In KZN, some of the programme coordinators claimed that the provincial government has signed an official MoU with one of the departmental stakeholders, while some hold similar views to those of the WC that they do not have a formal partnership with key potential partners to advance the mission of the CDP. In KZN, however, there were those who confirmed that CDP in KZN does have official partner(s). When probed further to determine if they have seen a signed MoU, the respondents stated that they had never seen a signed MoU for those believed to be in partnership with their respective provincial department. Given this situation, one may suggest that some programme coordinators seem not to understand the difference between an official and an ad hoc partner.

Furthermore, in the absence of an existing MoU, one might argue that the programme coordinators do not seem to comprehend and understand what the roles and responsibilities of the potential partners are. The I&DeA report (2009) asserts that the lack of clarity concerning the terms and conditions of partnership or collaboration has the potential to cause confusion and result in compromising progress. Therefore, concerning the finding, one might hold the opinion that the lack of clarity about the terms and conditions of a partnership between the government officials and federation liaison officials has had a negative effect somehow. This assumption stems from the

view that resources have clearly been deployed to advance the mission of the programme, but unfortunately, no party can be held accountable for any failure that might occur since the scope of the partnership was not clearly defined by the national or provincial government as the programme drivers.

Most of the European countries consider partnering with institutions like universities and NGOs as one of their top agents playing an important role in implementing community sport programmes. For example, the French government primarily recruits university students to assist with the design and implementation of the community programme (Chavinier-Rela et al., 2015:180), while in countries like Greece, Germany, England, Finland, Italy and many others, community sport programmes are run by local authorities such as the NPOs. Nichols and Taylor (2015:124) further emphasised that the multiple benefits from fostering a good relationship with academic institutions are firstly, students will join the clubs as ordinary members; secondly, there will be effective communication between the two links; thirdly, students in their capacity as club members will advertise club opportunities in schools; fourth, club coaches and officials will assist in facilitating PE lessons in schools; and lastly, community sports club coaches and officials will get the opportunity to identify talent in schools. In comparison to the viewpoints of the scholars and the findings from the key informants, one may hold that the programme coordinators seem to lack understanding regarding the ideal agents that can be approached and partnered with when wishing to implement a community programme successfully.

In spite of the respondents' findings relating to the ideal agents for successful implementation of the programme, all the community club officials from the various provinces affirmed that they had not been invited by the programme coordinators to attend any planning sessions for the CDP. Given these claims, it is believed that the lack of involvement, consultation and partnership with community club officials could potentially result in government officials implementing the programme in a manner that suits them and without achieving desirable outcomes. This declaration originates from the perspective that clubs are the beneficiaries of the programme and, therefore, they ought to be consulted frequently because club officials understand the issues more than anyone who is outside the club setting. Failure to consult with community club officials could be considered an oversight on the government side. Interestingly, the

findings revealed that the programme coordinators have identified various government sectors as ideal partners in ensuring that CDP is implemented successfully within communities. This finding compels one to argue that the government should not be recognised as an ideal partner owing to the fact that the programme is already initiated by the National Government and implemented by provincial government officials. Notwithstanding the positive role, impact and influence that the government plays in sport, scholars such as Nesti (2002); SDP IWG (2008a); Sotiriadou (2009); Robson and Partington (2013); Simpson and Partington (2013); Maleka (2015); and Chavinier-Rela et al., (2015) state that the government should not be considered as one of the key partners in developing effective community clubs and programmes.

It is against this backdrop that the scholars caution anyone wishing to be involved in community partnership not to consider the government as a potential partner to its strategic initiatives, but rather to perceive it as a regulatory body and resource allocator. This recommendation stems from the view that individuals or groups tend to rely solely on the government to supply certain resources and, usually, the government may be reluctant or even take longer than anticipated to respond. Every so often, the delay is likely to be caused by tedious government procedures and processes that should be followed at all times. As a result of the delay, community development outcomes may not be achieved. In terms of this background, one might relate. For example, in the South African context, sport is the least-funded sector. Sport in South Africa is not considered to be one of the key priority areas for the country's development as per the NPP (Republic of South Africa, 2015:1).

6.2.2.4 The invitation of community clubs to planning sessions

To discover the findings of this theme, 10% of the respondents firmly believed that for the programme to be successful, the government needs to involve community clubs in the CDP planning sessions. Conversely, the research findings show that both the national and provincial government departments of sport and recreation seem not to prioritise inviting community clubs to the CDP planning sessions. In justification of the notion, all eight programme coordinators affirmed that their departments invite federations, district coordinators, municipalities and local district offices owing to the belief that these associations contribute significantly to the CDP planning sessions. Following the responses of the programme coordinators (SPOs), the federation liaison

officials (Respondents 23 and 25) respectively said that their associations frequently invite community club officials to attend the CDP planning sessions. In contrast, it was found that all 14 community football clubs targeted for the study disputed the claim that the federations invite them to the CDP planning sessions. In dispute of the dismissal, the community club officials said:

Since 2017, we never had anyone from the government visiting our club. The last time we saw them was at the training when they were taking attendance registers. We think the reason why they are not coming or inviting us is that maybe they are scared of our community. Our area has a bad reputation (Respondent, 9).

We've never seen them ever since we joined the programme in 2017. The only time we see them that is when we go collect our equipment and kit. but they don't come to visit us (Respondent 3).

Furthermore, the study found that even some of the community clubs deemed successful by the government officials in different provinces unanimously said:

They do not come. They only come when they are invited... Honestly, I don't remember them coming to our clubs (Respondents 12, 13, and 14 – Community club officials).

In light of the finding that the government and federations do not seem to invite community clubs to the CDP planning sessions, one might argue that both the government and provincial federations seem to undermine the existence of the community clubs and the value they can add in the CDP planning sessions.

Equal to the SPOs and the responses of the provincial federations, 12 out of 14 (86%) of the the community club officials indicated that they do not see the need to invite community members to their respective meetings, while only two (14%) of the respondents (Respondents 6 and 11) confirmed that they regard community members and corporates as key stakeholders and invite them to their meetings. The following quotes exemplify the reasons that the community clubs officials do not seem to be in favour of inviting potential stakeholders:

... some people are too political and they will influence the club in a bad way (Respondent 10).

I don't think a lot of people are knowledgeable about what should happen in our community (Respondent 3).

... meetings are not open to anyone. The club has specifications. We do not invite just anyone (Respondent 12).

Therefore, based on the premise that community clubs are the beneficiaries of the programme, evidence on the ground suggests that the programme coordinators may appear to be less involved with regard to the effective implementation of the programme within communities. They also have little knowledge of how the community clubs have benefitted since they joined the programme and what federations (as their key stakeholders) are doing regularly with community clubs. This assertion is derived from the belief that, if the programme coordinators were inviting community clubs to the meetings concerning the CDP or at least visiting clubs frequently, they would have had an idea of what was happening in clubs. Furthermore, owing to the view that federations are close allies with the government, one might argue that the government is likely to accept the report submitted by federations.

6.2.2.5 Expert involvement/ mentorship programme

Of all the participants, the study found that 14% of the respondents asserted that for the programme to succeed, the government needs to identify mentors or specialists who will be involved in ensuring that the programme achieves its set objectives. This finding is deemed to be aligned with the views of Brentwood Borough Council (2011); Choi et al., (2015) and Wells and Hancock (2017:135) who emphasise that a mentorship programme plays an instrumental role in the organisation as it is designed to offer guidance and advice. Additionally it empowers and increases opportunities for young leaders to lead in their respective communities. The scholars further alluded that community leaders (role models) can play an instrumental role in helping to produce a conducive and positive environment for all. Choi et al., (2015:264-265) advise that mentorship within the programme is vital because mentors have the capacity to develop a successful lifeskills programme for the youth. In addition to the scholars' views, one may assert that caring parents have the potential to give one-on-one mentoring sessions to the youth members and the community at large.

Notwithstanding the views of the community officials that the government is solely responsible for providing mentors or experts, one might add that there seems to be a lack of accountability from community clubs. In justification to the assertion, the

research findings show that community club officials seem to be relaxed and display acts of entitlement in expecting the government to provide their respective clubs with mentors and experts to assist with the implementation of their constitution and programme. Given the view that community clubs operate within a community setting, one might argue that community clubs have the latitude and are in a better position compared to the government to identify anyone whom they regard as a role model to be involved in the daily programmes that their respective clubs are promoting.

6.2.2.6 Hosting frequent competitive events

Of all the targeted participants for the study, 6% of the community club officials believed that hosting national tournaments can be considered a crucial factor when wishing to implement a community programme successfully. The rationale behind this motive was that the respondents asserted that hosting national championships is seen to promote diversity and further influence young players to reach the highest level of the sport. With reference to this response, one might dismiss the response and pose a question about whether a successful CDP should be about hosting competitive events.

Therefore, the research finding of the study is that this narrative leads to the lack of understanding the initial purpose and existence of community sports clubs and what they represent. According to Collins and Sparkes (2010:167b), sports clubs are defined as the grassroots foundation, whereas Watt (2003:65) defines a community sports club as the creation of an environment that provides opportunities for people to participate in sport, while Bailey (2015:63) defines a club as a 'structured, constituted base for participation in sport which serves as a vehicle for long term participant development as well as mentorship programmes to cater for high performance'. Although sports clubs may have elements of competitive aspects, the research finding suggests that SDOs need to focus primarily on the establishment of a strong foundation through creating an active environment that provides great opportunities to all members of the community. In justification of the context, Kokko et al., (2009:27) imply that a community sports club ought to be seen as a place where children from the community participate actively in sport. Most of the local sports clubs in South Africa focus primarily on the culture of winning through the promotion of competitive

events, as opposed to focusing largely on promoting activities that advocate social inclusivity.

The research findings reveal that the focus on competition is likely to have a negative impact on sport participation from community members. With reference to this, Sotiriadou and Wicker (2013:297), as cited in Allison (2001), concur with Tonts and Atherley (2005) that in many EU countries, community sports clubs are important sports and leisure service providers because sports clubs do not solely provide sporting opportunities for the community but also empower community members with social programmes that they can use in their day-to-day lives. Therefore, for the programme to be implemented successfully, it is crucial for the SPOs to ensure that the primary focus is not primarily on competition but on developing programmes that will unify community members. Thus far, a community sports club should be viewed as a setting that needs to be designed in such a way that community members share a common interest (experiences and knowledge) with the intent of developing a sense of belonging.

6.2.3 Model or framework used to assess the outputs, outcomes and impacts of the CDP's implementation

The purpose of this section was to understand what model or framework the DCAS with the provincial government departments employ to implement the CDP successfully in various communities. The findings for this theme may present DSAC with the opportunity to review and assess how different frameworks were utilised in ensuring that the programme achieves its strategic objectives. The researcher deemed this theme important for the study as it is believed to play a unique role in highlighting the potential gaps concerning the implementation of the CDP in South Africa. In light of the questions posed, the findings that emerged from the government officials are presented first, then followed by the views of the community club officials. In an effort to address the questions for this theme, the study found that the majority of the participants across the targeted provinces appear to have used words such as 'model', 'framework', 'methods' and 'criteria' interchangeably.

In respect to the first question, the findings show that more than 80% of the the programme coordinators stated that CDP does not have a specific model, while some

said it follows a framework for implementation purposes. However, in the absence of the implementation model or framework for the CDP, almost 40% of the programme coordinators stated that DSAC primarily uses the National Sport and Recreation Plan (NSRP) as a guideline to indicate how the CDP ought to be implemented effectively in the country. In particular, one of the senior government officials (Respondent 19) emphasised that the NSRP has much information about how the CDP ought to be implemented so that the objectives could be achieved. On the other hand, a contradiction was found when another 40% of the programme coordinators seem to have opposing views concerning the model or framework that DSAC employs for implementation. Instead, the respondents unanimously highlighted that DSAC follows the CDP blueprint which serves as an important guideline for the implementation of the programme in their respective communities. In justification for their responses, one of the senior officials (Respondent 21) stated, 'the CDP does not have a model, but has a pyramid of sport development, while another government official (Respondent 22) commented: 'I think I saw a model or something like that once many years ago, but I cannot tell what is it exactly'.

With reference to the views of the respondents, the evidence shows that there is an apparent a contradiction regarding the model that DSAC uses to implement the programme effectively within communities. The research findings of the study suggest that the programme coordinators appear not to be well informed about the insights of the NSRP and the CDP blueprint. In light of this, it was found that the CDP appears to be lacking a standardised model or framework that could be adopted by all the programme's administrators. Furthermore, the findings suggest that the administrators seem to be implementing the programme in accordance with their own understanding. For example, though the NSRP and CDP blueprint are different government documents but have meaningful content that address the challenges within the sport development setting, it is important to note that both documents do not make provisions about how the CDP ought to be implemented. In the absence of an existing and uniform model for programme implementation, the key informants were asked to give an overview of how they (programme coordinators) ensure that the programme is implemented efficiently in their respective communities. In an attempt to respond to the question, three out of four SPOs (75%) articulated that they apply their discretion

and rely solely on their years of experience as coordinators to implement the programme successfully.

Following the responses of the programme coordinators, community club officials were encouraged to indicate what model or framework their respective clubs use to measure the objectives. Evidence shows that 93% of the community club officials asserted that they do not have any model or system that they use to determine whether the club objectives are met. Instead, they emphasised equally that, for the club objectives to be met, they rely solely on their knowledge and experience as club administrators. Despite similar views from the respondents, only one club official (Respondent 11) highlighted that the club works with everyone in the community because they believe that, in this way, everyone will know what is expected of them and that is how the club objectives may be met.

Globally, scholars have developed multiple models that could be adopted when wishing to implement a community sport programme successfully. However, notwithstanding the notion that various countries could adopt such existing models as good practices for programme implementation, one might argue that at times, such models could be deemed relevant for international markets. Given the finding that CDP in South Africa was found to lack a model or framework that could be adopted effectively as a guideline for successful implementation, one might argue that literature within the sport development discipline does not seem to have a friendly model that is being tailored to suit the needs of the South African setting and, most importantly, that addresses the challenges that the sports clubs in South African communities are faced with. This contention is derived from the understanding that if such models or frameworks were in existence, it is believed that DSAC would embed such models in the CDP blueprint and NSRP for purposes of adoption.

In an attempt to pursue the model that may be relevant, adopted and effective for the design and implementation of the CDP in the South African context, Wefering et al. (2013:15) emphasise that the following guidelines are vital for developing and implementing a sustainable development programme:

- Step 1: Determine your potential for success
- Step 2: Define the development process and scope of plan
- Step 3: Analyse the situation and develop scenarios
- Step 4: Develop a common vision
- Step 5: Set priorities and measurable targets
- Step 6: Develop effective packages of measure
- Step 7: Agree on clear responsibilities and allocate budgets
- Step 8: Build monitoring and assessment into the plan
- Step 9: Adopt a sustainable plan
- Step 10: Ensure proper management and communication
- Step 11: Learn the lessons

6.2.4 Factors important to improving the implementation of the CDP

The findings in this section demonstrate the opinions of the key respondents concerning the strategies that are ideal for improving the implementation of the CDP. This question emerged from the view that since the inception of the CDP in 2006, there appears to be an enormous gap and misunderstanding about how the programme ought to be implemented effectively by its coordinators. As a result of the misunderstanding, it is believed that the programme is likely not to be implemented effectively and make meaningful impact in various communities across the country. This section identifies and addresses potential gaps that exist in the CDP, and also seeks various means that could contribute positively to the enhancement of the programme being implemented successfully in South Africa. Table 6.2 gives a summary of the findings on the factors that are found to be important and that need to be considered when seeking to improve the implementation of the CDP in South Africa.

Table 6.2: Factors important for improving the implementation of the CDP in South African communities

Respondents (<i>n</i> = 31)		
Fieldwork results	Respondents	Percentage (%)
Consultation with key role players	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 16, 19, 20, 24, 25, 27, and 29	61
Providing sufficient basic support for community clubs (transport, financial support and access to sport facilities)	1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 26, 27, 28, 29 and 30	58
Designing an effective programme for monitoring and evaluation	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 15, 16, 17, 22, 24 and 24	52
Providing capacity building (education and training)	1, 3, 4, 8, 9, 11, 16, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24, 17 and 23	48
Frequent visits to community clubs	1, 3, 4, 7, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 23, 24, 27 and 28	42
Developing an effective recruitment system for the CDP	4, 6, 12, 2, 11, 15, 16 and 20	26
Creating a system for the prevention of the abuse of power	5, 15, 16, 21 and 22	16
Developing an effective data-management system for the CDP	16, 19, 21 and 22	13
Aligning the CDP's club achievement with incentives	4, 20 and 22	9
Programme review for the CDP	20, 21 and 22	9
Research capacity within the CDP	4 and 16	6

6.2.4.1 Consultation with key role players

The study reveals that there seems to be inconsistent consultation with key role players for the programme. In light of this, it was concerning to discover that the majority of the programme coordinators did not seem to recognise community clubs as key role players. This assertion derived from the finding that none of the programme coordinators acknowledged and identified community clubs as influential role players, as mostly mentioned sport federations, local councils, LFAs and local municipalities.

For example, Respondents 19 and 20 as government officials believed that for the programme to improve, there must be a cordial and close relationship between DSAC and its key stakeholders such as SASCOG for the sake of the beneficiaries'. Conversely, of all the targeted participants for the study, the findings reveal that only Respondent 16 as a government official recognised community clubs as influential stakeholders in the programme and believed that they must be invited to the CDP planning session meetings. This recommendation is aligned with the views of Respondent 1 (community club official) that for the programme to improve, it is crucial for the government to include community clubs from the onset during the planning meetings. Literature affirms that partnership should be considered as one of the focal strategies for a community programme to be successful. The report on '*Sport: Catalyst for a better and stronger recovery*' prepared by the UN Secretary-General (2022:n.d.), recommend that government ought to strengthen their relationship with national and local grassroots entities should they wish to implement a development programme successfully.

6.2.4.2 Providing sufficient basic support for community clubs

Literature specific to the significance of the provision of transport assistance towards building an effective community sports club is limited. With reference to the blueprint of the Club Development Project (2006:9), the provision of support services comprises of three components, namely: i) the provision of basic sport equipment; ii) basic playing uniform or clothing; and provision of transport assistance. In efforts to understand the kind of support that CDP clubs have received from the government they have been part of the CDP, mixed responses emerged. For example, some community clubs confirmed that the government has supported their respective clubs with all types of support, while others claimed that the only support they have received from government was the provision of equipment and clothing but not transport. The clubs that benefitted from the provision of equipment and clothing stated most of the time, they are required to use their own money to pay for transport to service their league games. Given the depiction that there seems to be inconsistencies around the provision of transport for community clubs, it is worrying to note that the CDP blueprint (2006:9) indicates that the provision of transport assistance to community clubs should be the primary mandate of the CDP through DSAC. In addition, amid the clubs' acknowledgement of the basic equipment and clothing, it is concerning to learn that

the equipment and clothing received by the clubs were reported to have been incomplete and even insufficient for a team that consists of fifteen players. Interestingly, other clubs indicated that since they had joined the programme between the 2016 and 2017 financial years, their clubs had seldom received transport assistance from the government. As a result of the lack of transport assistance, the respondents stated that such circumstances hurt their respective clubs as they continued forfeiting points for not honouring their matches as scheduled in the fixtures.

Another factor identified to be at the centre of improving the CDP was financial support within the programme. More than 70% of the respondents indicated that CDP operates with a minimum budget. Parallel to this view, one might suggest that for the transport budget not to be depleted abruptly, the programme coordinators need at least to ensure that the league games are being hosted in an environment that is convenient for community clubs. In light of the CDP blueprint and the views that some clubs claimed to have received transport assistance seldom and that the equipment provided by the government was incomplete, one might suggest that there is some element of nepotism and inconsistencies in how the programme is being implemented and how certain clubs are being treated by the programme coordinators. In support of the assertion, the study found that community club officials appealed that government needs to ensure that all beneficiaries of the programme are treated equally and that the support of transport assistance is available to all clubs.

Another government official who is involved in the programme further criticised the model that government uses to disburse resources to provinces. In criticising the model, Respondent 16 (programme coordinator) commented:

We need to be able to look at how we empower clubs without us needing to have a uniform approach, but as long as the government still uses the Annual Performance Plans (APPs) as the mechanism to report on the numbers, it will be difficult for the programme to be successful.

The respondents proposed that if the government wishes to improve the programme, it is crucial for the policymakers to bear in mind that provinces have different financial needs and challenges because they operate in different environments. Therefore, the findings hold that DSAC needs to encourage provinces to develop their own

grassroots objectives because they know better than anyone else. Parallel to this finding, another programme coordinator also proposed that the programme should be treated differently in every single district. The respondent gives context by proposing that clubs that are travelling far should get more financial assistance (budget) because they have to travel long distances and sometimes they have to travel for three hours to play a game. This proposal emerged from the view that owing to frequent travelling, the respondent believed that the system had opened a gap for taxi drivers to inflate their prices. Therefore, in an effort to ensure that the programme yields maximum outcome, the respondent felt that the uniform approach that was undertaken by the National Government (DSAC) regarding procurement, needs to be reconsidered. In support of this assertion, the respondents commented:

... the Provincial government should be able to come up with their own objectives because they will come up with objectives that will be best suited to their province.

The accessibility of sport facilities was also noted by the majority of community football clubs as one of the strategies to improve the programme. In support of the finding, community club officials expressed that they use the backyards as part of their training facilities and as a result, the lack of facility poses a great challenge when comes to competing at big tournaments.

6.2.4.3 Designing an effective programme for monitoring and evaluation

Generally, the concepts 'monitoring' and 'evaluation' are concepts that are used interchangeably and their applications are often misunderstood. Astle, Leberman and Watson (2019:175) endorse the views of Sport New Zealand (2014) that monitoring is the process that 'involves observing, recording and reporting information as evidence of a sport organisation's performance', while evaluation 'determines whether a sport organisation's performance is on track, or if a change is required or constraints alleviated to make improvements'. The scholars added that the SPOs and volunteers are primarily responsible to monitor the programme because without the effective monitoring and evaluation systems in place, the organisation may struggle to achieve its set goals.

A large number of the respondents (52%) as shown in Table 6.2, felt that one of the factors that plays a significant role in improving the CDP, is the design of an effective monitoring and evaluation programme. In the absence of the monitoring and evaluation model for the CDP, the study reveals that the programme coordinators (Respondents 15, 16 and 17) stated that government use the APP as an instrument to monitor and evaluate how the programme is implemented in various communities. Subsequently, another senior programme coordinator (Respondent 25) announced that his district considers the weekly reports as effective tools to determine how the CDP is monitored and evaluated in various communities.

Next, the key informants were requested to share their opinions concerning the manner in which DSAC and provincial departments monitor and evaluate the CDP. The purpose of this question was to determine whether the approach that the coordinators apply when monitoring and evaluating the impact of the CDP is effective to assist the programme to achieve its goals. In response to the question, the majority of the programme coordinators dismissed the approach by commenting: "... CDP is about the APP and meeting the numbers so that the auditors, national department and Treasury are happy that we are spending the money. The APP does not necessarily outline or indicate what needs to happen or what should happen, it is target based. They look at numbers and it is a box-ticking exercise..." (Respondents 15, 16 and 17).

With reference to these views, all the programme coordinators involved in the CDP were then asked to indicate whether their respective departments had employed an advisor who contributes significantly in advising how the programme ought to be implemented, monitored and evaluated in different provinces. This question emerged from the narrative that the CDP is a national initiative but there appears to be a lack of a uniform system that DSAC uses to monitor and evaluate the CDP successfully in various communities. The study found that the programme coordinators unanimously agreed that besides the officials from the Monitoring and Evaluation Unit within their respective departments, there is no independent person who has been hired by the National Government (DSAC) to give advice regarding the implementation of the CDP. Parallel to this, the study found that one of the federation liaison officials, (Respondent 24) seems to have conflicting views to those of the programme coordinators. In justification to the assertion, the programme coordinators and federation liaison

officials claimed that the the Institute of Sport (IoS) is the organisation that is primarily responsible in KZN for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of the CDP in various district communities.

Following the responses of the programme coordinators, community club officials were also given the opportunity to indicate what model their respective clubs use to measure whether the objectives are met. The findings reveal that of the fourteen community club officials, (71%) respectively agreed that they do not have any model or system that they use to determine whether the club objectives are met. Instead, they equally emphasised that they rely solely on their knowledge and experience.

6.2.4.4 Providing capacity building (education and training)

Globally, many sport organisations (professional and amateur) continue to face the great ordeal of effective organisational capacity building. Reynolds and Swinburn (2011:196), define capacity building as a convoluted term that has become pervasive within the context of community development, while Wicker and Breuer (2011) and Merkel et al., (2015) advocate that for the organisational programme to improve and achieve its goals, the focus ought to be on the development of the human resources, financial capacity, relationship-building, networking and providing proper leadership to enable community members to be effective when implementing the programme. Similarly, evidence suggests that almost 50% of the respondents seem to be aligned with the views of the scholars that for the programme to improve, the government needs to focus on capacity building.

The majority of the respondents indicated that the budget allocation for the CDP is little, with one of the senior government officials (Respondent 19) adding that for the CDP to improve, the government needs to prioritise providing community officials with training opportunities that focus on educating their respective clubs to source funds from local communities and other financial institutions like Lotto. This finding is consistent with the views of Mr Mhlongo as a member of the opposition party who during the DSAC budget vote (2019) in Parliament in Cape Town, expressed that the budget allocated by the Minister of Sport is insufficient.

In the light of the view that the programme is operating with a minimum budget and that community clubs are not being capacitated sufficiently to generate their own funding, one may assert that the programme is likely not to achieve its strategic objectives. Additional to the finding that the provision of education and training was identified as one of the vital domains of capacity building for the organisation's success, the majority of the respondents indicated that they had not taken any initiatives to assist their respective clubs or programme to be self-sustainable. In justification to their responses, the respondents (programme coordinators and community club officials) mentioned that they had not been to a training that empowers them to take such initiatives, hence they rely solely on government to provide courses that will expose them to various facets of club governance and sustainability.

Wicker and Breuer (2011:191) define financial capacity as '*the ability to develop and deploy financial capital*'. Earlier, the key respondents identified funding as one of the factors that play a fundamental role in the successful implementation of the programme. Roberts and Barrar (1992:36) indicate that successful organisations invest their time and money in ensuring that their employees are empowered and trained sufficiently to help the organisation to become self-sustainable. The scholars emphasise that training and education are crucial as they prepare the workforce to understand fully what the organisation seeks to achieve. In support of this context, Zhang et al., (2003:7) echo with Roberts and Barrar (1992) that education and training provide employees with the opportunity to increase their knowledge and skills and to better understand how their jobs are related to other functional areas within the organisation.

In reference to the finding that few community football clubs were reported to generate revenue through donations, one might contest that government needs to ensure that both the programme coordinators and community club officials undergo training that would enable them to acquire more skills and knowledge regarding different avenues to pursue to raise funds for the programme as well as community clubs. Interestingly, the study conducted by Moroe (2019:47) also revealed that the majority of the programme coordinators did not receive sufficient training related to the advancement and management of the CDP since the programme's inception, while on the other hand, the majority of community club officials claimed that the courses that

government sourced did not provide them with much knowledge on how to secure funding and to manage their respective clubs effectively. Against this backdrop, one might submit that this finding seems to provide a reasonable understanding regarding why the majority of programme coordinators, including club officials, do not attempt to take initiatives that could assist community clubs and the programme to be sustainable.

Manda (2019:50) recommends that one of the most cost-effective strategies to generate revenue for a club is education about the introduction of appropriate membership fees. Although the collection of membership fees is supported by Wicker and Breuer (2011) as a symbol of good practice, Manda (2019) added that SPOs need to ensure that the membership fee is very low. Amid other strategies to secure financial resources, Manda (2019:51) recommends that leaders need to take the initiative in seeking sponsorship from enterprises, selling original goods for sporting goods, hosting events, having daycare programmes, and providing eating and drinking services such as cafes within the club. In consideration of the scholars' recommendations, DSAC needs to empower community club officials and programme coordinators with financial management courses where they would acquire knowledge regarding what initiatives are ideal for raising funds so that the financial situation of community clubs may improve.

Parallel to the views of Wicker and Breuer (2011,) and Manda (2019), some programme coordinators (Respondents 19 and 20) admitted that government needs to capacitate community clubs with education and training about financial revenue and management, administration, and management of their respective clubs through corporate governance, as well as aspects on sponsorship requests from the different service providers to whom the government awards tender contracts. In justification to their responses Respondent 19 added:

... for the programme to achieve its objectives and be successful, I think it would be important to have someone who is highly capacitated and knowledgeable to assist with the implementation and management of the programme.

In the same vein, the findings reveal that Respondent 21 appears to echo the sentiments of Respondents 19 and 20 that the national or provincial department of

sport must give support (cover all the logistics that are required) to the federations so that they can run the programme effectively, while Respondents 1, 3, and 8 proposed unanimously that the programme needs to provide community clubs with sufficient capacity-building courses that empower club executives with knowledge concerning the functions and execution of their mandates. This suggestion was moulded by the experience that having only one workshop per annum is not beneficial to clubs at all.

Moreover, the majority of community clubs stated that they believe that the significance of the provision of capacity-building courses for clubs is not just about the execution of functions, but also empowering community clubs with knowledge and skills to help clubs be self-sustainable. For community clubs to be self-sustainable, the findings reveal that Respondents 4 and 9 added that government should stop offering community clubs the same courses that the clubs have already received. In justification of this statement, Respondent 4 said:

... they should stop repeating the same courses that the same clubs have received through this programme. As a result, I lost interest in going there because it was the same thing. (Respondent 4, community club official).

Respondent 9 (community club official) responded:

... They should provide training that is specific to the needs of each club instead of doing generic training for everyone.

For training to be effective, Respondent 9 (community club official) concurred with Respondent 4 (community club official) by advising that government needs to provide training that is specific to the needs of each club, instead of adopting a broad approach to provide generic training and repeating the same content to clubs that have already received such training. In conjunction with these responses, both Respondents 15 and 16 (programme coordinators) respectively held that government needs to empower its people with accredited courses, knowledge and skills concerning the marketing of the programme. In justification, the respondent commented that, for the programme to improve, DSAC needs to give CDP the same attention as the School Sport Mass Participation Programme (SSMPP). The key informant said:

... the CDP is not well marketed. No banners. No marketing drive for club development programme. No publicity in the newsletter about CDP. No uniform/clothing to identify themselves as CDP, unlike other programmes (SSMPP) which have.

As part of the contribution towards the improvement of the programme, community club officials (Respondents 4, 11, and 12) commented that, for capacity-building courses to be more impactful, the government should be cognisant of the elements of the workshop, namely duration, content and audience. As far as the timing of the workshop is concerned, the respondents raised a concern that, often, the capacity-building courses are scheduled at awkward times when most people who make influential decisions within clubs are at work. In light of this view, Respondents 4 and 11 (community club officials) stated:

... the government offer training at awkward times and expect us to commit to training for five consecutive days. A majority of clubs are run by volunteers who work and have daily jobs.

Second, capacity-building content is also advocated by club officials to be a red flag within the programme. In justification of this element, Respondents 11 and 12 (community club officials) expressed a concern:

... clubs are given a lot of content over two to three days with little time. Training becomes meaningless. It's a lot of information in a short space of time.

Lastly, the respondents also mentioned that it is important for the government to be deliberate concerning who should attend such capacity-building courses. In light of this response, Respondents 4, 11, and 12 (community club officials) mentioned that, in their observation, most people who attend such courses were playful. In addition, Respondent 12 (community club official) said:

... a lot of people just went there for a holiday. They start calling their partners to stay at the hotel for free.

Therefore, for training to be effective and meaningful, and to attract the right audience, Respondent 12 proposes that capacity-building courses should be designed in such a manner that it has different phases. For example, if training is about financial management, only club treasurers will attend. If it is about club administration, those

who are in administration within the club will attend, and if it is a coaching course, then coaches will attend. Therefore, the key informants believe that, if the government could design courses in this manner, then most clubs would know what they are doing.

Moreover, in light of the findings that emerged in this section, one might argue that other domains of capacity building (as outlined) seem to be a great concern, and therefore, it is crucial that for the programme to improve. DSAC needs to ensure that such domains are taken into account. For example, the findings demonstrate that the programme appears to lack proper leadership that enables programme coordinators and community club officials to be effective when carrying out their mandates. This claim emanates from the standpoint that both programme coordinators and community club officials believe that the programme does not have sufficient personnel to assist with the programme implementation. For example, one of the senior managers (Respondent 19) involved in the CDP clearly expressed that government needs to prioritise bringing back the spirit of volunteerism should they wish to see the programme implemented successfully.

Skinner et al. (2008:19) emphasise that a well-structured programme contributes significantly to attracting potential volunteers to be part of the programme. Parallel to Skinner et al. (2008), Goal no.1 of the MDG holds that, to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, volunteers are identified as one of the key attributes that are believed to play a crucial role within society. For example, globally, most countries rely greatly on volunteers to govern, administer and manage community sport programmes. The rationale behind this is that most of the volunteers have a good working relationship with everyone from the community. In conjunction with the respondents' views, for the programme to improve, one may argue that the CDP is considered to be lacking leadership because the findings reveal the following:

- training courses are held at awkward times when most of the club officials are at work;
- community club officials invite their partners to the hotels during training and some government officials who are aware of this, are not doing anything about it;

- some community clubs are inactive within the programme, but still attend training workshops and receive equipment;
- government officials do not take any initiative to assist community clubs to be self-sustainable;
- the training content is repetitive;
- the majority of the respondents depend on the government to employ paid personnel rather than recruiting community volunteers to assist with the implementation of the programme;
- the CDP blueprint advocates that any community member who is interested in the programme will receive education and training, as opposed to the focus being on those with experience and skills or who have appropriate qualifications within the Sport Management/Science discipline;
- there is no succession plan since programme coordinators have been involved in the programme for years but they are still at the same level; and
- some community clubs have not received any education and training courses since they joined the CDP in 2017.

6.2.4.5 Frequent visit to community clubs

Nearly 50% of the respondents believe that frequent club visits empower the programme coordinators (SPOs and volunteers) with a wider scope of information and also provide a sense of understanding of the opportunities and challenges concerning the programme. Club visits was identified as one of the key facets for the programme to be improved. In an attempt to understand how often the programme coordinators visit the clubs with the intention to observe and record the information so that meaningful reports can be produced, a contradiction emerged from two groups of the respondents. In response to the question, the first group of the respondents comprising of programme coordinators and federation liaison officials stated that they have been visiting community clubs during match days, but seldomly, while some believed that it is not their responsibility to visit community clubs. On the contrary, the other group consisting of the community officials criticised the narrative that programme coordinators visit their respective clubs during match games. In justification of their dismissal, the majority of the community club officials in both provinces reacted that since they joined the CDP in 2017, the programme coordinators

had not visited their respective clubs, unless they are called to collect equipment and clothing from the provincial government offices. Interestingly, it was found that even community clubs that have been deemed successful by the programme coordinators also affirmed that government officials do not visit their respective clubs, unless clubs have taken the initiatives of inviting them. It is concerning to learn that government officials appear to only go to community clubs when community clubs have invited them.

In view of the programme coordinators response, one may assert that it is worrying to note that programme coordinators seem to believe that visiting community clubs during league games is efficient and sufficient to understand the challenges that community clubs face daily. Furthermore, given the responses of the community club officials and in reference to the view that programme coordinators are expected to submit their monthly reports to their line managers and ultimately, to the head office (DSAC), one would argue that the reports seem to lack credibility. This assertion stems from the viewpoint that the findings reveal that there is a lack of frequent club visits and communication with community clubs so that coordinators are in a better position to gain understanding and crucial information pertaining to the challenges facing the clubs. Therefore, the findings suggest that the communication gap between the provincial departments of sports and community clubs is significant. Owing to the finding that the programme coordinators appear to visit community clubs infrequently, it is envisaged that more community clubs are experiencing similar challenges with their LFAs

Another important factor that surfaced for enhancing the programme was effective communication. Broadly, communication is regarded as one of the recipes for success. Given the significance of communication, one could contend that without regular communication with community sports clubs, CDP may struggle to attain its objectives. Furthermore, it is believed that programme coordinators may not monitor the programme efficiently if there appears to be a lack of frequent visit and information about community clubs. Similar to the findings on club visitation, the majority of the community clubs agreed that CDP officials barely communicate with their respective clubs. According to the findings, the study reveals that the majority of the community clubs made reference that, the only time government officials communicate with their

respective clubs is when club officials are expected to collect their equipment and attire from the provincial department of sport or if there is training that is scheduled to take place. In one of the provinces targeted for this study, for this the majority confirmed that, since they joined the programme in 2017, they had not had any communication regarding capacity-building courses to be facilitated by the government or federations, unless they had to collect equipment. The following remarks justify the findings asserted by the majority of the community club officials in one of the targeted provinces:

... they have never visited our club since we joined the programme in 2017. We only meet with them during equipment collection. Government has no clue or idea what is happening with the club and clubs have also got no clue what the programme is all about (Respondent 2, community club official).

In response to the strategies to improve the programme, the findings opine that government needs to be in constant communication with community clubs so that clubs can share the challenges that they are faced with on a daily basis. In addition, the majority of the respondents submitted a request that government needs to make an effort to call community clubs, especially after the workshops. The purpose of this is for programme coordinators to gain a broad understanding pertaining to what community clubs have learnt during capacity-building courses.

6.2.4.6 Developing an effective recruitment system for the CDP

Many organisations are experiencing difficulties in developing a strategic recruitment process that is effective for the organisation to achieve its goals. Literature notes that the strategic recruitment process is considered a pivotal part of human resources management owing to its ability to help the organisation and managers to find and hire talented and qualified personnel for advertised positions. According to Taylor, Doherty and McGraw (2008:61), recruitment and selection are terms that are often used as synonyms, however, the scholars emphasise that they are separate but linked to each other. In an effort to differentiate the aforesaid terms, the scholars describe '*recruitment*' as 'the activities and processes that are undertaken by an organization to define its employee or volunteer needs and generate a suitably qualified pool of candidates for various positions', while '*selection*' is defined as the techniques and methods of choosing the best candidate from the pool that has been generated by recruitment. Scholars such as Wicker et al., (2013), Schlesinger et al., (2014), Nichols

and Taylor (2015), and many others across the globe assert that recruiting and retaining attractive individuals are regarded as central challenges for sports clubs to survive.

Therefore, for community sports clubs to survive, Hager and Brudney (2011:138) emphasise that the primary responsibility of the non-profit organisation is to recruit volunteers. Notwithstanding the collective views emanating from the literature that, in most parts of the world, sport programmes are primarily driven by community volunteers, Shafique (2012:887) cautions organisations that recruitment should not be done for the sake of filling potential gaps, but that managers need to be focused proactively on the intention to recruit candidates who possess specific experiences and skills. The scholar adds that an organisation with a strategic recruitment process has the potential to attract new and positive candidates.

The study further revealed that most of the recruited members (including the office bearers within the targeted clubs) have Grade 12 as their highest qualification, while fewer than 5% hold a degree in Education, Electrical Engineering, Psychology or Accounting. Only two people were reported to have a degree in Sport Management and Project Management. One of the criterias endorsed by many parts of the world (Germany, Denmark, Finland, UK, South America, US, France, etc.) depicts that community sports clubs recruit volunteers who at least have experience, unique skills, and a relevant qualification within the sporting industry. For example, in reference to the literature that France endured a phase of significant decrease in club participation, the French Ministry of Sport decided firmly that one of the good practices for building effective sports clubs is to recruit personnel who have relevant experience and diplomas from recognised institutions within the sporting discipline to be considered as part of the sport development programme. Mchombo (2006:332) revealed that similar to the French Ministry of Sports, grassroots programmes in Malawi are mainly driven by qualified individuals, international students, church volunteers and donors. In Senegal, Akindes (2020:185) commends the Guediawaye Football Club for their courageous decision to recruit personnel who possess the right qualifications, experience and appropriate skills to form part of the club executive. This approach was adopted to rescue the club from bankruptcy, improve the systems in place, and enhance the service delivery within the club.

The findings reveal that most of the community football clubs do not seem to make an effort to have a better recruitment system that attracts relevant people to become involved in their respective clubs. The following responses depict the lack of recruitment strategies within community clubs:

We announced in our meetings where the community and the committee is present and anyone who wants to join is welcome to join (Respondent 6 – community club official).

People just show up (Respondent 4 – community club official).

I don't advertise anything, but people look for me and find me. For example, someone will just call and say, 'I saw your club on google and request to be part of the club' (Respondent 12 – community club official).

In contrast, a few clubs claimed that they do have volunteers. In an effort to understand the types of volunteers involved in said clubs, it was discovered that those who make up the office bearers for the club are the same ones regarded as volunteers. In light of the view that the club executives identified themselves as club volunteers, one might argue that certain responsibilities are likely to be neglected since key performance areas and job descriptions between the club executives and volunteers are different. It is also interesting to note that, of all the targeted community clubs that participated in the study, only one club indicated that volunteers go through a recruitment process. In justification, the club participant said:

We look at their CVs and how they engage with everyone within the club
(Respondent 11 – community club official).

Based on the premise that only one club was found to have been endorsing the approaches concerning good practices, one might assume that such a club is expected to have suitable candidates and is likely to perform better compared to most clubs that do not apply the basic criteria for recruiting volunteers. As a result of the disparity, it is believed that community clubs will continue to be dependent on the government for support and that the programme is likely not to achieve its objectives.

Therefore, in an effort to address the recruitment challenges that the programme and club coordinators are faced with, Shafique (2012:887) advises that in the 21st century, the recruitment strategies must be at the pinnacle of organisation planning because recruitment is a vital pillar determining organisational failure or success. As part of the strategies to improve the programme, government needs to ensure that the recruitment process is not compromised but that it remains their top priority. This facet was recognised by the key informants owing to the notion that government appears not to have sufficient and ideal personnel to implement the programme successfully in their respective communities. In relation to the finding, evidence suggests that in order for the CDP to improve, government needs to hire more people to assist community clubs them in becoming successful and self-sustainable. Subsequently, Respondent 4 (community club official) gave a response that focuses on two propositions, namely the government and community clubs. First, the respondent held that government should recruit and employ personnel who have relevant qualifications within the sporting discipline so that it is easier to add value to the programme.

Furthermore, the respondent asserted that CDP has the potential to become one of the nationally acclaimed programmes in SA, but believed that it could only possibly happen if the right people are deployed in the right positions as programme coordinators. These findings are aligned with the views of one of the American philosophers in Scientific Management studies (Frederick Taylor), who cautioned that employers need to be vigilant about the types of people they wish to employ in the organisation. The philosopher argued that careful selection is crucial within an organisation because people are at the centre of all organisational processes and the efforts they put in can differ significantly. Parallel to the views of the respondents and the philosophers Taylor et al., (2008:63) also emphasise that 'attracting and selecting the right individuals for the organization is a critical strategic human resources management (SHRM) decision'.

Although the findings indicate that there is an urgent need to employ more personnel who are qualified and experienced in the programme, the government is unlikely to respond swiftly owing to its budget being constrained. This notion emerges from the view that the majority of the programme coordinators expressed concern that the lack of sufficient budget appears to be one of the key factors preventing the programme

from achieving its goals. In light of this notion, one might propose that, instead of employing more people who could be on the government's payroll, DSAC needs to strengthen its relationship with key community institutions such as local sports clubs, schools, universities, NGOs and others since it is believed that such institutions could play a crucial role in assisting government to implement the programme successfully.

Notwithstanding financial resources being identified as a key factor towards successful implementation, provincial departments of sports need to ensure that the current staff involved in the programme feel important to be part of the organisation so that the programme goals can be attained. In relation to improving the implementation of the CDP, Respondent 4 (community club official) proposed that the government needs to target the right representatives at club level to attend said courses because he believed that passionate officials will make a valuable contribution and not just attend for the sake of eating and sleeping at the hotel. In relation to the view that recruitment is regarded as one of the key facets for improving the programme, it was interesting to note that some programme coordinators criticised the ideology that CDP is designed to support community clubs for a period of three years, yet their employment contracts are only for a period of twelve months. The key informant articulated that such a concept does not serve the programme because such an approach poses a greater risk to their employment.

Furthermore, it is discouraging to think that they are likely to be unemployed after their contracts have come to an end. This notion derives from his personal experience of being involved in the programme as a coordinator for almost ten years and still being on a twelve-month contract. He also stressed that such ideology does not bring any continuity or stability to the programme, but has the potential to destroy the programme owing to the fact that coordinators are less likely to perform their responsibilities to the best of their ability.

One of the senior government officials (Respondent 20) also highlighted that the programme has a lot of potential to grow, however, the department does not have a succession and development plan for its staff members. This finding could be considered as poor ecosystem development in support of the programme. Respondent 16 suggested that if the government wishes to see the programme improving and the coordinators

performing at their best to achieve greater results, it is therefore important that, at least their employment contracts are aligned to the period for which community clubs are being supported.

In addition to the finding relating to strategies to improve the current implementation of the programme, the majority of the programme coordinators derided the recruitment criteria that DSAC practice to appoint a service provider to supply equipment to all the CDP clubs. In their response, the programme coordinators expressed that instead of one enterprise having the monopoly in the programme and supplying different provinces with equipment and apparel, it is vital for National Government to create a safe space to empower community entrepreneurs found in the same areas where community clubs are operating with opportunities to do business with the government. The majority of the respondents cited that the disadvantage of having a monopoly is that, if there appears to be something wrong with the equipment from the local supplier, it would be easier for one to go to their offices physically, as compared to a supplier that is not based locally.

Therefore, to ensure that the programme improves, it is believed that it should not be difficult to recruit the right volunteers to be part of the programme since South Africa has many academic institutions that offer a variety of accredited qualifications within the sporting field.

6.2.4.7 Creating a system for the prevention of the abuse of power

Amongst many scholars, Kane (2020:4) and Winter (2017:6) describe power as the ability to influence the behaviour of individuals or group within an organisation or society at large. The scholar further explains that leaders exert power over employees and employees are expected to carry out the mandate as expected by the leaders. Although power is necessary for an organisation's stability, it is important for one to be cognisant that if not applied appropriately, it could also present great challenges. The study revealed that 16% of the respondents (comprising of community clubs and government officials believed that DSAC and provincial departments of sport need to develop a system that prevents the abuse of power within the CDP. In justification to the finding, many incidents where the abuse of power ensued were revealed. For example, some government officials expressed that the national officials had access

to the CDP funding that was allocated to the provincial government and transacted the money without their consent. In the same breath, the programme coordinators claimed that at a provincial level, CDP resources (equipment, money, clothing, etc) are being used to support the advancement of other programmes that are not related to the CDP. On the other hand, one of the community club officials reported that his club was disqualified from participating in all football activities by one of the Presidents of the Local Football Associations (LFA).

These findings suggest that there appears to be a lack of accountability and leadership from those responsible for the delivery of the programme. In light of the aforesaid, one might argue that those responsible for the implementation of the programme should have been involved in the case to ensure that the hearing process was smooth and that the sanction was fair and objective. Furthermore, one might assert that the finding corroborates that community coordinators are not well informed about what is happening within clubs. This notion stems from the belief that if the programme coordinators were in constant communication with clubs, they would have intervened and ensured that an amicable solution was achieved between the club and LFA. Given the outcome of the decision made by the LFA, it is evident that such a decision has had a personal effect not only on the management of the club but also on the players. It is crucial for those in leadership positions to be mindful that the abuse of power has great consequences as the victims could suffer a wide range of emotions (spiritual, emotional struggle, anger, sadness, lack of motivation, feelings of incompetence, withdrawal, resentment, devastation, depression and pain, feeling offended and excluded (Winter, 2017:147).

Moreover, it is proposed that there must be decisive leadership from those managing the programme and that the government needs to be visible in recruiting more coordinators (volunteers) who can to liaise with clubs and be informed of the issues that clubs are experiencing on a regular basis.

6.2.4.8 Developing an effective data-management system for the CDP

Another factor found to be important for the programme to improve is the development of a system where important information and documents are recorded and stored. This finding was proposed on the basis that, since the inception of the programme in 2006,

important information has not been documented properly and, as a result, such crucial information is lost. In support of the aforesaid, it was found that the majority of the programme coordinators seem not to have sufficient information about the affairs of the community sport clubs. In reference to this, one may argue that the lack of frequent club visits suggest that programme coordinators do not seem to have much information about the functionality and existence of the clubs. Another reflection suggesting that CDP does not seem to have an efficient data management system, is seen when some community officials highlighted that government officials provide equipment and clothing to their clubs even though their respective clubs have not been active, in some instances, community clubs are dissolved. It is evident that the practice of allowing community clubs that should have long exited the programme to continue benefitting from the system, may have a negative financial and development impact on the CDP. As a result of such a practice, it is argued that the new beneficiaries of the programme may not be able to enjoy the full benefits of being part of the CDP. This assertion stems from the viewpoint that the CDP budget is allocated based on the number of clubs that were identified to be beneficiaries of the programme in that particular financial year.

It is believed that if the CDP had developed a system that detects which clubs have been in the programme for longer than anticipated, DSAC would have been in a better position to have excess funding. This assertion stems from the affirmation that most of the community club officials were of the view that the lack of a data-management system had contributed to the programme being perceived as wasteful expenditure because the government provides the same courses and equipment to community clubs that have already benefitted from the system

Moreover, it is believed that if such systems are in place, it would benefit everyone involved in the programme. One of the benefits of developing such a system is that even if there is a new coordinator who had recently joined the programme, that person may easily access a database from the central management system where all the stories of the CDP are recorded and stored safely.

6.2.4.9 Aligning the CDP club achievement with incentives

One of the findings emerging from the study was the need to align the club achievement with incentives. In an effort to understand how the provincial department of sports and recreation could pursue this, some clubs suggested that there should be more tournaments for clubs to win money and for players to be recruited by professional scouts, while others, especially clubs in KZN, debated whether the GAMPHIF model was effective. A few clubs stated that they benefitted from the model while the majority said that they did not see many benefits from its adoption. According to the service provider recruited by the DSAC to facilitate capacity building to community clubs within the KZN province for five years, the acronym GAMPHIF stands for:

- G – Governance
- A – Administration
- M – Membership
- P – Participation
- H – Human Resources
- I – Infrastructure and assets
- F – Finance and fundraising

The aforementioned aid model was designed in such a way that it has four different phases, ranging from the entry level being green, to bronze, silver and gold. Although the model has facets that are noteworthy in relation to the development of an effective community sports club, one might attest with the key respondents that the programme and model do not seem to have many incentives that could make community clubs look forward to achieving the next level. In reference to the GAMPHIF model, the study discovered that the majority of the targeted football clubs have achieved bronze status. Although most of the community clubs have acquired bronze status, the majority of community club officials mentioned that they have not benefitted in any way from the corporate. In an effort to understand the relationship between the clubs and corporate, the respondents revealed that the provincial department of sport in KZN communicated with all clubs during the training workshop that for every status that the club achieves, the club is likely to get assistance from the companies on the database of the provincial department. Therefore, community clubs attested that training was

beneficial to them but believed it should have been inspiring to many officials if, when the club achieves each status, government awards the club with something valuable as an incentive for club officials to work diligently.

Although the purpose of the study is not to criticise the GAMPHIF model, one could argue that some aspects of the model do not seem to be suitable for a community club. For example, for a community club to reach excellence or gold status, as far as governance is concerned, such clubs are expected to have an audited financial statement, insurance cover, legal contracts and, as far as infrastructure and assets are concerned, clubs are expected to have kits for teams and to own playing facilities. This contention stems from the view that clubs receive minimum assistance from the government, facilities do not belong to community clubs but to local municipalities, the majority of the respondents declared that they do not have the financial capacity to purchase equipment, and they lack knowledge in terms of managing clubs.

6.2.4.10 Programme review for the CDP

The key informants (9%) believe that for the programme to improve, there is a need for the National Government (DSAC) to review the programme. This proposal stems from the view that the programme appears to be lacking a model that can be endorsed by different government departments to ensure that the programme is implemented, monitored and evaluated effectively. In justification, the respondents cited that one of the most effective approaches to revamping the programme is that government needs to have an honest discussion with all key role players to discuss strategies pertaining to how the current programme could be taken seriously because the programme has much potential. This belief was fuelled by the view that there seems to be a lack of clear description concerning the roles and responsibilities of stakeholders in the blueprint that government endorses. The respondents further indicated that when revamping the blueprint of the programme, the emphasis should be on redefining the roles and responsibilities of each party so that duplication of projects through three layers of the South African government could be avoided.

6.2.4.11 Research capacity within the CDP

Another finding that emerged to be vital for improving the implementation of the programme was research capacity. With respect to this finding, 6% of the respondents

felt that the government needs to do more research to identify the gaps within the CDP. This factor originates from the view that the programme coordinators appear not to be well informed about how the programme ought to be implemented effectively and also about what is happening within the majority of the community football clubs for which the government is primarily responsible. The respondents confirmed that the programme is implemented, monitored and evaluated according to the way they see fit, without any guidelines pointing to how the programme is expected to be managed effectively.

In support of the proclamation, one could concur that the CDP blueprint appears to have gaps and therefore, to address such gaps, DSAC needs to prioritise doing research with the purpose to revamp the programme. In justification, the research study found the following facets as potential gaps and provided the rationale for why the programme ought to be revamped:

- The CDP blueprint does not seem to recognise the institutions of higher academic learning in South Africa as one of its key stakeholders to assist with the effective implementation within communities;
- There is no clear guideline or description in the blueprint pertaining to which local authorities could be ideal for the purpose of implementing the CDP successfully;
- There is no clear guidance concerning the basic criteria that the provincial departments of sports should follow when wishing to establish a partnership with private sectors;
- The CDP blueprint does not give any guidance concerning the system and procedures that ought to be followed when monitoring and evaluating the programme;
- Section 10 of the CDP blueprint is perceived to be equivocal because the contents outlined do not appear to give clear guidance on how the implementation is anticipated to be executed by the coordinators; and
- The programme does not provide a standard model which can be used by the coordinators to assess whether they are on par with the objectives.

6.2.5 Factors hindering the success of the CDP in South Africa

In this section, the key informants consisting of community club officials, club players, federation liaison officials, federation liaison officials and government officials (programme coordinators) were requested to identify the factors that hinder the programme from being successful. This question was posed with the intention to understand the challenges that the programme faces concerning its implementation, monitoring and evaluation. For this section, thirty one participants were targeted. Table 6.3 illustrates a summary of the findings on the factors hindering the success of the CDP in South Africa.

Table 6.3: Factors hindering the success of the CDP in South African communities

Respondents (<i>n</i> = 31)		
Fieldwork results	Respondents	Percentage (%)
The lack of sufficient funding and understanding the distribution of CDP funds	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 13, 15, 16, 21, 22, 25, 26, 27 and 28	61
The lack of sufficient facilities and quality equipment	1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 13, 14, 18, 19, 21, 25, 26, 27, 28 and 30	58
The lack of frequent club visit	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 26, 27, and 28	55
The lack of adequate transport assistance	3, 7, 10, 13, 27, 28 and 30	23
The lack of capacity building (quality education and training)	1, 2, 6, 8, 15, 16 and 19	23
The abuse of power within the CDP	5, 15, 16, 20, 21 and 22	19
The lack of capacity for effective monitoring and evaluation	15, 16, 17, 20, 21 and 23	19
The lack of mentorship for the CDP	1, 2, 15, 16, 26 and 29	19
The lack of a succession plan within the CDP	15, 16, 18, 20 and 21	16
The lack of transparency and accountability	2, 17, 18, 21 and 22	16
The lack of frequent communication	1, 2, 7, 10, and 21	16
The lack of adequate and competent personnel for the CDP	15, 16, 17, 20 and 23	16

Respondents (<i>n</i> = 31)		
Fieldwork results	Respondents	Percentage (%)
The lack of motivation	9, 15, 16, 18 and 19	16
Poor relationships with key role players	19, 20, 21 and 22	13
The process of awarding contracts to service providers	15 and 21	6

6.2.5.1 The lack of sufficient funding and understanding the distribution of CDP funds

Previously, in section 6.2.4.2, it was learnt that funding was identified as one of the key strategies that DSAC and the provincial departments of sport and recreation need to focus on should they wish the programme to improve and succeed. In this section, the majority (61%) of the respondents recognised the lack of sufficient funding and the distribution of the CDP funds as one of the factors hindering the success of the programme. In relation to the findings of section 6.2.4.2 and 6.2.5.1, it is evident that the correlation confirms that funding seems to be a pivotal segment for the success of the programme.

Many scholars and associations across the world acknowledge that, for clubs to grow and be sustainable, the distribution of funding and its use is vital. Earlier (in Chapter Two), literature revealed that most of the EU countries regard the lack of funding as one of the common factors influencing the success of a sport programme. Among other scholars, Bravo and Silva (2014:139), Hendricks (2015), Leinster Rugby Club (n.d.), and many others, advise that, to ensure that there is sustainability in public organisations, SPOs need to find mechanisms to involve the private sector to provide additional finance so that the goals of the programmes can be achieved. This statement shows that, without additional funding, the programme goals are less likely to be achieved.

In light of this, the research findings show that the programme does not seem to have sufficient funding to sustain operational costs, such as transport, equipment, hiring personnel, capacity building for community clubs and government officials. In support of this view, one of the senior officials in the programme said that funding is regarded

as one of the factors that hinders the programme from being successful. In justification of this opinion, the respondent said:

We need more funding so that we can appoint persons or sport coordinators within communities (Respondent 19 – senior government official).

Respondent 22 (senior government official) was found to be in agreement with Respondent 19, articulating that funding is not sufficient to hire more personnel for a longer period of time. As a result of the lack of sufficient funding, Respondent 22 (community club official) stated:

... We are understaffed and unfortunately, the WC cannot employ more because of the conditions of the Conditional Grant. The money we are receiving is too little for us to employ more people.

The respondent continues that, for the CDP to function in his province and ensure that the coordinators' salaries are paid, the department had to take some of the money from the equitable share, which is the money they get from the National Treasury, to get people to work in the programme. In light of this response, Respondent 22 also stated that budget cuts is one of the greatest challenges that the programme is faced with. Respondent 7 concurred with Respondents 19 and 22 by emphasising that if the programme had money, the club would be able to buy clothes, quality players and the training equipment they desire but, most importantly, to play in a structured league. In support of this context, another programme coordinator (Respondent 25) revealed that funding is not sufficient, so the government needs to put more money into the programme in order for mass participation to be promoted throughout the programme, and also for the youth to be entertained for the whole year.

In comparison to all the provinces with the CDP in SA, KZN receives more funding from the DSAC owing to its population and geographical landscape. The respondents felt that funding needs to be increased so that the programme could achieve more. Although the lack of funding was recognised as one of the key factors hindering the success of the programme, the research findings show that community clubs do not seem to understand that the DoRA grant is temporary; hence, they continue to depend solely on the government to assist financially, instead of developing strategies that will help to generate more revenue to sustain their respective clubs. Furthermore, one

might argue that the lack of foresight to secure additional finances from the public and private sectors, is likely to cripple the organisation's stability. In an effort to ensure that community clubs remain competitive and achieve their objectives, Wilson (2011:9) recommends that the organisations are encouraged to borrow money from others since borrowing forms part of the everyday life. Although the author advocates borrowing highly for the organisation to advance its agenda, it is important for community clubs to calculate their moves and to ensure that their returns will be sufficient to service their debts.

In response to understanding the budget allocation and distribution of CDP funds, three out of four (senior government officials) participants stated that they do not have much understanding of how the CDP budget is allocated and distributed by the National Government. The respondents believed that the budget is allocated according to population distribution. This illustrates that provinces with a bigger population are likely to receive more budget; yet the targets and technical indicators per province are the same. On the other hand, the majority of the SPOs shared their experiences that once provinces have received funding, each club on the programme receives the same budget. With reference to this context, it was found that such an approach and practice does not set a good precedent as the CDP budget is likely to be depleted abruptly owing to travelling within provinces. On the basis of this view, one might argue that the allocation of funding to community clubs per population per capita does not seem to be in accordance with the needs analysis of the community clubs. In the same vein, one of the programme coordinators (Respondent 16) mentioned that he believes that DSAC allocates the money without understanding the challenges that some districts are faced with.

Programme coordinators (Respondents 15 and 17) concurred with Respondent 16 that the National Government allocates the money equally to community clubs irrespective of their location and challenges. Given this premise, Respondent 16 believed that such an approach is not sustainable because some areas are rural and other clubs travel from afar, while Respondent 15 (programme coordinator) said:

... a club that is in the Metropole region does not need R10 000 for transport budget because they can ask the regular taxi driver to charge them for a season as opposed to per match.

Hutchison-Krupat and Kavadias (2015:391) warn senior managers that they should not make critical decisions regarding allocating strategic resources to certain projects and areas without involving those with specific information about the project. The scholars add that senior managers need to exercise caution when distributing resources without involving anyone because such decisions have significant implications that may affect the outcome of the organisation. Given the finding that senior officials and the SPOs indicated that they are not sure how funding is allocated, it was found that the approach that DSAC uses could be associated with the autocratic style.

There are two types of processes to allocate resources, namely i) top-down processes; and ii) bottom-up processes. The scholars explain that the top-down approach process occurs when the senior government official dictates a fixed resource level to the middle management level to oversee, while the bottom-up approach refers to the process where the project manager has the right to decide which areas the resources should be assigned to (Hutchison-Krupat & Kavaidas, 2015:391). Given the definitions and the finding that the SPOs and senior government officials expressed lack of understanding regarding the procedure to allocate funding, the research findings of the study suggest that DSAC embraces the top-down approach. Furthermore, one might add that the set approach that DSAC endorses to allocate funding justifies the reasoning behind this finding emerging as one of the key factors hindering the success of the CDP.

6.2.5.2 The lack of sufficient facilities and quality equipment

Of the respondents, 58% acknowledged that the lack of sufficient and quality equipment is one of the key factors hindering the success of the programme. In support of the finding, Habyarimana, Tugirumukiza and Zhou (2022:14) affirm that limited facilities and equipment hinder the effective delivery of the community programme. Parallel to the view of the scholars, Section 8.1 of Article 8 of the International Charter on Physical Education and Sport declares that adequate facilities and equipment must be provided and maintained to meet the needs of the society

(UNESCO, 2015:6). In the same vein, Utah State University (2015/16:2-22) deems equipment to be one of the essential elements that determine the sustainability of the club.

Although evidence emerging from the findings show that the community club officials and players expressed their gratitude for the efforts that the government has made in providing their respective clubs with equipment and attire, some clubs indicated their dissatisfaction that the government distributes equipment that is incomplete to community clubs. In justification of this response, the respondents claimed that the government does not seem to procure equipment that is of high quality since the received equipment was reported not to be durable. In review of the CDP blueprint, one might argue that the guideline does not seem to make clear the provision of the quality of equipment that community clubs ought to be receiving. This criticism stems from the view that DSAC commits to provide basic sport equipment and attire to community sports clubs (Club Development Project, 2006:4). Similarly, community club officials (Respondents 1, 3, and 14) confirmed that the government provided their clubs with incomplete equipment for the first team and, as a result, it caused a commotion in the club as the club struggled to decide who should be wearing the attire, and who should remain without. In an attempt to ensure that players do not fight over equipment and clothing, Respondent 3 (community club official) indicated that, in his club, the management decided to give the playing gear to the juniors as the club believes that the junior division will not have great issues with incomplete attire and equipment, compared to senior players. In addition to the claim that the programme appears not to provide quality equipment, the findings show that the programme coordinators confessed that government provides community clubs equipment that is of poor quality. The senior government officials (Respondents 19 and 23) respectively acknowledged that some of the equipment that community clubs use is not of great quality because, in most cases, the quality fades after some time or the sizes for the attire are far too big for the youth.

This finding could be attributed to the fact that the CDP mainly receives its funding from the DoRA grant. Compared to other programmes initiated by the DSAC, the budget allocation for the CDP is generally insufficient to cover the basic operational costs of the CDP. Given the financial challenges that the CDP is experiencing, Merkel

(2013:156-157) asserts that, the greater the increase in sport participation, the greater the negative effect is on sport. The scholar also says that one of the negative effects of an increase in sport participation is the social impact of sport. As far as the social impact of sport is concerned, the scholar states that, where there tends to be inconsistent funding, sport participation can come at an extreme cost and, as a result, it can be difficult to promote equal participation. With reference to the aforesaid, this literature justifies the rationale for why the provided equipment appears not to be durable.

6.2.5.3 The lack of frequent club visits

The majority (55%) of the respondents across three provinces indicated that the government officials had visited their respective clubs seldomly since they joined the programme. In addition, clubs (Respondent 11, 12, 13, and 14) that were considered successful by the government officials across all three provinces also cited that the programme officials had visited their respective clubs infrequently, unless there were a workshop or the new equipment and attire that needed to be collected. Interestingly, amid the findings that there appears to be a lack of frequent club visits, it is concerning to note that, in KZN, most respondents indicated that the programme officials had rarely visited their respective clubs, while in the WC, community club officials indicated that the programme officials had not visited their respective clubs since they joined the programme in 2017. Instead, the respondents declared that the only time their respective clubs notice the presence of the government, is when the officials are attending league games and during the equipment handover events.

This finding is not new in the broader context of the development of community football clubs in South Africa, as the study conducted by Moroe (2019) reveals that lack of club visits appeared to be one of the key challenges for the programme's success. In light of the view that a similar findings emerged from the study conducted by Moroe (2019), one might argue that government officials appear not to have prioritised the finding as a solution to improving the programme. In view of the finding that the lack of club visits was identified as one of the factors hindering the programme's success, the research finding of the study is that the lack of frequent club visits could have a negative impact on how the programme is monitored and evaluated. Based on the premise that the programme coordinators are expected to submit their monthly reports to DSAC and

the finding that there appears to be a lack of club visits, one might question the authenticity of the reports that have been submitted to the provincial managers and the National Government. In justification of the argument, the majority of the community club officials affirmed that they had not submitted any report to the provincial departments nor had any encounter with the programme coordinators unless meeting them on the fields during league matches or at the equipment handover ceremony.

6.2.5.4 Lack of adequate transport assistance

Similar to the finding that emerged in Section 6.2.4.2, of the respondents, 23% noted transport assistance one of the key factors hindering the programme's success. Literature is limited specific to the importance of the provision of transport assistance towards building an effective community sports club and programme. The club development blueprint (2006:9), which serves as the policy guideline, acknowledges the need for the provision of transport assistance to community sports clubs. The findings reveal that the provision of transport assistance to community clubs is considered to be one of the crucial mandates of the CDP, while some community clubs felt that there appears to be a lot of favouritism within the programme. This notion stems from the standpoint that the majority of the community club officials and club players expressed their frustration that the government is reluctant to assist certain clubs with funding for the purpose of travelling.

The majority of the respondents claimed that some clubs are given more attention than others. In particular, Respondents 2, 3, and 10 commented that other clubs receive assistance frequently regarding transport but their clubs are yet to receive transport assistance from the government. In support of this claim, club players also expressed their frustration that, in most case, they had to pay for their own transport to get to the venue where league games are scheduled to take place. In light of this context, one of the senior government officials (Respondent 23) acknowledged that transport assistance is one of the biggest challenges that the programme faces. The respondent said community clubs submit their request for transport assistance to the government on time, but unfortunately, most of the submitted documents appear to go missing in the supply chain system.

6.2.5.5 The lack of capacity building (quality education and training)

Of the respondents, 23% commented that the lack of quality education and training was identified as one of the key factors hindering the success of the programme. Almost a decade ago, Khumalo (2013) stated that a newspaper article entitled *'Football's rotten core must be excised'* confirmed that the lack of education was attributed to the association's bad governance. Parallel to this finding, Section 4.1 of Article 4 of the International Charter of Physical Education, Physical Activity and Sport advocates that education for sport programmes must be designed in such a way that communities' needs are met, while Section 4.2 of the same article emphasises that community sport programmes should focus mainly on laying a foundation of knowledge, skills and attitude, and should develop the motivation that is necessary for the maintenance of lifelong participation.

In review of the CDP blueprint, it was found that the document makes reference to the provision of relevant training to support staff, athletes, coaches and technical officials. This insight confirms that the provision of education is highly prioritised by DSAC. In contrast, it is interesting to discover that the programme coordinators mentioned that they have not received any specific training related to the CDP to empower them to implement, monitor and evaluate the programme effectively. In addition to this response, in the WC, more than 90% of the community club officials confirmed that since they joined the programme in 2017, their clubs have only received a D-licence coaching course which was facilitated by the football federation. Also, in KZN, the majority of the targeted community football clubs indicated that they received the D-licence coaching, club administration and first aid course.

In an effort to understand the type of training that community clubs received, the respondents were asked to review the contents of the workshops to determine whether such training was effective to empower their respective clubs to be sustainable. In attempting to answer the question, The majority of the club officials expressed their disappointment concerning the manner in which training was facilitated. For example, Respondent 6 said *"they try to cover a lot of content; three months' worth of content in two days is quite a bad experience, because most people cannot grasp everything that they need to understand. We are given certificates in the same training but without the thorough auditing or proper assessment. Not even visitations to our clubs"*. In the

same breath, Respondents 5 and 12 said *“The facilitators put a lot of pressure on us to complete the work at night for the next day at training ... After the workshop, nobody checks up on us, while a lot of people just went there for a holiday with their partners”*.

On the other hand, Respondent 4 (community club official) believed that one of the biggest factors affecting the programme is the period during which the government offers training. The respondent mentioned that training workshops are offered at awkward times and that the government expects club members to commit to training for five consecutive days. Owing to the timing of training, the respondent believed that the government is setting up a lot of community clubs for failure because training is offered during the weekdays while most people are at work. Additionally, Respondents 15 and 21 unanimously stated that the language barrier is one of the challenges that community club officials experience during capacity-building courses. The respondents stated that it is concerning to note that capacity-building workshops are conducted in English, and as a result, most club officials feel disconnected during training because they have to present in English, which is a language they are not comfortable with.

Amid the training provided by the DSAC, one might argue that the training received by the respondents appears not to be of high-quality standards. In justification of this contention, Section 9.2.1 of the CDP blueprint states that ‘sport federations and service providers will be assigned with a task of training the people that in turn will train the communities so as to sustain the programme’. On the basis of this statement, one could argue that the provincial departments of sport and recreation seem to have shifted their responsibilities to federations; hence, the lack of quality education. Moreover, the research findings of the study indicate that the involvement of the provinces concerning the verification process for community clubs, may have a great impact potentially on ensuring that community clubs and programme coordinators are equally receiving quality education.

6.2.5.6 The abuse of power within the CDP

Five out of eight (16%) provincial government officials (programme coordinators) indicated that senior management at a national (DSAC) office appear to abuse their powers. Similar to the views of provincial government officials, one community club

official (3%) also believes that the government officials at a provincial level take advantage of their positions and abuse their powers. This observation stems from the standpoint that funding is allocated to different provincial departments and, thereafter, the national officials dictate how the provinces should spend the allocated budget. The respondents criticised the practice as they believe that such an approach could be interpreted as unjust. The government officials gave multiple reasons which they believe are associated with the abuse of power at a national level. The respondents said:

... almost every year, we get an instruction from DSAC saying that there is a team that needs to go to the playoffs and we must use the CDP budget to pay for it ... we were told that a certain amount of money will be taken from our budget to fund a Pilot Study, which was a project that we never approved of nor gave inputs towards its design (Respondent 21 – senior government official).

... our National Government introduced something called transversal contract. This means that DSAC has entered into an agreement or appointed service providers to be the sole provider for a particular equipment for all the provinces without the input and involvement of the provincial departments (Respondent 15 – programme coordinator).

... when DSAC is looking for money, they tap into the provincial budget and they strategically interfere by saying that there is a certain project that they want to do, so they would like to use the money from club development programme (Respondent 22 – senior government official).

... the CDP resources go missing without the programme coordinators knowing and no one was held accountable. In most cases, the trophies were procured under the CDP budget, but it was used by the federation to advance their own agenda that is not CDP related (Respondent 16– programme coordinator).

On the other hand, the following response represents the view of the community club official pertaining to how the provincial officials abuse their power:

... the club is banned from participation in the area because we were fighting unfair treatment that was given to us by one of the Presidents of the LFA. The club that we fought with was from the same region as the president of the LFA. The club was not suspended but we are (Respondent 5 – community club official).

Respondent 5 felt that the abuse of power was taking place because the programme has administrators who are politicians. Through the introduction of the transversal system in the programme, Respondent 21 (senior government official) clearly believed that his unit can only do business with the appointed service provider for a long period of time. The key informant expressed his disappointment as he voiced a concern that,

through this approach, government officials are not allowed to purchase any equipment elsewhere. Even if suppliers decide to increase their prices annually, they will not have much choice but to continue doing business with the appointed service provider owing to the transversal agreement. In an attempt to seek clarity pertaining to the response that officials from the DSAC appear to dictate how the provincial departments ought to spend the CDP budget, senior government officials were asked to elucidate what happens if their respective departments refuse to spend the budget to advance other programmes that are not related to the CDP. In response to the question, government officials (Respondents 21 and 22) commented:

... we do not have a choice to refuse but to comply with the orders because if you refuse, the National Government will deal with you accordingly.

Winter (2017:147) criticises such behaviour by stating that the abuse of power could have a negative effect on how the programme is implemented. With reference to the responses of the programme officials, the research findings show that their responses depict a deep sense of fear, loss of authority and features of micro-management. In an effort to ensure that the abuse of power does not become the norm within the organisation, Winter (2017) cautions that the organisational leaders need to be mindful that, when power is abused, not only may subordinates suffer, but the organisation and its planned activities are most likely to suffer short- and long-term effects. Parallel to the view that CDP resources were reported to be missing without the programme coordinators knowing and no one being held accountable, it was found that some programme officials appear to have been threatened by the DSAC officials if they refuse to release the money. In relation to the finding that the CDP budget was reported to be used to advance the agenda of other programmes, one might agree with Winter's (2017) assertion that community sports clubs are believed to be affected by such practices. Moreover, although the government is largely considered a key stakeholder that plays an influential role in the development of sport and recreation in any country, one could appeal to community sports clubs not to depend greatly on the government as their primary source of funding since the government is likely to continue dictating how the resources ought to be spent.

In support of this contention, Babiak and Thibault (2009:118) caution that individuals and/or NPOs should not rely solely on the government to partner with because government may reduce its funding drastically at any given time. The following examples give context to the background when the National Government decides to cut the budget. In Canada, many NGOs once received a massive cut from the government and, as a result, the Canadian NGOs faced a great financial loss and continued to be concerned about how professional athletes would excel during international competitions. In addition, about three decades ago, Cuba was faced with an economic crisis which led to many Cuban sport organisation being crippled and dysfunctional. However, the Cuban sports organisations did not rely on the Cuban government to finance their sporting programmes. Instead, key stakeholders worked with the Cuban government to ensure that the situation improved. In Scotland, literature reveals that sports clubs do not rely on the government but mainly on volunteers to govern, administer and manage their organisation without necessarily being paid a lot of money (Hoye et al., 2015:40). Manda (2019:48) also states that, in Japan, community sports club do not rely excessively on the government to provide financial support as the club administrators take the initiative of raising funds.

6.2.5.7 The lack of capacity for effective monitoring and evaluation

The findings show that 16% of the targeted respondents confirmed that the programme does not have sufficient capacity to monitor and evaluate its activities and implementation frequently. However, of the targeted participants, it was discovered that the majority who responded to the question are mainly the programme coordinators from the provincial government. Out of eight government officials targeted to participate in the study, it was found that six (75%) responded with this view. Since only the government officials responded to the question, one could argue that it was expected for only government officials to respond owing to the fact that they have a better understanding of how the programme ought to be implemented, monitored and evaluated within communities. The following quotes exemplify the rationale for why the majority of the government officials believe that the CDP lacks capacity for effective monitoring and evaluation. The majority of the programme coordinators across the targeted provinces affirmed that they primarily rely on their internal Monitoring and Evaluating departments to provide objective research information on the impact of the CDP in various communities.

Astle et al., (2019:174) state that, in most cases, monitoring and evaluation are perceived as compliance that aims to satisfy the demands or to justify the resources that have been invested by potential investors. This is rather than being held as a solution that presents an opportunity for the organisation to reflect critically on its own effectiveness and the impact that they have made while delivering the programme. The scholars further emphasise that monitoring and evaluation are crucial because the concepts seek to recognise the gaps that emerged during the implementation stages and ultimately provide the opportunity to address what works, what does not work, what needs to be done and how it should be done (Astle et al., 2019:175). In the same vein, Mouton et al., (2014:44) indicate that programme evaluation is a concept that was introduced in the United States in the 1960s during the Great Society era. The scholars stress that the concept was developed with the intention to combat the negative effects of World War II.

Although the scholars report that evaluation in Africa emerged during the 1980s, Mouton (2010) indicates that the official academic programme commenced in 2007. Therefore, this statement implies that the term is emerging in South Africa. With reference to the view that the term is emerging, Mouton (2010:162-163) asserts that many individuals and groups do not have formal training in monitoring and evaluation and, as a result, they rely solely on their own resources to establish themselves in their respective fields (Mouton, 2010:135). Rossi, Lipsey and Freeman (2004), in Rabie (2014:123), state that programme evaluation 'entails the use of social research methods to systematically investigate the effectiveness of social intervention programmes in ways that are adapted to their political and organisational environments to inform social actions that may improve social conditions'. Equal to this view, Mouton (2010:2) describes programme evaluation as 'the use of social research methods that aim to systematically investigate the effectiveness of social intervention programs in ways that are adapted to their political and organisational environments and are designed to inform social action to improve social conditions', while Weiss (1998), in Rabie and Goldman (2014:5), describes evaluation as the 'systematic assessment of the operation and/or outcomes of a programme or policy, compared to a set of explicit standards, as a means of contributing to the improvement of programme or policy'.

Linking closely to these definitions, one of the classical theorists envisioned that evaluation would be considered as fast becoming an indispensable activity within the context of new and old programme (Mackay, 1994:142). The scholar continues that evaluation is an important aspect of programme success because it enables personnel to determine how well the project is performing in relation to its aims, identifying strengths on which to build, areas that put the sustainability of the programme at risk, and other areas of concern requiring improvement, identifying priorities for subsequent action, reporting project performance to appropriate key stakeholders and answering questions concerning the accountability of the project posed by other interest groups/principal stakeholders. Similar to Mackay (1994), Rabie and Goldman (2014:5) stress that evaluation is necessary because it helps personnel to decide: (i) which issue among a number of competing issues should be prioritised for attention; (ii) whether the implementation and management of an ongoing intervention is on track, should continue or change direction; and (iii) what the results or consequences are of one or more interventions, and why (outcome or impact evaluation).

The research findings of this study suggest that officials from the national (DSAC) office seem to have limited knowledge of the understanding of what an effective monitoring and evaluation process around the CDP entails. Furthermore, one might argue that both the national and provincial office appear to lack expertise and formal training, and are incapacitated when it comes to the effective monitoring and evaluation of the CDP. This assertion originates from the belief that if the aforesaid units were capacitated at both levels (national and provincial), the provincial managers would have acknowledged and valued the input of the M&E unit concerning the development of the CDP.

Given the notion, one might note that the CDP has been in existence and operational for nearly two decades, but that its coordinators still rely on their own knowledge and experience on how to monitor and evaluate the programme. The aforesaid context indicates that, without the development of a solid plan, structure and processes, the programme is likely not to achieve its set objectives. During a face-to-face interview with one of the experts within the management discipline in South Africa, Koster (2016) asserts that, in order to monitor and evaluate the programme, it is ideal to appoint an external agent to assist with the review of the programme implementation.

Furthermore, the scholar emphasises that one of the primary purposes for appointing an external agent is to assist with the development of a feedback system that will help SPOs to understand where the gaps are and how the programme can improve to achieve its goals.

... maybe we need to start looking at it in the way of a model. We need to be idealistic and ask ourselves what we want club development to be.

6.2.5.8 The lack of mentorship for the CDP

The study found that 19% of the Respondents considered the lack of a mentorship programme to be one of the influential factors that could potentially hinder the programme from attaining its goals. This finding emerged from the admission that the respondents emphasised that the programme does not have a mentor who can advise on how the CDP ought to be implemented effectively; hence, both the programme coordinators and community club officials implement the programme according to their own understanding.

Choi et al. (2015:264-265) describe a mentoring as 'a structured and trusting relationship that brings young people together with caring individuals who offer guidance, support, and encouragement aimed at developing the competence and character of the mentee'. In the same breath, the UN report on '*Sport: a global accelerator of peace and sustainable development for all*' assembled by the UN Secretary General (2020:6) regards parents a mentors that can play an important role in any developmental programme because parents are the role models for the children's behaviour. Therefore, the aforesaid literature depict that one of the good practices in developing a successful lifeskills programme for the youth is through forging a close relationship with adults. The authors further indicated that caring parents will give one-on-one mentoring sessions to the youth members of the community. In Seoul, Korea for example, literature reveals that one of the community centres has collaborated with one of the universities to focus on the development of empowering the youth with social- and life skills. Among many others, basic skills such as personal, interpersonal, conflict resolution, programme management, self-confidence and relationship building were prioritised (Choi et al., 2015:265).

With reference to the practice in Korea, the research findings state that the government (DSAC) needs to create a platform where a mentor and mentee can meet regularly to talk about issues influencing their productivity to achieve the club goals. Given the prevalence of mentorship programmes in community settings, it is evident credible mentors exist within the programme who have the ability to assume the roles, core functions and mandates that may be executed by them successfully. In light of the CDP blueprint, it was found that the guideline does not seem to put an emphasis on the preferred individuals or groups that are mainly responsible for the assessment of the programme implementation within various community clubs. This finding confirms the discrepancy between why the programme coordinators seem to implement the programme differently in South Africa and why the programme is perceived not to be effective in communities.

6.2.5.9 The lack of succession planning

One of the factors that emerged from the findings and is believed to have contributed to the hindrance of the programme's success, was the lack of a succession plan. Five out of eight (63%) programme coordinators asserted that they had been involved in the CDP for a period of longer than five years, but they are still contractual employees and are still given a 12-month contract. During the interviews, some programme coordinators expressed their frustration that they have the qualifications, experience and skills but that every year, they have to go through emotional stress as they are not certain whether the government will employ them when their contract expires. Respondent 16, in particular, highlighted that many coordinators have been on contract for more than five years and that there are no long-term plans for the programme.

In view of these findings, one of the senior officials, who is responsible for the programme's success at a provincial level, believed that the National Government does not seem to have a succession plan for the SPOs who are part of the CDP. In justification of his view, the key informant (Respondent 20) said 'there is an SPO who is already on level five as an administrator and the department does not have a succession and developmental plan over its staff members because there is no position beyond a level five'. The respondent added that even within the head office, there's no opportunity in terms of career succession plan because the highest position

beyond level five, is being an Assistant Director. The respondent, who believed that the lack of a succession plan brings many challenges to many provincial departments of sport and recreation, explained that many government employees are frustrated owing to the firm belief that they have been exploited and overworked by the DSAC.

Estedadi et al., (2015:41) indicate that managers need to ensure that planning is prioritised when wishing to achieve the desired outcomes. In the same vein, Timms (2016:1) states that succession planning ‘involves making the preparations required to have the right people ready to fill key roles when vacancies arise’, while Thurmond (2018), in Swanson (2018:45), identifies succession planning as a key facet playing a pivotal role in developing leaders and maintaining a continuous talent pipeline within the organisation. In addition to the significance of the establishment of a succession plan, Swanson (2018:47) lauded the research done by Quinn (2015) that organisational leaders need to recognise the succession plan as a method that is unique in ensuring that there is continuity in the workforce and adequate workforce capacity available within the organisation. The respondents’ insights correlate with the views of Estedadi et al., (2015), Timms 2016, and Swanson (2018), that succession planning is one stressful topics contributing towards the future success of the organisation. The scholars acknowledge the research done by one of the French pioneers (Henri Fayol) in the management field that organisational leaders need to recognise the significance of succession planning.

In reviewing the CDP blueprint, which serves as a strategic document for programme delivery, the research findings show that that the CDP blueprint does not seem to make any provision or provides any context in which programme coordinators could be afforded opportunities to move into leadership positions. Therefore, the lack of succession planning to develop talent and maintain workforce capacity within the programme is likely to influence employees to exit the programme and to seek opportunities elsewhere. The programme coordinator (Respondent 15) expressed the view that the issue of contracts brings many uncertainties to the future and also affects their daily performance. Another programme coordinator (Respondent 16) appealed to the National Government to be vigilant that this practice does not continue to happen for long. The respondent indicated further ‘*when people are not happy, they will not produce the best results*’.

Parallel to this assertion, in past years, many CDP employees have migrated into other programmes to seek better opportunities. The assertion warns organisational leaders to bear in mind that people are regarded as an organisation's most important asset and they wish to feel valued at all times. Therefore, in order to prevent potential loss of institutional knowledge, Timms (2016:5) advises that senior managers need to pass their knowledge onto their employees before they seek better opportunities elsewhere. Although literature reveals that an effective recruitment process is fundamental towards the programme's success, Timms (2016:7) argues that the cost of recruitment (advertising, payment of agent fees, etc) can be very expensive and that the recruitment process may be time consuming to find the right person for the job, so it is crucial for senior leaders to identify someone within the organisation and to start empowering that person with training on how the new role is expected to be done.

6.2.5.10 The lack of accountability and transparency

Of the respondents, 16% believe that the programme lacks accountability and transparency. Burger and Goslin (2005), British Triathlon (2007), Leinster Rugby Club (n.d.), Chiweshe (2014) and Ibsen et al., (2015) stress that the lack of accountability and transparency are among the factors that hinder the success of the programme. The research reveals that the findings are congruent with those that emerged from the study conducted by the SDP IWG (2008). The SDP IWG (2008:253) highlights that, for a community programme to be successful, SPOs need to ensure that the programme commits to transparency and accountability. In the same vein, the IHRB report (2018:4) also advocates that accountability and transparency are important elements of the programme's success. In addition, Chiwese (2014:27) acknowledges that, in most African countries, the lack of accountability, maladministration and corruption continue to remain the key challenges that contribute to the failure of a community sport programme.

One of the examples that provides a justification for the view that the programme seems to lack accountability and transparency, is associated with the fact that programme coordinators responded that it is not their responsibility to visit community clubs but that of federations. In turn, federations indicated that it is not their

responsibility to visit community clubs, but that of LFAs. The following responses exemplify the revealed sentiment that the programme is lacking accountability:

... things go missing without us knowing and no one is held accountable. For example, trophies were procured under the budget of CDP, but it was used by the federation for something or to advance their own agenda that is not related to the betterment of the CDP (Respondent 16 – programme coordinator).

It is not our responsibility as SAFA to visit clubs, but it is the responsibility of the LFA (Respondent 24 – federation liaison official).

it is not part of my job description to visit community clubs (Respondent 18 – programme coordinator).

With respect to transparency, all the community clubs that are part of the CDP of the targeted provinces for the study, felt clearly that the programme lacks transparency because since they joined the programme in 2017, the government officials had not told them anything about the initial purpose of the CDP. Therefore, the research findings of the study suggest that the majority of the respondents have less knowledge of what the programme seeks to achieve. In particular, Respondent 2 (community club official) felt that the provincial government does not share their budget with their community clubs. Historically, most of the community sports clubs in Africa, particularly in South Africa, rely on the government to provide support in terms of education and training, equipment, facilities, clothing, transport, etc. In light of the historical background and the view that the CDP budget is minimal, one might argue that it is not necessary for the programme coordinators to share their operational budget with community clubs. This assertion originates from the belief that, if the programme coordinators disclose the budget to community clubs, the majority of community clubs are likely to continue to depend on the government for financial support and may make little effort to ensure that their respective clubs are self-sustainable.

Although the CDP blueprint (2006:10) indicates that DSAC will remain responsible for the overall project (planning, implementation and monitoring of services), one might argue that the CDP blueprint does not make a clear provision for who is primarily responsible for the club visits. Evidence that emerged from the findings suggests that there is no accountability in terms of the roles and responsibilities of all the key stakeholders involved in the development of the programme. In Denmark, for example,

the board is elected annually by club members to ensure that the systems are in place in order for the club to be self-sustainable. This practice implies that there appears to be accountability within the sports club because the elected members understand the roles that they ought to execute within the club.

6.2.5.11 The lack of frequent communication

Generally, communication is regarded as one of the fundamental principles of management. Amongst many scholars, Ismail et al. (2012:101), emphasise that the lack of effective communication leads to a project being unsuccessful. The respondents (16%) agreed that the lack of frequent communication is one of the factors that hinder the success of the programme. In justification of these findings, the respondents affirmed that the only time the government communicates with their clubs is when they are informed about capacity-building courses and when an equipment handover events are about to take place. The following remarks by the community club officials affirm the findings:

They have never visited our club since we joined the programme in 2017. We only meet with them during equipment collection (Respondent 1 –community club official).

Government has no clue or idea what is happening with the club, and clubs have also got no clue what the programme is all about (Respondent 2 – community club official).

Due to a lack of communication from the government, we do not know what is going to happen to us because we have been on the programme for more than 3 years with minimal assistance from government (Respondent 3 –community club official).

In addition to a lack of communication, Respondent 13 (community club official) raised the concern that the government has a tendency to make empty promises. Then, at the eleventh hour, the government does not seem to make any effort to communicate with clubs that they are no longer able to organise transport. Parallel to this finding, two of the senior officials (Respondents 20 and 21) in the programme also acknowledged that the CDP lacks frequent communication and productive consultation with key stakeholders. In light of the finding that there appears to be a lack of communication between the club officials and senior officials of the programme, it is evident that this contradiction affirms that the programme coordinators do not visit clubs frequently. Furthermore, it is concerning to learn that the senior officials of the programme, though agreeing with the apparent lack of frequent communication with

clubs, nevertheless have not developed a better system likely to be effective towards the enhancement of communication with community clubs.

6.2.5.12 The lack of adequate and competent personnel

The lack of adequate and competent personnel emerged to be one of the factors believed to contribute to the hindrance of the CDP. In support, Roth and Brooks-Gunn (2003:173) affirm that the existence of competent personnel is considered among the crucial factors that help the programme to achieve its objectives. Furthermore, the authors caution that, in efforts to achieve organisational goals, the programme needs to have personnel who at least possess social and cognitive competencies. In the context of social competency, personnel need to be able to communicate well with others and to resolve conflict when it arises. With regard to cognitive competency, the scholars indicate that personnel need to have the ability to think, solve problems, make decisions and set goals.

The research findings show that a conflicting view exists between theory (CDP blueprint) and practice (programme implementation). In respect to theory, the CDP blueprint makes provision that one of its strategic objectives is to develop the human resource potential for the management of sport and recreation in South Africa (Club Development Project, 2006:4). In addition to the significance of the human resource towards successful implementation, other scholars such as Misener and Doherty (2009), Van Baalen and De Coning (2011), and Hums and Maclean (2013) emphasise that, for a community sport programme to produce the outputs and outcomes it desires, human resources play a fundamental role. Given the finding that the programme seems to lack adequate and competent personnel, the research findings of the study infer that more personnel need to be employed to assist with the effective delivery of the programme. The following responses provide a justification for why the respondents felt that the programme needs adequate and competent people:

... in this province, the programme is understaffed because there is one coordinator servicing all the clubs within this district. (Respondent 22)

... in this district, there is less than five coordinators from the provincial office who are ensuring that the programme is effectively implemented in various communities. (Respondent 20)

In addition, it was found that community football clubs and players also believed that the programme does not have sufficient personnel because the programme coordinators have not yet visited them. Another example pointing to the lack of adequate personnel, was when Respondent 20 affirmed that the reports submitted to the National Government by provinces are not verified by anyone. Furthermore, the respondent disclosed that, in most cases, the national office cannot identify and verify whether the reports are fabricated because they are already understaffed. In light of the view that the human resources aspect has been one of the strategic objectives of the CDP since 2006, one might argue that the senior management responsible for the design and implementation of the programme have not prioritised increasing personnel on the programme. This assertion derives from the viewpoint that the programme has been in existence for more than a decade but the findings show that the programme lacks adequate and competent personnel.

In efforts to ensure that the programme achieves its mandate, the research findings suggest that the government needs to prioritise developing an effective recruitment system. This suggestion accentuates that the government needs to invest in qualified personnel who are capable of developing systems that will help the programme to achieve its objectives. Astle et al. (2019:178) emphasise that, in order for a programme to be successful, it is crucial for the practitioners to check constantly whether the implementation is aligned with the objectives. Therefore, this correlation confirms that, without the appropriate and qualified personnel, the programme goals are less likely to be achieved. For further reference on the significance of the human resources, see Section 6.2.4.6.

6.2.5.13 The lack of motivation

Another factor that emerged as a hindrance to the success of the programme was the lack of the motivation. Of the respondents, 16% emphasised that the CDP lacks the motivation for it to succeed. In the context of the finding, the respondents (15, 16, and 18) expressed their dissatisfaction that they have been on the programme as coordinators for more than five years, yet they are still on contracts with no substantial benefits. In support of the finding, another community club official (Respondent 9) emphasised that the programme lacks motivation. This perspective stems from the observation in most CDP clubs that there is a low spirit of collegiality amongst the

players and management. The respondent added that incentives are important as they have great potential to help community clubs to achieve their strategic objectives. Interestingly, it was found that one of the senior government officials seemed to be aware of the subject, yet not much action was taken to ensure action is taken to increase the programme coordinators' work satisfaction. Respondent 19 acknowledged the challenge and proposed that, in order for programme coordinators and community volunteers to execute their mandates dutifully, it is crucial for government to give them long-term contracts with tangible benefits, and to pay volunteers a stipend. The respondent also believed that this approach might assist the departments in ensuring that the coordinators and volunteers do not just leave without serving a reasonable notice period because they would have signed a contract with the provincial department.

Muscalu and Ciocan (2016:153) state that the success or failure of an organisation is linked intrinsically to how managers treat their employees. Motivation and retention are crucial to success not only at the organisational level, but also at the level of the departmental project or plan. Although the senior officials might argue that they have less control over the budget allocation, one might contest that, notwithstanding the financial challenges that the programme has, the provincial and community club managers need to explore other ways to motivate employees. In support of this assertion, the scholars emphasise that senior leaders have the greatest influence in increasing employee motivation. Moreover, the authors add that the highest degree of satisfaction among employees is attained when they are given financial rewards (Muscalu & Ciocan, 2016:153).

With regard to the definition, the theorists advise that the project leaders need to keep their focus on motivating and retaining employees since they asserted that, in the 21st century, such facets have great influence in enhancing employee performance within the organisation. Given the notion of the scholars, it is evident that motivation is undoubtedly the most powerful actor that managers need to consider when wishing to implement the programme successfully. In support of the scholars' views, the respondents also mentioned that motivation plays a significant role in the success of the programme.

6.2.5.14 Poor relationships with key partners

Of the targeted study participants, 13% indicated that the CDP appears to be ineffective within communities owing to the lack of partnership with key stakeholders involved in the programme. With reference to the CDP blueprint, it is evident that there appears to be a contradiction since the guidelines make reference to the DSAC and provincial departments being primarily responsible for the establishment, coordination and maintenance of partnerships together with other key tiers of the programme (Club Development Project, 2006:6). Interestingly, the findings reveal that the senior officials of the programme affirmed that DSAC signed the MoU with the provincial departments of sport as well as with the provincial sport confederations as formal partners to assist with the implementation of the programme.

In contrast, the programme coordinators (SPOs) opposed the views of the senior officials by articulating that the programme does not have official partners. The following statements represent the views of the senior government officials of the programme (Respondents 19, 20 and 22):

DSAC signed a MoU with the provincial departments of sport and the local sport councils.

In contrast, the programme coordinators (Respondent 15, 16, and 17) said:

The department does not have an official partner, but does get assistance from the federations and district councils frequently (Respondent 1).

There is no institution or organisation that is in partnership with the government to assist with successful implementation of the programme in different communities (Respondent 16).

We do not have official partners in the Club Development Programme. The money that we give to the federation is for the payment of clubs to be registered and affiliated with the federations. We are paying for the service that the federations will be providing (Respondent 17).

Interestingly, the findings suggest that there appears to be a conflict between the senior government officials and the programme administrators, also known as SPOs. This assertion stems from the belief that, if the MoUs were in existence, the programme administrators as the key drivers of the programme would have been aware of the existence of the partnership. As indicated earlier, literature accentuates

that relationship building with key stakeholders is regarded as one of the pivotal forces that play a crucial role when wishing for a community programme to be implemented successfully. Many scholars and organisations (public and private) across the world have conversed about the importance and benefits of partnership towards developing a successful community programme. Kickbusch and Quick (1998), Watt (2003), Green (2008), Kokko et al., (2009), Maleka (2015), and Bouah (2015) echo that partnership plays a significant role in ensuring that the development of community programmes becomes successful, and further propose that sport administrators need to develop programmes that seek to promote solidarity amongst the key potential partners involved in the programme implementation. Robson and Partington (2013:133) assert that one of the important benefits of partnership is the potential to identify and eliminate duplication of services between two partners.

Parallel to the views of the scholars, Goal no. 8 of the the 2015 MDGs report recognised the need for the development of a global partnership towards the programme's success, while Goal no. 17 of the SDGs also makes a reference that, for the community programmes to be sustainable, the establishment of a partnership with key stakeholders is of paramount importance. The SDGs and the 2018 IHRB report also emphasises that the establishment of a multi-stakeholder coalition is important because collective effort plays a key role in the coordination of achieving the SDP agenda. In light of the finding that the programme coordinators, provincial liaison officials, and community clubs affirmed that the planning sessions are done internally and that no external agencies are invited, one might argue further that the responses suggest that the key respondents seem to undermine the role that the key stakeholders could play in ensuring that the programme attains its goals. Therefore, it is crucial that the key respondents consider inviting stakeholders who play a crucial role in communities to assist with the implementation of the programme.

In efforts to ensure that the programme achieves its objectives, the findings reveal that the SPOs need to acknowledge the need for establishing strong partnerships with all relevant key partners because partnerships are most likely to provide solutions to a whole range of community issues.

6.2.5.15 The process of awarding contracts to service providers

Another factor that emerged as a key challenge within the programme is the process of awarding tender contracts to corporates. One of the programme coordinators (Respondent 15) described a transversal contract as a business deal where the National Government entered into an agreement with a particular company to be a sole provider to service and supply all nine provinces in the country with sporting equipment and attire. Respondents 15 and 21 (both programme coordinators) criticised the endorsement as they believed that such a practice is unfair and does not create any job opportunities for local businesses. With respect to these sentiments, Respondent 21 believed that, to a certain degree, a transversal tender has a negative impact on the programme. The respondent further expressed the view that one of the greatest oversights is that such a service provider is likely to inflate their prices and, as a result, one might not be able to go to another service provider to purchase quality equipment owing to the agreement that the national department had entered into. In support of this motion, Respondent 15 (programme coordinator) echoed Respondent 21 (senior government official) by commenting:

... this tender is rigged in a smart way where there is a contract. This means that DSAC signs a deal with one service provider. So every province buys from that service provider.

The aforementioned respondents believe that this tender process prevents other local businesses from gaining exposure and demonstrating their products and services because the government would have signed a deal with a company to the exclusion of all others. In respect of the view that such a provider is located far away from many provinces, the research findings indicate that this approach is likely to pose a great threat to the CDP because it may take a long time for community clubs to return equipment or attire if they are not satisfied with the production quality.

6.3 Summary

This chapter sought to present and analyse the study's findings on the design and implementation of the CDP. It was also within the purview of the chapter to assess and discuss the factors that hinder the effectiveness of the design and implementation of the programme in selected football communities in South Africa. The chapter thematically presented the fieldwork results and subsequently developed the research

findings in relation to the effective design and implementation of the CDP in the selected football communities in South Africa. The data presented and discussed in the chapter, emerged from the insights derived from the dominant approaches and practices informing the design and implementation of the CDP; the success factors in implementing the CDP in South African communities; the frameworks used to assess the impact of the CDP's implementation; strategies employed to improve the implementation of the CDP; and the factors hindering the success of the CDP in South Africa.



CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND FUTURE AREAS OF STUDY

7.1 Introduction

This Chapter focuses on the conclusions emerging from the findings of the study. This study sought to analyse the design and implementation of DSAC's Club Development Programme in selected football communities, while the secondary aim was to understand the factors that have hindered the effective implementation of the programme in selected football communities since its inception. Understanding and knowledge of the generic principles and approaches contributing significantly to the CDP in South Africa are not known. Therefore, to fill such gaps, the research questions that the study addressed were:

1. What are the international theoretical approaches and practices regarding the design and implementation of the club development programmes?
2. What are the success factors in implementing the CDP in South African communities?
3. What model/framework is used to assess the outputs, outcomes and impacts of the implementation of the CDP?
4. What options could be ideal for improving the implementation of the programme within communities?
5. What are the factors hindering the effective delivery of the implementation of the CDP?

This chapter begins with an overall summary of the conclusion, followed by recommendations and areas for future research. It is, therefore, crucial to note that the conclusion, recommendations, and areas for future research emanate from the findings and development of the themes that emerged in Chapter Six.

7.2 Conclusion

7.2.1 The dominant approaches and practices informing the design and implementation of the CDP in South Africa

The findings indicated that none of the programme coordinators involved in the study were certain about the approaches and practices that are dominant in the design and

implementation of the CDP in various South African communities. The findings further revealed that none of the current CDP coordinators were involved in the concept development of the CDP in 2006. This view provides the reasoning for the programme appearing to lack uniformity and further provides a context for why the programme coordinators were found to be implementing the programme according to their understanding. Considering the findings which indicate that most of the key respondents, including programme coordinators and senior officials were not part of the concept development and lacked the necessary training for effective programme implementation, and were still expected to successfully implement the programme in various communities, one may posit suggested that the programme is unlikely to achieve its objectives.

On the basis that the findings reveal that the majority of the key respondents (programme coordinators and senior officials) were not involved in the concept development and also have not received training that enable them to implement the programme effectively, and yet, were expected to implement the programme successfully in various communities, one may posit that the programme is likely not to achieve its objectives.

7.2.2 Theme Two: Success factors important for the implementation CDP in South African communities

For this section, the conclusion will be drawn from five factors that were found important for the effective implementation of the programme namely: the availability and deployment of resources; capacity building, partnership collaboration, invitation of community clubs to planning sessions, the development of a mentorship programme, and hosting the national championship event.

With reference to the availability and deployment of resources, the findings suggest that the CDP management has invested minimal basic resources into the programme. The findings and literature claimed that the lack of resources for strategic deployment contribute significantly to the dysfunctionality of the programme. The government needs to be strategic and intentional in its efforts to understand the challenges that community clubs face. The lack of finance, human capital, information and physical resources were believed to be the key factors that play a crucial role in the success of

the CDP. Given the finding that that the CDP is mostly funded through the DoRA grant and that the grant is not sufficient to sustain all the CDP activities and programmes, it is important that the government should think of different ways to generate more revenue. As far as 'human resourcing' is concerned, the findings revealed that the programme lacks administrative support. The CDP management need to bear in mind that more personnel are needed to assist with the rollout of the programme in different communities. In addition, the findings revealed that the current administrators involved in the programme have not received training regarding implementation. Literature alludes to the fact that administrative capacity is of paramount importance as effective implementation requires individuals who possess the ability to give strategic input towards planning and, thereafter, to be able to follow through.

Regarding 'informational resources', the government needs to empower community officials frequently with the information that enables their respective clubs to be self-sustainable. Since most of the community club officials stated that they do not have much information about what the CDP is all about, this finding gives evidence that community clubs are seldom visited by government officials. Despite the emphasis that information is a crucial element of successful implementation, the findings show that the CDP blueprint does not provide detailed information regarding how the programme is expected to be implemented, monitored and evaluated.

Sports facilities, equipment and apparel were viewed as essential attributes for effective implementation. Although the DSAC has honoured its commitment, as mentioned in the CDP blueprint, that basic equipment and apparel would be provided to community clubs, the findings of the study indicate that the basic resources (equipment and apparel) provided to community clubs are insufficient and deemed to be of low quality.

Next, capacity building was considered a crucial factor when implementing the programme successfully in communities. The programme coordinators were found not to be familiar with all the contents of the CDP blueprint. This emanates from the view that there seems to be a discrepancy between how the programme is supposed to be implemented (theory) and how it is implemented (practice). The findings revealed that education and training workshops were facilitated in a language that participants do

not understand, with English being the dominant language used during the capacity-building workshops. This response could mean that there was a potential language barrier in terms of the learning and that the majority of the respondents did not comprehend fully the contents that were facilitated at the workshop. Furthermore, the findings show that the CDP coordinators possess little understanding regarding how the programme ought to be implemented. This conclusion stems from the finding that the programme coordinators affirmed that they implement the programme according to their own understanding. The assertion means that the programme coordinators have not been allowed the opportunity to understand the comprehensive mandates and roles of the CDP; hence, they rely on their own knowledge and experience when implementing the programme. Moreover, this finding provides evidence that the CDP coordinators have different perceptions in their understanding of how the programme is expected to be implemented.

The third factor found to be instrumental and at the forefront of the programme's success was collaboration through partnership. With reference to the objectives of the CDP, partnership development with relevant stakeholders is deemed important. The CDP blueprint shows that, for the programme to be successful, the National Government needs to commit to developing, coordinating and maintaining a partnership with the tiers of government (provincial and local). A contradiction exists since the key respondents indicated that the programme lacks effective partnerships with key stakeholders. This finding gives rise to the view that the relationship between all three spheres of the South African government needs to be reinforced. In light of this finding, one might conclude that the lack of recognising effective partnership has played a negative role in the effective implementation of the programme. Some literature stresses that, to create an enabling environment where communities are participating actively, the partnership needs to be considered because it can reduce the duplication of activities and can also assist in mobilising more skills, resources and approaches to influence any matter which an organisation may not be able to achieve alone.

Therefore, the SPOs need to bear in mind that partnership brings different organisations together with their aims to achieve agreed upon common goals and, through such a partnership approach, everyone involved is a winner. Furthermore, the

study found that the majority of the respondents indicated that they had forged a partnership with certain organisations in their respective communities; however, the MoUs were non-existent. The literature cautioned against the adoption of the apparent behaviour because it is vital for the SPOs to understand and be clear on the demarcations of the new venture. The Improvement and Development Agency (I&DeA, 2009:5) report suggested that it is useful to seek clarity on what the common purpose of the partnership is, especially when working with a group of people. This view provides a broader understanding of the expectations of all parties before a partnership agreement is reached. The I&DeA (2009) report indicates that lack of clarity about the common purpose of the partnership tends to lead to confusion and, as a result, progress may be compromised, while on the other hand, shared commitment to a specific goal transforms and brings stability to the group, and prevents the chaos that might have arisen otherwise.

The development of a mentorship programme and the significance of club invitations to the CDP planning sessions were found to play a pivotal role in the establishment of a successful community programme. Given the view that the respondents deemed the programme's implementation ineffective, DSAC management needs to acknowledge the inclusion of a mentorship programme within the CDP. DSAC needs to ensure that in each community, community role models are identified and are given the opportunity to be involved in the programme. Evidence emerging from the study shows that community clubs were not being invited by the government to attend the planning sessions regarding the CDP. Therefore, for the programme to achieve its objectives, the government and community club officials need to understand that civil citizens play a significant role in developing effective strategies that could assist in the implementation being effective in communities. The exclusion of civil citizens from the CDP planning sessions means that the delivery of the programme is most likely to fulfil the desires of the SPOs, and not of the communities.

7.2.3 The model or framework used to assess the outputs, outcomes and impacts of the CDP implementation

In efforts to address the research question, the findings revealed that the majority of government officials who took part in the study across the targeted provinces stated that the CDP does not have a specific model that guides how the programme ought to

be effectively implemented in their respective provinces. However, of the key respondents, some (Respondents 17, 18, and 19) indicated that they follow the model and guidelines, as outlined in the NSRP, to implement the programme successfully in their respective provinces and communities, while others said that they are yet to see the model that guides how the CDP needs to be implemented in communities. In the review of the NSRP and CDP documents, the findings show that neither document makes provisions concerning how the programme is expected to be implemented. It is concerning to note that the NSRP is the policy framework for sport and recreation that was specifically designed for implementation purposes, but the document review shows that the NSRP does not provide a clear guideline and layout of how the CDP ought to be implemented in communities. The study found that the programme coordinators seem to have a lack of understanding of the contents of the NSRP because the policy does not provide detailed information about programme implementation.

Furthermore, it is concerning to discover that the NSRP acknowledges community clubs as one of its strategic objectives. Given this acknowledgement, one would expect that the National Government would prioritise community clubs by ensuring that the model for successful implementation is established and that the basic resources required are in place to make the programme and community clubs sustainable. This assertion stems from the findings that the budget allocated to the CDP is not sufficient to make the programme and community clubs sustainable. Evidence emerged revealing that political influence and interference impact the implementation of the programme negatively as some of the DSAC and provincial management were reported to tamper with the CDP budget whenever they wish and, as a result of such practice, the CDP budget is used to advance the agenda of other programmes that are not even CDP related.

Similar to the views of the coordinators, the findings also show that community club officials do not have a model that they follow to ensure that programmes and activities are implemented effectively in their respective settings. The majority of the community clubs asserted that they rely on their knowledge and experience as club administrators when it comes to the implementation. In the finding that there is no unified model relevant to the programme implementation, it could be concluded that the CDP and

community clubs are anticipated to take longer than expected to reach their set objectives. Therefore, this study appeals that the DSAC needs to look into developing a standardised model to which the programme coordinators and community club officials could refer when wishing to implement the programme successfully in their respective provinces. The proposed model will be crucial as it is believed to eliminate the probability of the respondents appearing to implement the programme in accordance with their own understanding. Furthermore, said model is anticipated to bring stability to the programme and to play a vital role in ensuring that there is continuity in the programme, particularly in unforeseen circumstances when coordinators explore other opportunities that may arise within and outside the CDP setting.

7.2.4 Factors important to improving the implementation of the CDP in South Africa

The fourth research question looked at how the implementation of the programme can be improved. This question provided different strategies that could be valuable in improving the implementation of the programme. In addressing this question, the provision of capacity building (such as education and training), consultation with key role players, designing an effective programme for monitoring and evaluation, developing an effective data-management system, developing an effective recruitment system, providing sufficient support for community clubs, creating a system for the prevention of the abuse of power, aligning the club's achievement with incentives, programme review, and research capacity within the CDP were found to be unique factors that could play a pivotal role in improving the implementation of the CDP in the South African context. The study found that the majority of the programme coordinators are not sufficiently empowered to understand fully the contents of the CDP so that the programme can be implemented successfully in various communities. Similarly, the findings also indicated that community clubs lack an understanding of the purpose of the CDP. The findings reveal that there is a need for the DSAC to empower community club officials and programme coordinators with courses that would help the respondents to acquire knowledge on what initiatives are ideal for raising funds for the programme and clubs, so that the financial situation may improve.

The respondents called for the government to develop a system that will help to store important data and documents that are crucial for the CDP. This finding is believed to give the government an overview of the scope of the implementation, minimise the chances of crucial information getting lost, and ensure that valuable information is documented and stored properly. The lack of recognition of potential community organisations and the ongoing inconsistencies between the key stakeholders of the programme is a great concern. The study found that the establishment of a resilient partnership among the key stakeholders of the programme is essential in ensuring that the CDP and community clubs achieve their set goals. The findings revealed that, overall, monitoring and evaluation remain a challenge for the programme and for community clubs. This concern is raised on the grounds that the CDP blueprint does not provide comprehensive details about how the programme will be monitored and evaluated and also on the premise that the programme coordinators were reported rarely to visit community clubs.

The study further notes that the strategic recruitment process is considered a vital part of human resources management owing to its ability to help the organisation and managers to find and hire talented and qualified personnel for the advertised positions. The findings reveal that the government needs to focus on recruiting more administrators with relevant qualifications, experience, and skills to assist with the implementation of the programme. In efforts to recruit more administrators to assist with the implementation of the programme, the government must be strategic in ensuring that all those interested in the programme go through a rigid recruitment process. The need for the management to keep their focus on retaining those who are currently involved with the implementation was found to be of paramount importance. The finding revealed that the majority of the programme coordinators felt that they had been involved with the programme for many years, yet they were still on contracts without many benefits. Prevention of the abuse of power from the national, provincial and federation officials was found to be a factor central to the improvement of the CDP.

The findings affirm that abuse of power is taking place in the programme. Officials from the national, provincial and federation offices interfere with how provinces ought to facilitate the programme and spend their budgets. A non-exhaustive list of examples illustrating instances of abuse of power within the programme is provided. The

introduction of the transversal system, the CDP resources going missing and being used to advance the agenda of other programmes and the easy access to the provincial budgets without the consent of the provincial managers are indicative of maladministration. On the other hand, the case of a community club being banned from participating in the structured league without due process being followed illustrates how the abuse of power impacts targeted communities. This finding affirms that the programme is marred by a lack of repercussions; hence, some of the national and provincial leaders continue to misuse the resources without any conscience.

Although some community clubs have been empowered with capacity-building courses, evidence on the ground shows that community clubs are driven by incentives. If the government endorses the GAMPHIF model, which is facilitated by one of its service providers to deliver content on education and training, the findings indicate that the service provider needs to align incentives with the club's achievement because the majority of the community clubs stated that incentives help them to work harder and aim to achieve more. In efforts to ensure that the programme is implemented effectively in communities, the National Government needs to acknowledge the need to appoint an external organisation that could assist frequently with the reviewing of the programme. This proposition stems from the view that the programme appears to be lacking a model that can be endorsed by the departments of sports to ensure that the CDP is implemented, monitored and evaluated effectively. Given the broader challenges that arose concerning implementation, it is crucial that the emphasis for restoring the CDP is on redefining the roles and responsibilities of each party involved in the development and promotion of the programme.

Moreover, the identified organisation may focus on assisting DSAC through research and producing sound recommendations that can contribute greatly to how the programme can improve and achieve its goals. It is important for the DSAC to recognise that independent organisations are crucial for developing an objective feedback system that could help the programme coordinators to understand holistically where the potential gaps may be within the programme. In light of the view that each province implements the programme differently, DSAC management needs to prioritise developing a uniform approach that could be adopted by other provinces that have the CDP. In efforts to understand and deliver programmes that address

community needs, it is vital for the DSAC and provincial departments of sports and recreation to visit community clubs frequently.

7.2.5 Factors hindering the success of the CDP in South Africa

The study found that the CDP operates with a minimum budget. This contributes significantly to the programme not achieving its objectives. Moreover, the programme was found to be administered in a manner that is not satisfactory: the programme's budget was reported to have been used to advance other programmes that are not CDP related; equipment is provided to community clubs that have already received the same or similar equipment within a short period; government officials allow any member representing the club to attend training workshops; payment for transport services covering local trips (urban trips) is almost the same for those providing transport services in the rural areas; and community clubs are invited to attend the same courses that they have already attended in past years. The lack of inclusion of sport content in the South African Constitution was found to be among the factors that hinder the success of the CDP. The majority of the respondents believed that if sport, in general, were prioritised in South Africa like other programmes, as outlined in the NPP (such as education, agriculture, renewable energy, tourism, trade and industry, etc) as is the case in other continents such as South America, Europe, Asia, and other parts of the world, community sports clubs would benefit immensely because sport would get attention from the National Government.

Adequate and competent personnel (such as administrators and volunteers) were found to be lacking in the programme. The findings indicated that the current programme coordinators had not been sufficiently trained to implement the programme successfully. Hence, they rely on their own knowledge and understanding to implement it. Literature reveals that the emphasis on community development is to educate and involve community members frequently in the process of individual empowerment and community change. Although the government makes efforts to empower community clubs with education and training, the data revealed that community clubs throughout the province receive this benefit inconsistently and unequally if at all. In addition, most of the capacity-building courses that were offered by government were perceived to lack quality and, as a result, the training offered by the government was reported to have had minimum impact in assisting community

clubs to be self-sustainable. This assertion stems from the finding that community club officials indicated that the structure of the workshops is not conducive to learning because the content that should be facilitated over at least two to three months, is covered over a period of two to three days. Also, work is expected to be submitted overnight which practice they found to be counterproductive, and certain courses that were provided (such as facility management) were found not to be relevant for community club officials to be self-sustainable since clubs do not own facilities, but the municipality does. Moreover, the finding indicates that the inability to provide quality education and training to community members and programme coordinators was of great concern.

The lack of motivation was also found to be one of the factors that hinder the success of the CDP. Motivation is undoubtedly the most powerful actor that managers need to consider when wishing to implement the programme successfully. The findings revealed that the majority of the programme coordinators seem to be demotivated while being involved in the programme because they have been on contracts for many years, and because the programme does not seem to have a succession plan. This view infers that, if the government does not initiate strategies that focus specifically on retaining the SPOs that have been involved in the programme for a longer period of time, the programme is likely to lose valuable personnel. The study found that the programme coordinators have not been visiting community sports clubs frequently. In light of this finding, it is concluded that the programme coordinators and federation liaison officials have neglected community clubs for years. Regular communication with community clubs and key partners of the programme ought to be prioritised. Since the programme coordinators seem to lack sufficient training and understanding concerning the implementation of the CDP, the study found that the programme, in turn, lacks mentors who possess an influential role to assist, support and guide the programme coordinators to implement the programme successfully and help community clubs to be self-sustainable. The existing ineffectual relationship with key stakeholders of the programme was found to be of great concern.

The research findings show that there is minimum communication between the government and community clubs that are part of the CDP. It is therefore vital for the government to acknowledge community clubs as prominent forces that can assist the

CDP to achieve its set objectives. Although transparency and accountability were identified as factors noted to have a positive influence on the theme factors important for improving the implementation of the CDP in South African communities, interestingly, said factors were also considered to be a hindrance towards the success of the programme. These factors emerged from the standpoint that the programme coordinators (as government officials) responded that it is not their responsibility to visit community clubs, but that of federations. On the other hand, federations stated that it is not their responsibility to visit community clubs, but the responsibility of the LFAs. One member from the LFA stated that it is not their responsibility to visit community clubs. These responses give reason for great concern because DSAC gave birth to the CDP. Therefore, it is expected that the provincial department of sport and recreation should take full accountability for the lack of club visits because CDP belongs to them, and not to federations or to LFAs. This assertion implies that the government needs to be more involved in liaising frequently with community clubs to better understand their challenges.

7.3 Recommendations

Although the study acknowledges the significant progress made by the DSAC through the CDP (since its inception in 2006) within the various community settings in South Africa, the recommendations drawn here serve as an indication of the areas that DSAC ought to take into account when wishing to implement the programme successfully and ultimately to attain its strategic objectives, as set out in the CDP blueprint and the NSRP. The recommendations are developed based on the findings and conclusions that emerged from the study. For the programme to be implemented effectively and attain its desirable objectives as set out in the CDP and NSRP blueprint, this study recommends:

- for the DSAC management to identify their key partners strategically and to ensure that the relationship with their key partners is strengthened in order to promote tolerance, diversity and non-discrimination within the programme;
- for the roles and responsibilities of each potential partner in the programme to be defined clearly and understood from the preliminary phases of the engagement meetings of stakeholders;

- platforms to be prioritised that enable the programme's stakeholders to give valuable input concerning the effective implementation of the CDP;
- for the CDP blueprint to provide a clear strategic position concerning the development of mentorship, incentives, and monitoring and evaluation programmes;
- for the DSAC management to introduce mechanisms to ensure that the CDP resources are not misused;
- for the programme coordinators to prioritise providing courses that capacitate community clubs to raise more funding and to be self-sustainable;
- for the CDP management to be diligent when recruiting new personnel;
- that the recruits need to have the background, qualifications and experience that are relevant to community development;
- for the DSAC not to lose those with institutional knowledge within the programme, it is advisable that the CDP management should focus on compensating the current SPOs fairly because motivation has a great influence on enhancing employee performance within the organisation;
- for all the programme coordinators to undergo rigid training that will enable them to acquire knowledge, skills and, most importantly, an understanding of what is expected of them when implementing the programme in their respective communities;
- for the CDP coordinators to create a conducive learning environment by assessing the content that will be facilitated by the service providers and to also ensure that courses are tailored to suit the needs and serve the interests of the community clubs;
- for the CDP coordinators to make an effort to communicate frequently with community clubs so that they could gain a broader understanding of the challenges that community clubs are faced with on a daily basis;
- CDP management ought to ensure community clubs that have not yet received sufficient clothing and equipment are prioritised;
- DSAC and provincial governments ought to strengthen their relationship with local government because the infrastructure belongs to the municipalities, which falls under the local government;

- SPOs should encourage community club officials to recognise open spaces in their respective communities as infrastructure that can host a variety of sporting activities;
- CDP management should look into developing a standardised model or framework that all its key stakeholders with common interests could refer to when wishing to implement the programme successfully in their respective provinces;
- the development of a system to store valuable data and important documents concerning the CDP must be prioritised;
- DSAC management should focus on establishing an independent task team that will be responsible for the review of the CDP and further produce an objective report that is centred around the monitoring and evaluation of the programme;
- for the programme to improve and achieve its goals, the CDP management should not use the CDP budget to advance the mandate of other programmes;
- to promote transparency and accountability, and to curb the abuse of power within the programme, the DSAC management should ensure that there are repercussions;
- CDP management should develop incentive programmes for community clubs that are making an effort to be self-sustainable;
- for capacity-building courses to be meaningful and impactful, the CDP coordinators should ensure that only key representatives from community clubs attend;
- programme coordinators must invite community clubs to their planning sessions so that community clubs can contribute to bringing solutions concerning the effective implementation of the CDP;
- that the league structure must be within the setting in which the CDP clubs are located to minimise the abrupt depletion of the travelling budget,
- establish a mechanism to create awareness about the CDP, and to help increase mass participation;
- CDP management needs to develop a succession plan for its administrators;
- DSAC management should prioritise providing SDOs with a contract that has better benefits;

- CDP management should involve influential individuals from the community and encourage them to become mentors and activists of the programme and community clubs; and
- national and provincial officials of the CDP should not interfere with the budget of the CDP.

7.4 Proposed guidelines for sustainable implementation of the CDP

In light of the recommendation that DSAC and CDP management need to develop a standardised model or guideline that would be considered for assessing the outputs, outcomes and impacts of the implementation of the CDP in communities, the following steps are considered vital in building a sustainable development programme in South Africa:

Step 1: Revise the CDP concept

The study recommends that, for the programme to be implemented successfully and sustainably, CDP management needs to revise the concept and to ensure that the concept is well defined, relevant and contributes greatly to the strategic objectives of developing community sports. The need to revise the concept originates from the finding that the majority of the key respondents found the programme in existence and did not get an opportunity to make any contribution.

Step 2: Identify, consult and invite key partners to CDP planning sessions

As discussed earlier in this chapter, the CDP management must ensure that the key partners are identified purposefully, consulted and most importantly, invited to the planning sessions concerning the development and promotion of the CDP. The study found that the key partners that could have a positive influence in planning sessions to discuss the effective implementation of the programme are: NGOs, corporates (public and private), civil society, different spheres of government, universities, community schools, police forums, community volunteers, traditional leaders and community clubs. This proposal is derived on the basis that it was felt by the respondents that there is a lack of partnership in the programme, and that some partners who are considered important in the community development discipline, were not invited to the planning sessions of the CDP.

Step 3: Define the development process and scope of the plan with all key stakeholders

CDP management should ensure that all stakeholders have a strong connection to work with each other and to understand the scope of the tasks at hand. The rationale concerning the priority of the tasks must be clearly defined.

Step 4: Agree on clear roles and responsibilities

In this step, CDP management must clearly define and agree on the roles and responsibilities of all the parties involved. The CDP needs to ensure that the MoU is drawn up among all the partners involved in the programme. The MoU plays a significant role in minimising confusion, preventing duplication of tasks, and promoting accountability amongst partners.

Step 5: Analyse the situation and develop scenarios

Government needs to create a platform where all the stakeholders are provided with an opportunity to assess whether they can deliver the programme efficiently. Therefore, for CDP management to understand fully the potential problems that each partner may encounter, the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) analysis should be applied. CDP management must ensure that the analysis is as inclusive as possible and it ought to be manageable with the available resources of the programme. This analysis will help the government to develop contingency plans, in the event that the resources are running low, to address the key challenges that may exist within the programme.

Step 6: Set priorities and measurable targets

This step is important because the government and its partners will gain a broader understanding of what should be prioritised and will indicate in which area of the programme the resources should be invested. This phase also proposes that the government needs to set targets that are simple, measurable, attainable, realistic and timeline driven.

Step 7: Provide capacity building for all key partners

It is recommended for government to ensure that all key partners involved in the programme undergo training. Government should bear in mind that capacity-building

programmes can influence the community positively, empower members with adequate skills that are valuable for successful implementation, enabling community members to remain committed to the set objectives and empowering members to develop ideal structures that are effective in achieving goals.

Step 8: Develop a succession plan

It is recommended for CDP management to develop a succession plan for its administrators. In an effort to retain those with institutional knowledge within the programme, CDP management should strive to design an employment contract with better benefits.

Step 9: Develop monitoring and evaluation strategies

In light of the view that the programme and community clubs lack monitoring and evaluation, it is advisable for government to ensure that it appoints someone outside of the organisation who specialises in monitoring and evaluation. The development of an efficient and frequent feedback system helps government to understand where the gaps are and how the programme can improve. Data on the performance of the implementation programme should be collected and analysed to determine whether the objectives are being met.

Step 10: Support the programme with the primary resources

The CDP blueprint highlights that one of the strategic objectives of the programme is the provision of primary resources. It is recommended for CDP management to ensure that the provision of basic resources is highlighted within the programme. Government is advised to ensure that those community clubs that have not received quality and sufficient equipment and clothing are prioritised. An efficient system needs to be created pertaining to transport.

Step 11: Develop programme management and implementation plan

To ensure that the programme is implemented successfully and achieves its set goals, CDP management needs to be transparent to all its key partners. It needs to ensure that the systems and processes about how the programme is managed are in place. Basic resources must be made available to all community clubs. CDP management

should ensure that all community clubs are visited frequently. Any potential risks associated with the implementation must be identified.

Step 12: Ensure a proper communication plan

CDP management should ensure that a proper communication system is in existence. Regular communication must be prioritised with key partners of the programme. The programme must be coordinated in a language understood by all the parties who are involved with its implementation.

Step 13: Learn the lessons

In light of the view that implementation is an ongoing process, it is recommended that CDP management periodically analyse what worked and what did not. It is crucial for CDP management along with its key partners to identify success stories and failures. This approach will help it gain awareness of the attributes that contribute to successful implementation and how the programme can improve. Moreover, this approach will allow CDP management to regroup and to refocus on areas that may need to be strengthened.

7.5 Areas for future research

This study presents vast opportunities for potential future research. The themes proposed here as potential areas for future research have emerged from the study and, therefore, based on its emerged findings, it is advised that future research should focus on:

- the role that federations play in helping the programme to achieve its strategic objectives.
- the impact of education and training workshops (Club Smart training) provided by the contracted service providers to the CDP clubs.
- determining whether the GAMPHIF model that is used by the service provider appointed by DSAC is suitable to help community clubs be sustainable.
- the effectiveness of the monitoring and evaluation of the programme.
- determining whether the current strategic objectives (as outlined in the CDP blueprint) are aligned with the international concept of developing a community sports club.

- the efficacy of the criteria for issuing certificates to the CDP clubs.
- the efficacy of the allocation of the CDP budget in South Africa.
- the efficacy of the process for identifying and verifying new clubs to be beneficiaries of the CDP.

7.6 Contributions made by the study

This study contributed to addressing five key questions (as outlined in Chapter One) that were important for the programme to be implemented successfully in South African communities. Overall, this study contributes to a generic CDP blueprint by addressing the gaps which largely hinder the success of the programme in selected football communities in South Africa. This study also contributes to the limited and growing academic literature on the design and effective implementation of community sports club programmes with reference to South Africa and Africa at large. Furthermore, the recommendations of this study will influence the South African government policy with special reference to the CDP through the proposed framework for improving and sustaining the implementation of a community sports development programme in South Africa. A sustainable framework for the implementation of the CDP was developed from the findings that emerged from the study.

7.7 Final concluding remarks

In efforts to address the research questions as outlined in Chapter One, the study revealed that the programme coordinators did not seem to know the dominant approaches and practices informing the design and implementation of the CDP. To ensure that the programme achieves its goals, the programme management ought to ensure that all relevant stakeholders are engaged to learn more about the concept design. The findings revealed that the programme coordinators who have been involved in the CDP for years are often overlooked. In light of the finding that tailored courses must be prioritised, CDP management must ensure that, for courses to be impactful, facilitation occurs in languages with which community club officials are comfortable. The government is advised to prioritise considering local universities, NGOs, corporates, community members and community sports clubs as key potential agents for the programme because they are capable of making a meaningful impact in communities. The provincial governments are further advised to exercise caution

and not rely solely on the National Government for funding because the National Government may reduce funding drastically at any given time as experienced in Canada.

Since the inception of the programme in 2006, the CDP has been operating without a unified model or framework that is specifically tailored and could be adopted as a guideline for the successful implementation of the programme. The CDP guideline and NSRP policy documents do not provide detailed information concerning the model or framework that ought to be followed when wishing to implement the programme successfully in South African communities. This finding may justify why the programme was perceived not to have achieved its strategic objectives and that the coordinators implement the programme according to their own understanding. Therefore, the development of a standardised model will serve as a guideline that is likely to bring stability to the programme and may also play a pivotal role in ensuring that there is continuity in the programme, particularly under circumstances when the coordinators explore other opportunities that may arise within and outside of the CDP setting. It is evident that, if properly managed, the CDP has great potential to create a strong identity among community members and also to contribute positively to the development of sport in South Africa.

The majority of the key respondents were not involved in the concept development, yet they were expected to implement the programme successfully in various communities. The findings further revealed that the programme lacks effective partnerships with its key stakeholders, therefore, it is crucial that the relationship of all three spheres of the South African government be strengthened. The provision of quality education and training to all key partners involved in community development is of paramount importance to making the programme successful. To manage the resources of the CDP properly, it is imperative for government to develop data-management systems that will provide information about what community clubs have received since they joined the programme. The periodic system for the development of monitoring and evaluation plays a huge role in the success of the programme. The programme is constrained financially, therefore, the government is advised to take the initiative of exploring other avenues to generate more revenue. Repercussions within

the CDP need to be prioritised by the management of the programme with efforts to ensure that the programme's resources are channelled towards the right usage.

Moreover, in order for the programme to be designed and implemented effectively within South African communities, the development of appropriate leadership and governance mechanisms must be prioritised with the aim to curb, prevent and overcome the practices associated with corruption at government and community club level.



REFERENCES

- Akandes, G. (2020). What model for football club management in Africa? In: Onwumechili, C (ed.). *Africa's elite football: Structure, politics and everyday challenges*. London: Taylor & Francis Group:178-196.
- Alexandris, K. & Balaska, P. (2015). Sport clubs in Greece. In: Breuer, C., Hoekman, R., Nagel, S. & van der Werff, H. (eds). *Sport clubs in Europe: A cross national comparative perspective*. Switzerland: Springer:209-219.
- Allison, M. (2001). *Sports clubs in Scotland: Summary of a research study for Sportscotland*. Edinburgh:Sportscotland.
- Amara, M. & Ishac, W. (2021). Sport and development in Qatar. In Tinaz, C. & Knott, B. *Sport and development in emerging nations*. New York: Taylor & Francis Group:141-153.
- Appelcryn, N. (2012). *Club development concept document: Inspiring new ways*. Unpublished internal memorandum.
- Association of Summer Olympic International Federation. (2022). ASOIF GTF International federation governance project: Examples of good governance practice 2021-2022. https://www.asoif.com/sites/default/files/download/asoif_gtf_2021-22_good_practice_examples_-_20_june_2022.pdf. [14 September 2022].
- Astle, A., Laberman, S. & Watson, G. (2019). *Sport development in action: Plan, programme and practice*. London: Taylor & Francis Group.
- Australian Football League. (2004). *AFL club management program: Junior development for football clubs*. Sydney: Australian Football League.
- Awoma, C.I., Okakah, R.O. & Arainwu, G. (2015). Facilities/equipment as predictor of sport development in Edo state, Nigeria. *European Journal of Research in Social Sciences*, 3(3):61-67.
- Babiak, K. & Thibault, L. (2009). Challenges in multiple cross-sector partnerships. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 38(1):117-143.
- Bailey, B. (2015). Club development system: Lessons learnt from Western Cape. Twenty years of freedom and democracy: A focus on club development; from policy to practice in South Africa. Department of Sport and Recreation. *Think sport. Journal of Sport and Recreation*, 2(4):63-70.
- Ball, J.W., Bice, M.R. and Parry, T. (2014). Adults' motivation for physical activity: Differentiating motives for exercise, sport, and recreation. *Recreational Sports Journal*, 38(2):130-142.
- Bhandari, H & Yasunobu, K. (2009). What is social capital?: A comprehensive review of the concept. *Asian Journal of Social Sciences*, (37):480-510.

Birungi, C. (2014). Country report: Uganda: In Keim, M. & De Coning, C. (eds). *Sport and development policy in Africa: Results of a collaborative study of selected country cases*. Stellenbosch: Sun Press:153-172.

Bloyce, D. & Smith, A. (2010). *Sport policy and development*. London. Routledge.

Bolton, N., Fleming, S. & Elias, B. (2008). The experience of community sport development: A case study of Blaenau Gwent. *Managing Leisure*, 13(2):92-103.

Borgogni, A., Digennaro, S. & Sterchele, D. (2015). Sport clubs in Italy. In Breuer, C., Hoekman, R., Nagel, S. & van der Werff, H. (eds). *Sport clubs in Europe: A cross national comparative perspective*. Switzerland: Cham: Springer:249-269.

Bouah, L. (2015). *An analysis of the implementation of the national sport and recreational plan in the Western Cape*. Unpublished PhD Dissertation, University of the Western Cape (UWC), Bellville, South Africa.

Bravo, G., Parrish, C. & de D'Amico. (2016). Introduction: Sport in Latin America. In Bravo, G., de D'Amico, R.S. & Parrish, C. (eds). *Sport in Latin America: Policy, organisation and management*. London. Taylor & Francis Group:1-18.

Bravo, G & Silva, J. (2014). Sport policy in Chile. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 6(1):129-142.

Brazil. (2010). Constitution of the Federative Republic of Brazil (3rd ed.). Notice 1 of 1992. Government Gazette:1-435, October 5.
<https://www.globalhealthrights.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/Brazil-constitution-English.pdf> [20 May 2018].

Brazil. (2017). Constitution of the Republic of Brazil. Constitution of 1988 with amendments through 2017. Government Gazette:1-162.
https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Brazil_2017.pdf?lang=en [20 May 2018].

Brinkmann, S. (2013). *Qualitative interviewing. Understanding qualitative research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Brentwood Borough Council. (2011). *Sports development strategy:2007–2011*.
<http://www.brentwood.gov.uk> [20 May 2016].

Breuer, C. & Wicker, P. (2011). *Sports development report 2009/2010: Analysis of sport clubs' situation in Germany*. Abbreviated Version. Cologne: Sportverlag Strauß.

Breuer, C., Feiler, S. & Wicker, P. (2015). Sport clubs in Germany. In: Breuer, C., Hoekman, R., Nagel, S. & van der Werff, H. (eds). *Sport clubs in Europe: A cross national comparative perspective*. Swaziland. Cham: Springer International Publishing: 187-208.

Breuer, C. & Feiler, S. (2017). *Sport development report 2015/2016: Analysis of the situation of sports clubs in Germany*. Abbreviated Version. Bonn: Sportverlag Strauß.

British Triathlon. (2007). *Club development guide*.

https://www.britishtriathlon.org/wales/documents/resources/club-info/development/welshtriathlondocument_web_final.pdf [20 May 2019].

Brynard, P., Cloete, F. & De Coning, C. (2011). Policy implementation. In Cloete, F. & De Coning, C. (eds). *Improving public policy: Theory, practices and results*. Pretoria. Van Schaik:135-169.

Buchthal, O.V., Taniguchi, N., Iskandar, L. & Maddock, J. (2013). Assessing state-level active living promotion using network analysis. *Journal of Physical Activity and Health*, 10(1):19-32.

Burger, S. & Goslin, A.E. (2005). Best practice governance principles in the sports industry: An overview. *South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation*, 27(2):1-13.

Burton, L. and Leberman, S. (2017). New leadership: rethinking successful leadership of sport organisations. In: Burton, J. and Leberman, S. (eds). *Women in sport leadership: Research and practice for change*. London. Routledge: Taylor & Francis Group: 148-161.

Byers, T., Slack, T. & Parent, M. (2012). *Key concepts in sport management*. Los Angeles. Sage.

Cardenas, A. (2013). Peace-building through sport? An introduction to sport for development and peace. *Journal of Conflictology*, 4(1):24-33.

Casey, M.M., Payne, W.R. & Eime, R.M. (2009). Partnership and capacity-building strategies in community sports and recreation programs. *Managing Leisure*, 14(3):167-176.

Chappell, R. & Seifu, E. (2000). Sport, culture and politics in Ethiopia. *Culture, Sport Society*, 3(1):35-47.

Chappell, R. (2008). Sport in postcolonial Uganda. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*, 32(2):177-198.

Chavinier-Rela, S., Bayle, E. & Barget, E. (2015). Sport clubs in France. In Breuer, C., Hoekman, R., Nagel, S. & van der Werff, H. (eds). *Sport clubs in Europe: A cross national comparative perspective*. Switzerland: Cham: Springer:161-185.

Chiweshe, M.K. (2014). The problem with African football: Corruption and the (under) development of the game on the continent. *African Sports Law and Business Bulletin*, 2:27-33.

Choi, E., Park, J.J., Jo, K. & Lee, O. (2015). The influence of a sports mentoring program on children's life skills development. *Journal of Physical Education and Sport*, 15(2):264-271.

Coakley, J. (2011). Youth sports: What counts as 'positive development'. *Journal of Sports and Social Issues*, 35(3):306-324.

Coalter, F. (2005). The social benefits of sport: An overview to inform the community planning process. *SportScoland Research Report*, Edingburg: University of Stirling, 98(1):1-42

Coalter, F. (2010). The politics of sport-for-development: Limited focus programmes and broad gauge problems. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 45(3):295-314.

Collins, M & Sparkes, D. (2010). Managing development in club sport: The amateur swimming associations and swim 21. In Collins, M. (ed). *Examining sports development*. Routledge: Taylor & Francis Group. London:167-184.

Coulson, A. (2005). A plague on all your partnerships: Theory and practice in regeneration. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 18(2):151-163.

Creswell, J.W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. (3rd ed). Los Angeles: SAGE publications.

Creswell, J.W. & Creswell, J.D. (2018). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches*. Glasgow. SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J.W. and Plano Clark, V.L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. (2nd ed.). Los Angeles: SAGE.

Creswell, J.W. & Plano Clark, V.L. (2018). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. (3rd ed). Los Angeles. SAGE.

Dawson, C. (2009). *Introduction to research methods: A practical guide for anyone undertaking a research project*. (4th ed.) Oxford.

De Almeida, B.S., Coakley, J., Marchi Júnior, W. & Starepravo, F.A. (2012). Federal government funding and sport: The case of Brazil, 2004–2009. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 4(3):411-426.

De Coning, C. & Wissink, H. (2011). Nature, role and history of public policy. In Cloete, F. & De Coning, C. (eds). *Improving public policy: From theory, practice and results*. Pretoria: Van Schaik:3-31.

De Coning, C. (2014). The case for sport in the Western Cape: Socio-economic benefits and impacts of sport and recreation. Cape Town, University of the Western Cape (UWC).

De Coning, C. & Wissink, H. (2018). Nature, role and history of public policy. In Cloete, F., De Coning, C., Wissink, H. & Rabie, B. (eds). *Improving public policy: For good governance*. Pretoria: Van Schaik:3-31.

Dixon, M.A., McGarry, J.E. & Evanovich, J. (2019). Community and youth sport. In Pedersen, P.M. & Thibault, L. (eds). *Contemporary sport management*. United States of America: Versa Press:125-142.

Donnelly, P. (2008). Sport and human rights. *Sport in Society*, 11(4): 381-394.

Dopson, S. & Waddington, I. (1996). Managing social change: A process-sociological approach to understanding organisational change within the National Health Service. *Sociology of Health & Illness*, 18(4):525-550.

Dowling, B., Powell, M. & Glendinning, C. (2004). Conceptualising successful partnerships. *Health and Social Care in the Community*. 12(4):309-317.

Dowling, M., Leopkey, B. and Smith, L. (2018). Governance in sport: A scoping review. *Journal of sport management*, 32(5):438-451.

Eady, J. 1993. *Practical sports development*. London: Pitnam.

Eime, R.M., Harvey, J.T., Brown, W.J. & Payne, W.R. (2010). Does sports club participation contribute to health-related quality of life. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise*, 42(5):1022-1028.

Estedadi, E., Shahhoseini, R. & Hamidi, K. (2015). The importance of succession planning in organizations. *Advanced Social Humanities and Management*, 2(3):41-47.

Etikan, I., Musa, S.A. & Alkassim, R.S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics*, 5(1):1-4.

Foster, M.K. & Meinhard, A.G. (2005). Diversifying revenue sources in Canada: Are women's voluntary organizations different?. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 16(1):43-60.

Fried, G. (2015). *Managing sport facilities*. United States. Human Kinetics.

Frydenberg, L.P., Dezotti, F. & Carrano, S. (2016). Football in Argentina and its institutions. In Bravo, G., de D'Amico, R.S. & Parrish, C. (eds). *Sport in Latin America: Policy, organisation and management*. London. Taylor & Francis Group: 229-243.

Gillies, P. (1998). Effectiveness of alliances and partnerships for health promotion. *Health Promotion International*, 13(2):99-120.

Gouws, J.S. (2001). *Sport management: Theory and practice*. Johannesburg: Knowledge Resources.

Gratton, C. & Jones, I. (2010). *Research methods for sport studies*. London: Routledge.

Green, B.C. (2005). Building sport programs to optimise athlete recruitment, retention, and transition: Towards a normative theory of sport development. *Journal of Sport Management*, 19: 233-253.

Green, B.C. (2008). Sport as an agent for social and personal change. In Girginov, V. (ed). *Management of sports development*. Amsterdam: Elsevier:129-145.

Habyarimana, J.D.D., Tugirumukiza, E. & Zhou, K. (2022). Physical education and sports: A backbone of the entire community in the twenty-first century. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(12):7296.

Hager, M.A. & Brudney, J.L. (2011). Problems recruiting volunteers: Nature versus nurture. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 22(2):137-157.

Hall, G. & Reis, A. (2019). A case study of a sport-for-development programme in Brazil. *Bulletin of Latin American Research*, 38(3):317-332.

Harris, S., Mori, K. & Collins, M. (2009). Great expectations: Voluntary sports clubs and their role in delivering national policy for English sport. *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 20(4):405-423.

Hendricks, B. (2015). Club development toolkit. Twenty years of freedom and democracy: A focus on club development; from policy to practice in South Africa.

Hodge, K. & Sharp, L.A. (2016). Case studies. In Smith, B. & Sparkes, A.C. (eds). *Routledge handbook of qualitative research in sport and exercise*. London: Taylor & Francis Group:62-74.

Hoekman, R., van der Werff, H., Nagel, S. & Breuer, C. (2015). Introduction. In Breuer, C., Hoekman, R., Nagel, S. & van der Werff, H. (eds). *Sport clubs in Europe: A cross national comparative perspective*. Switzerland: Cham: Springer :1-5.

Holt, N.L. & Neely, K.C. (2011). Positive youth development through sport: a review. *Revista Iberoamericana de Psicología de Ejercicio y el Deporte*, 6(2):299-316.

Houlihan, B. & White, A. (2002). *The politics of sports development: Development of sport or development through sport?* New York: Routledge.

Hoye, R. & Nicholson, M. (2009). Australia. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 1(2):229-240.

Hoye, R., Smith, A.C.T., Nicholson, M. & Stewart, B. (2015). *Sport management: Principles and applications*. 4th ed. London. Taylor & Francis Group.

Hums, M.A. & MacLean, J.C. (2013). *Governance and policy in sport organizations*. 3rd ed. Arizona, Scottsdale.

Hutchison-Krupat, J. & Kavadias, S. (2015). Strategic resource allocation: Top-down, bottom-up, and the value of strategic buckets. *Management Science*, 61(2):391-412.

- Hylton, K. & Bramham, P. (2008). Models of sports development. In Girginov, V. (ed). *Management of sports development*. Amsterdam: Elsevier:41-58.
- Hylton, K. & Totten, M. (2013). Community sport development. In Hylton, K. (ed). *Sport development: Policy, process and practice*. London: Routledge:80-126.
- Ibsen, B., Osterlund, K. & Laub, T. (2015). Sport clubs in Denmark. In Breuer, C., Hoekman, R., Nagel, S. & van der Werff, H. (eds). *Sport clubs in Europe: A cross national comparative perspective*. Switzerland: Cham: Springer:85-110.
- Ibsen, B. & Levinsen, K. (2019). Collaboration between sports clubs and public institutions. *European Journal for Sport and Society*, 16(2):187-204.
- Improvement and Development Agency. (2009). Making partnership work better in the culture and sport sector. London. I&DeA.
- Institute for Human Rights and Business. (2018). *Rights through sport: Mapping 'Sport for Development and Peace'*.
<https://www.ihrb.org/focus-areas/megasporting-events/report-mapping-sport-for-development-and-peace> [16 February 2019].
- Ismail, F., Yusuwan, N.M. & Baharuddin, H.E.A. (2012). Management factors for successful IBS projects implementation. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 68:99-107.
- Jarvie, G. (2003). Communitarianism, sport and social capital: Neighbourly insights into Scottish sport. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 38(2):139-153.
- Jeanes, R., Spaaij, R., Magee, J., Farquharson, K., Gorman, S. & Lusher, D. (2017). 'Yes we are inclusive': Examining provision for young people with disabilities in community sport clubs. *Sport Management Review*, 21(1):38-50.
- Kane, G.M. (2020). Leadership theories. In: Burton, L.J., Kane, G.M. & Borland, J.F. *Sport leadership in the 21st century*. United States of America: Jones & Bartlett Learning. 1-18.
- Keech, M. (2016). Sport policy as a tool for developing countries. In Bravo, G., de D'Amico, R.L. & Parrish, C. (eds). *Sport in Latin America: Policy, organisation and management*. London. Taylor & Francis Group:21-33.
- Keim, M. (2006). *Sport as opportunity for community development and peace building in South Africa*. Cape Town: University of the Western Cape.
- Keim, M. & Bouah, L. (2013) Sport and recreation on Robben Island. *The international journal of the history of sport*, 30(16):1962-1975.
- Keim, M. & De Coning, C. (eds). (2014). *Sport and Development policy in Africa: Results of a collaborative study of selected country cases*. Stellenbosch: Sun Press.
- Khumalo, T. (2013). *Football's rotten core must be excised*. City Press

<http://www.citypress.co.za/you-say/footballs-rotten-core-must-beexcised/> [27 April 2019].

Kickbusch, I. & Quick, J.D. (1998). Partnerships for health in the 21st century. *World Health Statistics Quarterly*, 51:68-74.

Knight, T. Smith, J. & Cropper, S. (2001). Developing sustainable collaboration: learning from theory and practice. *Primary Health Care Research & Development*, 2(3):139-148.

Knott, B. K. (2014). *The strategic contribution of sport mega-events to nation branding: The case of South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup*. Unpublished PhD Dissertation, Bournemouth University, Bournemouth, United Kingdom.

Kokko, S., Kannas, L. & Villberg, J. (2009). Health promotion profile of youth sports clubs in Finland: club officials' and coaches' perceptions. *Health Promotion International*, 24(1):26-35.

Koloba, H.A. & Surujlal, J. (2014). Factors and challenges associated with participation in community sport in Eldorado Park, Johannesburg, South Africa. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(20):30-37.

Kothari, C.R. (2004). *Research methodology: Methods and techniques*. New Dehli: New Age International Limited.

Koski, P., Itkonen, H., Lehtonen, K & Vehmas, H. (2015). Sport clubs in Finland. In Breuer, C., Hoekman, R., Nagel, S. & van der Werff, H. (eds). *Sport clubs in Europe: A cross national comparative perspective*. Swaziland. Cham: Springer :147-160.

Koster, J. (2016). Interview with the researcher on 20 June 2016, Cape Town.

Korr, C. & Close, M. (2010). *More than just a game: Soccer vs Apartheid: The most important soccer story ever told*. London. Collins.

Labonte, R. & Laverack, G. (2001). Capacity building in health promotion, Part 1: For whom? And for what purpose?. *Critical Public Health*, 11(2):111-127.

Leinster Rugby Club. n.d. *Club development toolkit: From the ground up*. https://d2cx26qpfwuhvu.cloudfront.net/leinster/wp-content/uploads/2016/07/18123629/Fundraising-Toolkit-2019_web2b.pdf [27 April 2020].

Levermore, R. (2008). Sport: a new engine of development? *Progress in Development Studies*, (8)2:183-190.

Lindsey, I. & Banda, D. (2010). Sport and the fight against HIV/AIDS in Zambia: A 'partnership approach'? *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 46(1):90-107.

- Lussier, R.N. & Kimball, D.C. (2014). *Applied sport management skills*. (2nd ed.) Human Kinetics.
- Lyras, A. & Peachey, J.W. (2011). Integrating sport-for-development theory and praxis. *Sport Management Review*, 14(4):311-326.
- Mackay, R. (1994). Undertaking ESL/EFL programme review for accountability and improvement.
- Macpherson, S. (2012). SPICe briefing: *Community Sport*. Report No. 12/53, August. Edinburgh: Scottish Parliament Information Centre.
- Mafu, N. (2019). Budget speech debate on sport and recreation South Africa on 17 July 2019, Parliament: Cape Town.
- Maleka, E.N. (2015). *Monitoring and evaluation of sport-based HIV/AIDS awareness programmes of selected non-governmental organisations in South Africa: Strengthening outcome indicators*. Unpublished PhD Dissertation, University of the Western Cape (UWC), Bellville. South Africa.
- Ma'mun, A. & Mahendra, A. (2021). Sport and development in Indonesia. In Tinaz, C. & Knott, B. *Sport and development in emerging nations*. New York: Taylor & Francis Group:94-107.
- Manda, Y. (2019). *Analysis and Recommendations for the Management of the Comprehensive Community Sports Club in Japan from a Perspective of the Report of MECSSST*:45-65.
- Maralack, D. (2014). Country report: South Africa: In Keim, M. & De Coning, C. (eds). *Sport and development policy in Africa: Results of a collaborative study of selected country cases*. Stellenbosch: Sun Press:129-151.
- Marlier, M., Lucidarme, S., Cardon, G., De Bourdeaudhuij, I., Babiak, K. & Willem, A. (2015). Capacity building through cross-sector partnerships: A multiple case study of a sport program in disadvantaged communities in Belgium. *BMC Public Health*, 15(1):1306.
- May, T., Harris, S. & Collins, M. (2013). Implementing community sport policy: Understanding the variety of voluntary club types and their attitudes to policy. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 5(3):397-419.
- Mchombo, S. (2006). Sports and development in Malawi. *Soccer & Society*, 7(2-3):318-338.
- McMillan, D.W. & Chavis, D.M. (1986). Sense of community: A definition and theory. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 14(1):6-23.
- Meek, R. & Lewis, G. (2012). The role of sport in promoting prisoner health. *International journal of prisoner health*, 8(3):117-130.

- Mesa-Lago, C. (2005). Social and economic problems in Cuba during the crisis and subsequent recovery. *CEPAL Review*.
- Merkel, D.L. (2013). Youth sport: Positive and negative impact on young athletes. *Open Access Journal of Sports Medicine*, 4:151-160.
- Meyer, M. & Kirsten, M. (2005). *Introduction to human resource management*. South Africa. New Africa Books.
- Mezzadri, F.M., Silva, M., Figueira, K.M. & Starepravo, F.A. (2014). Sport policies in Brazil. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 7(4):655-666.
- Mezzadri, F.M., Maoski, A.P. & Donha, E.L. (2016). The Brazilian state and its involvement with the football industry. In Bravo, G., de D'Amico, R.L. & Parrish, C. (eds). *Sport in Latin America: Policy, organisation and management*. London. Taylor & Francis Group:215-228.
- Mhlongo, T. (2019). Budget speech debate on sport and recreation South Africa on 17 July 2019, Parliament: Cape Town.
- Misener, K. & Doherty, A. (2009). A case study of organizational capacity in nonprofit community sport. *Journal of Sport Management*, 23(4):457-482.
- Mkalipi, K. (2018). Interview with the researcher on 22 May 2018, Cape Town.
- Mohamad, N.A., Talib, N.B., Ahmad, M.F., Shah, I.B., Leong, F.A. & Ahmad, M.S. (2012). Role of community capacity building construct in community development. *International Journal of Academic Research*, 4(1):172-176.
- Morgan, H., Bush, A. and McGee, D. (2021). The contribution of sport to the sustainable development goals: Insights from Commonwealth Games Associations. *Journal of Sport for Development*, 9(2):14-29.
- Moreo, J.J. (2013). Factors influencing the delivery of the club development programme within selected football community clubs in Cape Town, Metropole. Unpublished Masters dissertation, Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT), Cape Town, South Africa.
- Moreo, J.J. (2019). Delivery of sport club development programmes. *South African Journal for research in sport, physical education and recreation*, 41(3):39-50.
- Mouton, C. (2010). The history of programme evaluation in South Africa. Unpublished M Phil Social Science Methods dissertation. Cape Town: University of Stellenbosch.
- Muscalu, E. & Ciocan, F. (2016). Attracting and motivating employees during changes in organization: The role of the human resources department. *Journal of Defense Resources Management*, 7(2):153-158.

Mthethwa, N. (2019). Budget speech debate for sport and recreation South Africa on 17 July 2019, Parliament: Cape Town.

Najafloo, A. (2019). Sport club management. *Journal of Humanities Insights*, 3(03):182-188.

Nagel, S., Schlesinger, T., Wicker, P., Lucassen, J., Hoekman, R., van der Werff, H. & Breuer, C. (2015). Theoretical framework. In Breuer, C., Hoekman, R., Nagel, S. & van der Werff, H. (eds). *Sport clubs in Europe: A cross national comparative perspective*. Switzerland: Cham: Springer:7-27.

Ndee, H.S. (2005). Sport as a political tool: Tanzania and the liberation of Africa. *The International Journal of the History of Sport*, 22(4):671-688.

Nesti, M. (2002). Working in sports development. In Hylton, K., Bramham, P., Jackson, D. & Nesti, M. (eds). *Sports development: Policy, process and practice*. London: Routledge:195-213.

Nichols, G. & Taylor, P. (2015). Sport clubs in England. In Breuer, C., Hoekman, R., Nagel, S. & van der Werff, H. (eds). *Sport clubs in Europe: A cross national comparative perspective*. Switzerland: Cham: Springer:111-130.

Ntloko, N.J. (2016). Multi-stakeholder approach to planning into 2010 FIFA World Cup initiatives: A non-host area in South Africa. Unpublished PhD Thesis, Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT), Cape Town, South Africa.

Parrish, C., Lee, S.S. & Kim, J.H. (2016). The long and winding road of the football industry in Chile. In Bravo, G., de D'Amico, R.S. & Parrish, C. (eds). *Sport in Latin America: Policy, organisation and management*. London. Taylor & Francis Group: 253-269.

Perkins, D.D., Crim, B., Silberman, P. & Brown, B.B. (2004). Community development as a response to community-level adversity: Ecological theory and research and strengths-based policy. In Maton, K.I., Schellenbach, C.J, Leadbeater, B.J. & Solarz, A.L. (eds.). *Investing in children, youth, families, and communities: Strengths-based research and policy*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association:321-340.

Pitney, W.A & Parker, J. (2009). *Qualitative research in physical activity and health professions*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Pye, G. & Pettavino, P. (2016). Sports policy in Cuba. In Bravo, G., de D'Amico, R.L. & Parrish, C. (eds). *Sport in Latin America: Policy, organisation and management*. London. Taylor & Francis Group:89-106.

Rabie, B. (2014). Evaluation models, theories and paradigms. In Cloete, F., Rabie, B. & De Coning, C. (eds.), *Evaluation management in South Africa and Africa*. Sun Media: Sun Press, Stellenbosch.

Rasella, D., Aquino, R. & Barreto, M.L. (2013). Impact of income inequality on life expectancy in a highly unequal developing country: The case of Brazil. *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health*, 67(8):661-666.

Republic of Tanzania. (1967). National Sports Council Act no. 12. <https://tanzlii.org/node/14615> [18 October 2019].

Richardson, C., Cameron, P.A. and Berlouis, K.M. (2017). The role of sport in deradicalisation and crime diversion. *Journal for Deradicalization*, (13):29-48.

Roberts, H.J. & Barrar, P.R.N. (1992). MRP II implementation: key factors for success. *Computer Integrated Manufacturing Systems*, 5(1):31-38.

Robertson, J., Eime, R. & Westerbeek, H. (2018). Community sports clubs: are they only about playing sport, or do they have broader health promotion and social responsibilities?. *Annals of Leisure Research*, 22(2):215-232.

Robson, S & Partington, J. (2013). Partnerships in sport. In Hylton, K. (ed). *Sport development: Policy, process and practice*. London: Routledge:127-149.

Robson, S., Simpson, K., Tucker, L. & Leach, R. (2013). Introduction. In Robson, S., Simpson, K. & Tucker, L. (eds). *Strategic sport development*. London: Taylor & Francis:1-24.

Rocha, C.M. (2016). Public sector and sport development in Brazil. In: Bravo, G., de D'Amico, R.S. & Parrish, C. (eds). *Sport in Latin America: Policy, organisation and management*. London. Taylor & Francis Group: 77-88.

Rogge, J. (2009). Forewords. In Georgiadis, K. (ed). *Olympic truce: Sport as a platform for peace*. Athens: International Olympic Truce Centre:9-11.

Roth, J.L. & Brooks-Gunn, J. (2003). Youth development programs: Risk, prevention and policy. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 32:170-182.

Sandelowski, M. (1995). Sample size in qualitative research. *Research in Nursing & Health*, 18(2):179-183.

Schulenkorf, N., Sherry, E. & Phillips, P. (2016a). What is sport development? In Sherry, E., Schulenkorf, N. & Phillips, P. (eds). *Managing sport development: An international approach*. New York: Taylor & Francis Group: 1-11.

Schulenkorf, N., Sherry, E. & Rowe, K. (2016b). Sport for development: An integrated literature review. *Journal of Sport Management*, 30(1):22-39.

Seippel, Ø. & Belbo, J.S. (2021). Sport clubs, policy networks, and local politics. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 13(3):479-499.

Shafique, O. (2012). Recruitment in the 21st Century. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 4(2):887-901.

Shilbury, D., Sotiriadou, K. & Green, B.C. (2008). Sport development. Systems, policies and pathways: An introduction to the special issue. *Sport Management Review*, 11:217-223.

Simpson, K. & Partington, J. (2013). Strategic partnerships. In Robson, S., Simpson, K. & Tucker, L. (eds). *Strategic sport development*. London: Taylor & Francis Group:148-176.

Singh, P. (2015). Twenty years of freedom and democracy: A focus on club development; from policy to practice. In South Africa. Department of Sport and Recreation (ed.). *Think sport. Journal of Sport and Recreation*, 2(4):10-15.

Skinner, S. (1997). *Building community strengths: A resource book on capacity building*. Community Development Foundation.

Skinner, J., Zakus, D.H. & Cowell, J. (2008). Development through sport: Building social capital in disadvantaged communities. *Sport Management Review*, 11(3):253-275.

Sim, J., Saunders, B., Waterfield, J. & Kingstone, T. (2018). Can sample size in qualitative research be determined a priori? *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 21(5):619-634.

Smith, A. & Waddington, I. (2004). Using 'sport in the community schemes' to tackle crime and drug use among young people: Some policy issues and problems. *European Physical Education Review*, 10(3):279-298.

Smith, B. & Sparkes, A. (2016a). Introduction: An invitation to qualitative research. In: Smith, B & Sparkes, A. (eds). *Routledge handbook of qualitative research in sport and exercise*. London: Taylor & Francis Group:1-8.

Smith, B. & Sparkes, A. (2016b). Qualitative interviewing in the sport and exercise sciences. In: Smith, B & Sparkes, A. (eds). *Routledge handbook of qualitative research in sport and exercise*. London: Taylor & Francis Group:103-123.

Smit, P.J. & Cronje, G.J. (2002). *Management principle: A contemporary edition for Africa*. (3rd ed.). Juta.

Smit, B. (2002). Atlas.ti for qualitative data analysis. *Perspectives in Education*, 20(3):65-75.

Smith, M.F. (2018). *Research methods in sport*. New Delhi: SAGE Publications.

Solomon, M.L. (2008). The management of football development programmes in Gauteng. Unpublished Masters Dissertation. University of Johannesburg (UJ), Johannesburg, South Africa.

Sotiriadou, K. (2009). The Australian sport system and its stakeholders: Development of cooperative relationships. *Sport in Society*, 12(7):842-860.

Sotiriadou, P. & Wicker, P. (2013). Community sports clubs' responses to institutional and resource dependence pressures for government grants. *Annals of Leisure Research*, 16(4):297-314, DOI: 10.1080/11745398.2013.853338.

Sotiriadou, P., Brouwers, J. & Le, T. A. (2014). Choosing a qualitative data analysis tool: A comparison of NVivo and Leximancer. *Annals of Leisure Research*, 17(2):218-234.

South Africa. Department of Sport and Recreation. (n.d.). Club development project draft: A bridge from foundation to elite. Unpublished internal memorandum.

South Africa. (1996). Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. Notice 108 of 1996. Government Gazette. 378(17678):1-146, December 18.
https://www.gov.za/sites/default/files/gcis_document/201409/act108of1996s.pdf [27 April 2019].

South Africa. (2010). Safety at Sports and Recreational Events Act No 2 of 2010
https://www.gov.za/sites/default/files/gcis_document/201409/a22010.pdf [27 April 2019].

South Africa. Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa. (2012). *The White Paper on Sport and Recreation for the Republic of South Africa*. Pretoria: Government printer.

South Africa. Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa. (2013). *National Sport and Recreation Plan*. Pretoria. Government Gazette.
<https://www.srsa.gov.za/sites/default/files/Nat-Sport-and-Recreation-Plan.pdf> [18 April 2017].

South Africa. Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa. (2015). Imbizo: The Nine-Point Plan. Pretoria. Government Gazette. <https://www.gov.za/issues/nine-point-plan> [22 April 2017].

South Africa. Republic of South Africa. (2015). Nine-Point Plan. Imbizo: Together we move South Africa Forward. Government Gazette, Pretoria.

South Africa. Department of Sport and Recreation. (2015). *Think Sport*. *Journal of Sport and Recreation*, 2(4):25-36.

South Africa. Department of Sport and Recreation. (2017). *National sport and recreation financial and non-financial support policy*. Pretoria: Government printer.
<https://www.srsa.gov.za/documents/policies> [27 April 2019].

South Africa. Department of National Treasury. (2019). Budget information: National Budget. Pretoria: Government printer.
<https://www.treasury.gov.za/documents/national%20budget/2019/ene/Vote%2040%20Sport%20and%20Recreation%20South%20Africa.pdf>

South Africa. Department of Sports, Arts and Culture. (2022). *2021-2022 Annual Report*. Pretoria: Government printer.

[https://nationalgovernment.co.za/department_annual/439/2022-department-of-sport-arts-and-culture-\(dsac\)-annual-report.pdf](https://nationalgovernment.co.za/department_annual/439/2022-department-of-sport-arts-and-culture-(dsac)-annual-report.pdf) [30 September 2022].

Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group (SDP IWG). (2008). *Harnessing the power of sport for development and peace: Recommendations to governments*. Toronto: Right to Play International.

Statistics South Africa. (StatsSA). (2013). Millennium development goals: Country report. Pretoria: Government Printer.
https://www.gov.za/sites/default/files/gcis_document/201409/mdgrreport2013.pdf [26 February 2019].

Statistics South Africa. (StatsSA). (2019). Quarterly labour force survey: Quarter 3 Report. Pretoria: Government printer.
<http://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/P0211/P02113rdQuarter2019.pdf> [26 March 2020].

Stenling, C. & Fahlén, J. (2014). Same same, but different? Exploring the organizational identities of Swedish voluntary sports: Possible implications of sports clubs' self-identification for their role as implementers of policy objectives. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 51(7):867-883.

Stewart, B., Nicholson, M., Smith, A. & Westerbeek, H. (2004). *Australian Sport: Better by design?: The evolution of Australian sport policy*. London: Taylor & Francis.

Struwig, F.W. & Stead, G.B. (2001). *Planning, designing and reporting research*. Cape Town: Pearson Education.

Swanson, M.A. (2018). Employee perceptions of succession planning within higher education a qualitative case study. Liberty University.

Swart, K. & Martín-González, R.M. (2021). Sport and development in South Africa. In Tinaz, C. & Knott, B. *Sport and development in emerging nations*. New York: Taylor & Francis Group:154-170.

Taylor, P. (2013). Resources for developing sport. In Hylton, K. (ed). *Sport development: policy, process and practice*. London: Routledge:193-212.

Taylor, T., Doherty, A & McGraw, P. (2008). Recruitment and selection sport organisations. In: Taylor, Doherty and McGraw. *Managing people in sport organisations: A strategic human resources management perspective*. New York: Elsevier:62-80.

Thompson, A., Lachance, E.L., Parent, M.M. & Hoye, R. (2022). A systematic review of governance principles in sport. *European Sport Management Quarterly*. Australia: Taylor & Francis Group:1-26.

Timms, M. (2016). *Succession planning that works: The critical path of leadership development*. Canada: FriesenPress.

Tinaz, C. & Knott, B. (2021). Defining sport and development in emerging nations. In Tinaz, C. & Knott, B. *Sport and development in emerging nations*. New York: Taylor & Francis Group:1-12.

Tonts, M. & Atherley, K. (2005). Rural restructuring and the changing geography of competitive sport. *Australian Geographer*, 36(2):125-144.

Torres, C.R. & Campos, D.G. (2010). Philosophy of sport in Latin America. *Journal of the Philosophy of Sport*, 37(2):292-309.

Tucker, L. (2013). Politics, policy and sport development. In Robson, S., Simpson, K. & Tucker, L. (eds). *Strategic sport development*. London: Taylor & Francis:177-196.

Tutu, T. (2018). Interview with the researcher on 23 May 2018, Cape Town.

United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). (1978). *International Charter of Physical Education and Sport*. https://en.unesco.org/sites/default/files/sport_e.pdf [22 November 2017].

United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (2015). *International Charter of Physical Education, Physical Activity and Sport*. <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000235409> [22 November 2017].

United Nations. United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace (UNIATF). (2003). *Sport as a tool for development and peace: Towards achieving the United Nation Millennium Development Goals*. United Nations Publication.

United Nations. United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace (UNOSDP). (2014). *Annual Report 2013*. Geneva: United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace.

United Nations. United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace (UNOSDP). (2015). *Sport and the Sustainable Development Goals: An overview outlining the contribution of sport to the SDGs*. Geneva: United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace.

United Nations. (2015). *The Millennium Development Goals*. New York.

United Nations. Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2019). World Population Prospect 2019: Major differences in total population estimates for mid 2017–2019 https://population.un.org/wpp/Publications/Files/WPP2019_Release-Note.pdf [09 November 2021].

United Nations. (2020). Sport: a global accelerator of peace and sustainable development for all. UN Secretary-General report. <https://www.un.org/development/desa/dspd/sport-development-peace/unsg-report2020.html> [10 January 2023].

United Nations. (2022). Sport: Catalyst for a better, stronger recovery. 2022 Report of the Secretary-General.

<https://www.un.org/development/desa/dspd/wp-content/uploads/sites/22/2022/08/Highlights-2022SGReport-Sport.pdf> [4 January 2023].

University of Rochester Students' Association Government. (2018). *Club sports manual*.

<https://www.rochester.edu/college/wcsa/assets/documents/clubsports/clubsportsmanual.pdf> [4 January 2019].

Vail, S.E. (2007). Community development and sport participation. *Journal of Sport Management*. 21:571-596.

Van Baalen, J. & De Coning, C. (2011). Programme management. Project management and public policy implementation. In: F. Cloete, F & de Coning, C. (eds) *Improving public policy: Theory, practise and results*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Van Bottenburg, M., Rijnen, B. & van Sterkenburg, J.(2005). *Sport participation in the European Union: Trends and differences*. W.J.H. Mulier Instituut: Centre for Research on Sport in Society.

Van der Werff, H., Hoekman, R. & van Kalmthout, J. (2015). Sport clubs in the Netherlands. In Breuer, C., Hoekman, R., Nagel, S. & van der Werff, H. (eds). *Sport clubs in Europe: A cross national comparative perspective*. Switzerland. Cham: Springer: 271-290.

Van Teijlingen, E. & Hundley, V. (2002). The importance of pilot studies. *Nursing Standard (through 2013)*, 16(40):33-36.

Watt, D.C. (2003). *Sports management and administration*. London: Routledge.

Wefering, F., Rupperecht, S., Bührmann, S. & Böhler-Baedeker, S. (2013). Guidelines: developing and implementing a sustainable urban mobility plan. *European Commission*. 1-151.

Weiss, O. & Norden, G. (2015). Sport clubs in Austria. In Breuer, C., Hoekman, R., Nagel, S. & van der Werff, H. (eds). *Sport clubs in Europe: A cross national comparative perspective*. Switzerland: Springer: 29-45.

Wells, J and Hancock, M. (2017). Networking, mentoring, sponsoring: Strategies to support women in sport leadership. In: Burton, J. and Leberman, S. (eds). *Women in sport leadership: Research and practice for change*. London. Routledge: Taylor & Francis Group:130-147.

Wicker, P. & Breuer, C. (2011). Scarcity of resources in German non-profit sport clubs. *Sport Management Review*, 14(2):188-201.

- Wicker, P. & Breuer, C. (2015). How the economic and financial situation of the community affects sport clubs' resources: Evidence from multi-level models. *International Journal of Financial Studies*, 3(1):31-48.
- Wicker, P., Filo, K. & Cuskelly, G. (2013). Organizational resilience of community sport clubs impacted by natural disasters. *Journal of Sport Management*, 27(6):510-525.
- Willis, O. (2000). Sport and development: The significance of Mathare Youth Sports Association. *Canadian Journal of Development Studies*, 21(3):825-849.
- Wilson, R. (2011). *Managing sport finance*. London: Taylor and Francis Group.
- Winter, M.J. (2017). *An analysis of the abuse of power by leaders in Christian organizations: Cultural comparisons from Canada, Germany and South Africa*. Doctoral thesis, University of South Africa..
- Wolsey, C. & Abrams, J. (2013). Sport policy. In Hylton, K. (ed). *Sport development: policy, process and practice*. London: Routledge:11-36.
- Wright, R.W. (2009). *Understanding the role of sport for development in community capacity building in a refugee camp in Tanzania* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Xiong, H. & Ma. Y. (2021). Sport and development in China. In Tinaz, C. & Knott, B. *Sport and development in emerging nations*. New York: Taylor & Francis Group: 29-44.
- Yin, R.K. (2014). *Case study research: Design and methods*. (5th ed). Los Angeles. SAGE Publication.
- Zhang, L., Lee, M.K., Zhang, Z. & Banerjee, P. (2003). Critical success factors of enterprise resource planning systems implementation success in China. In *36th Annual Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences*.

UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Interview Guide – Provincial coordinators (managers and SPOs)



UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa

Tel: +27 21-959 3823, Fax: 27 21-959 1240

E-mail: 3515704@myuwc.ac.za

FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY

Interview #: _____

Government sphere:

AN ANALYSIS OF THE DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF DSAC CLUB DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME: CASE STUDIES OF SELECTED COMMUNITY FOOTBALL CLUBS IN KWAZULU-NATAL AND THE WESTERN CAPE

Interview guide: Provincial government officials (Community Sport Development Unit)

Thank you for agreeing to be part of the interview. The overall purpose of the study is to develop effective implementation strategies and methods for the development of community football clubs in the Cape Metropolitan and eThekweni Metropolitan areas, South Africa. I would like to encourage you to answer each question to the best of your ability and as honestly and correctly as possible. I wish to assure you that your response will be treated in confidence and that you will not be quoted directly in any report of this research study. However, your response will be considered for the purposes of academic contribution such as adding value in different modes of academic platforms, such as book and article publications as well as international and local conferences. In reassuring you that the information given by you will be held in confidence, your full name will not be disclosed at any given stage, but your title may be considered for the purpose of understanding the unique challenges that your club is faced with. To prevent a situation where your responses are being misinterpreted and incorrectly captured, please grant me your permission to record this session. I wish to assure you that this interview will be kept as concise as possible. Kindly note that participation in this study is voluntary and you are welcome to discontinue with the interview should you feel uncomfortable at any point.

Are you still happy to proceed with the interview?

Theme #1: RESPONDENTS PROFILE

- 1.1 What is your title (position) in the CDP?
- 1.2 What is your overall experience as a sport coordinator?
- 1.3 How long have you been involved with the CDP?
- 1.4 What is your highest qualification?

Theme #2: UNDERSTANDING COMMUNITY SPORTS CLUB

- 2.1 What do you understand by a community sports club?

Theme #3: ORGANISATIONAL CAPACITY BUILDING FOR PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTATION

- 3.1 As a CDP coordinator, how many clubs are you responsible for?
- 3.2 In your department, how many people are employed specifically to ensure that the programme is implemented effectively in communities?
- 3.3 In your view, do you believe that the current personnel who are responsible for the CDP in your office are trained sufficiently to assist the programme to achieve its strategic objectives? Please explain.
- 3.4 Please list the types of training that your department has provided you with in an effort to empower you to implement the programme successfully.
- 3.5 What types of training has your department offers/offered to the community club officials?

Theme #4: LEADERSHIP

- 4.1 What initiatives does your department come up with to assist community clubs in raising funds and becoming self-sustainable?
- 4.2 What management challenges exist and how do you think such challenges should be addressed?

Theme #5: PARTNERSHIP

- 5.1 Who are the formal and/or informal key partners that are assisting your department in ensuring that the programme is implemented successfully within communities?
- 5.2 What is the nature of your partnership?
- 5.3 How long is the partnership for?
- 5.4 Which area of development are the partners focused on and why?
- 5.5 In the absence of formal/informal partnership with key partners involved with the CDP, who do you think your department needs to partner with in ensuring that the programme is implemented successfully within communities?

Theme #6: FINANCES/BUDGET

6.1 Do you feel that the budget allocated to CDP is utilised effectively for the advancement of the programme? Please explain.

6.2 How is the money allocated to assist different football clubs that are currently part of the CDP?

6.3 In the absence of financial resources allocated to your department by the DSAC/SRSA, what do you think your department should do to assist community clubs to be functional?

Theme #7: PROGRAMME DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

7.1 What role did you play in the design of the programme?

7.2 How often annually does your department visit clubs that are currently part of the CDP?

7.3 How often does your department convene a general meeting with its clubs to discuss the issues arising from the programme?

7.4 In your experience, who does your department invite to attend the planning sessions concerning the programme?

7.5 What model does the department follow to ensure that CDP is implemented effectively in various communities?

7.6 Do you believe that the CDP is implemented according to its design? In what way?

7.7 In your opinion, what are the key success factors that are important in implementing the CDP within communities?

Theme #8: GOVERNANCE

8.1 What are the criteria that your department uses to identify a community club to be part of the CDP?

8.2 What sanction is imposed on those community clubs that do not comply with any request from the department?

8.3 In your opinion, have you ever suspected any instance of corruption in your department in particular concerning the management of resources in relation to the CDP? If yes, please explain.

8.4 If corruption exists, how does your department deal with those who are implicated in the corruption?

Theme #9: CDP OBJECTIVES

9.1 With reference to the objectives of the CDP, do you believe that the objectives are aligned with the concept of what a community sports club should be? Please explain.

9.2 Do you feel that the programme is achieving its objectives? Please explain.

Theme #10: PROGRAMME CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

10.1 What factors do you think are hindering the effective implementation of the CDP?

10.2 How do you think your department should respond to the challenges mentioned above?

10.3 What kind of opportunities do you think the programme provides to community members?

Theme #11: PROGRAMME MONITORING AND EVALUATION

11.1 Besides DSAC/SRSA, who monitors and evaluates how the CDP is implemented in your province?

11.2 What process is followed to monitor and evaluate the implementation of CDP in your province?

11.3 In your view, what are the things that you think the programme has achieved successfully since its inception in 2006?

Theme #12: GENERAL COMMENTS:

12.1 Please feel free to add any comment(s) regarding the operation of CDP.



APPENDIX B: Interview Guide – National programme coordinators



UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa

Tel: +27 21-959 3823, Fax: 27 21-959 1240

E-mail: 3515704@myuwc.ac.za

FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY

Interview #:

Government level:

AN ANALYSIS OF THE DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF DSAC CLUB DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME: CASE STUDIES OF SELECTED COMMUNITY FOOTBALL CLUBS IN KWAZULU-NATAL AND THE WESTERN CAPE

Interview guide: National Government officials (Community Sport Development Unit)

Thank you for agreeing to be part of the interview. The overall purpose of the study is to develop effective implementation strategies and methods for the development of community football clubs in the Cape Metropolitan and eThekweni Metropolitan areas, South Africa. I would like to encourage you to answer each question to the best of your ability and as honestly and correctly as possible. I wish to assure you that your response will be treated in confidence and that you will not be quoted directly in any report of this research study. However, your response will be considered for the purposes of academic contribution such as adding value in different modes of academic platforms, such as book and article publications as well as international and local conferences. In reassuring you that the information given by you will be held in confidence, your full name will not be disclosed at any given stage, but your title and/or organisation may be considered for the purpose of understanding the unique challenges that your unit is faced with. To prevent a situation where your responses are being misinterpreted and incorrectly captured, please grant me your permission to record this session. I wish to assure you that this interview will be kept as concise as possible. Kindly note that participation in this study is voluntary and you are welcome to discontinue the interview should you feel uncomfortable at any point.

Are you still happy to proceed with the interview?

Theme #1: RESPONDENTS PROFILE

1.1 What is your involvement/title with the CDP?

1.2 What is your overall experience in the sport discipline?

1.3 How long have you been involved with the CDP?

Less than a year years 3 – 5 ye pre than 5 years

1.4 What is your highest qualification?

Theme #2: PROGRAMME DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

2.1 What was the initial purpose for the existence of the programme?

2.2 What role did you play in the design of the programme?

2.3 What criteria were used to identify community clubs to be part of the CDP?

2.4 What model does your department follow (use) to ensure that the CDP is implemented effectively in various provinces?

2.5 Do you believe that the CDP is implemented according to its design? In what way?

2.6 In your opinion, what are the key success factors that are important in implementing the CDP within communities?

Theme #3: ORGANISATIONAL CAPACITY BUILDING FOR PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTATION

3.1 In your unit, how many people are employed to oversee the CDP across all the provinces in South Africa?

3.2 In your view, do you believe that the current personnel who are responsible for the CDP in your office are trained sufficiently to assist the programme to achieve its strategic objectives? Please explain.

Theme #4: FINANCES/BUDGET

4.1 Do you feel that the budget allocated to CDP is utilised effectively for the advancement of the programme? Please explain.

4.2 In the absense of financial resources allocated to the provincial departments of sport and recreation by your office, what do you think your department should do to assist community clubs to be functional?

Theme #5: CDP OBJECTIVES

5.1 With reference to the objectives of the CDP, do you believe that the objectives are aligned with the concept of what a community sports club should be? Please explain.

5.2 Do you feel that the programme is achieving its objectives? Please explain.

Theme #6: PROGRAMME MONITORING AND EVALUATION

6.1 Who is the independent advisor that has been appointed by your office to monitor and evaluate the implementation of the CDP in different provinces?

6.2 What process does your office follow to monitor and evaluate how the CDP is implemented in the Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal?

Theme #7: OPERATIONS MANAGEMENT

7.1 What factors do you think are hindering the effective implementation of the CDP?

7.2 How do you think your office should respond to the challenges mentioned above?

7.3 In your view, what are the things that you think the programme has achieved successfully since its inception in 2006?

Theme #8: PROGRAMME MANAGEMENT AND SUPPORT

8.1 Please list the types of training that your department has provided you with in an effort to empower you to successfully monitor and evaluate the programme effectively?

8.2 In an event where the allocated resources were not utilised effectively by the provincial departments for the advancement of the CDP, how does your office deal with such cases?

8.3 What kind of opportunities do you think the programme provides to community members?

8.4 Besides football-related programmes, what other activities does your department offer to the community sports clubs in the Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal?

8.5 Following the response(s) provided in 8.4, how often does the department provide the outlined activities to the community clubs per year?

8.6 In your view, do you think CDP is being provided with sufficient attention and support as other programmes (School Sport, Indigenous Games, Infrastructure Planning, Basketball National League, etcetera)? Please support your answer.

Theme #9: PARTNERSHIP

9.1 Who are the formal and/or informal key partners that are assisting your department in ensuring that the programme is implemented successfully within the communities of the Cape Metropole and eThekweni Municipality?

9.2 What is the nature of your partnership?

9.3 How long is the partnership for?

9.4 Which area of development are the partners focused on and why?

9.5 In the absence of formal/informal partnership with key partners involved with the CDP, who do you think DSAC needs to partner with to ensure that the programme is implemented successfully within communities?

Theme #10: GENERAL COMMENTS

10.1 Please feel free to add any comment(s) regarding the operation of the CDP.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME ☺



APPENDIX C: Interview Guide – Provincial federation liaison officials



UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa

Tel: +27 21-959 3823, Fax: 27 21-959 1240

E-mail: 3515704@myuwc.ac.za

FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY

Interview #: _____

Government sphere: _____

Date: _____

AN ANALYSIS OF THE DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF DSAC CLUB DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME: CASE STUDIES OF SELECTED COMMUNITY FOOTBALL CLUBS IN KWAZULU-NATAL AND THE WESTERN CAPE

Interview guide: Provincial Federation Liaison Official (CDP)

Thank you for agreeing to be part of the interview. The overall purpose of the study is to develop effective implementation strategies and methods for the development of community football clubs in the Cape Metropolitan and eThekweni Metropolitan areas, South Africa. I would like to encourage you to answer each question to the best of your ability and as honestly and correctly as possible. I wish to assure you that your response will be treated in confidence and that you will not be directly quoted in any report of this research study. However, your response will be considered for the purposes of academic contribution such as adding value in different modes of academic platforms, such as book and article publications as well as international and local conferences. In reassuring you that the information given by you will be held in confidence, your full name will not be disclosed at any given stage, but your title may be considered for the purpose of understanding the unique challenges that your club is faced with. To prevent a situation where your responses are being misinterpreted and incorrectly captured, please grant me your permission to record this session. I wish to assure you that this interview will be kept as concise as possible. Kindly note that participation in this study is voluntarily and you are welcome to discontinue with interview should you feel uncomfortable at any point.

Are you still happy to proceed with the interview?

Theme #1: RESPONDENTS PROFILE

- 1.1 What is your title (position) in the CDP?
- 1.2 What is your overall experience as a sport coordinator?
- 1.3 How long have you been a federation liaison officer for the CDP for?
- 1.4 What is your highest qualification?

Theme #2: UNDERSTANDING COMMUNITY SPORTS CLUB

- 2.1 What do you understand by a community sports club?

Theme #3: ORGANISATIONAL CAPACITY BUILDING FOR PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTATION

- 3.1 As a federation liaison officer, how many football clubs are you responsible for?
- 3.2 In your view, do you believe that the current personnel who are responsible for the CDP from your office or DSR are trained sufficiently to assist the programme to achieve its strategic objectives? Please motivate.
- 3.3 Please list the types of training that the department/federation has provided you with in an effort to empower you to implement the programme successfully within your district.
- 3.4 What types of training has your federation offered to the community club officials?

Theme #4: LEADERSHIP

- 4.1 As a federation liaison officer, what initiatives do you come up with to assist community clubs in raising funds and become self-sustainable?
- 4.2 What management challenges exist and how do you think such challenges should be addressed?

Theme #5: PARTNERSHIP

- 5.1 Who are the formal and/or informal key partners that are assisting your department/federation in ensuring that the programme is implemented successfully within communities?
- 5.2 What is the nature of the partnership?
- 5.3 How long is the partnership for?
- 5.4 Which area of development are the partners focused on and why?
- 5.5 In the absence of formal/informal partnership with key partners involved with the CDP, who would be your ideal top five partners to partner with in ensuring that the programme is implemented successfully within communities and why?

Theme #6: FINANCES/BUDGET

6.1 Do you feel that the budget allocated to CDP is utilised effectively for the advancement of the programme? Please explain.

Theme #7: PROGRAMME DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

7.1 What role did you play in the design of the programme?

7.2 How often annually do you visit clubs that are part of the CDP?

7.3 How often do you convene a general meeting with all clubs to discuss the issues arising from the programme?

7.4 As a federation liaison officer, who do you invite to attend the planning sessions concerning the club development programme?

7.5 What model do you use to ensure that CDP is implemented effectively in your district?

7.6 In your opinion, what are the key success factors that are important in implementing the CDP within communities?

Theme #8: GOVERNANCE

8.1 What is your role as a federation liaison officer?

8.2 What criteria does your federation use to identify a community club to be part of the CDP? (More clubs in the same area than others).

8.3 What sanction is imposed to those community clubs that do not comply with any request from the department?

Theme #9: CDP OBJECTIVES

9.1 With reference to the objectives of the CDP, do you believe that the objectives are aligned with the concept of what a community sports club should be? Please explain.

9.2 Do you feel that the programme is achieving its objectives? Please explain.

Theme #10: PROGRAMME CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

10.1 What factors do you think are hindering the effective implementation of the CDP?

10.2 How do you think your federation should respond to the challenges mentioned above?

10.3 What kind of opportunities do you think the programme provides to community members?

Theme #11: PROGRAMME MONITORING AND EVALUATION

11.1 Who monitors and evaluates how the CDP is implemented in your province?

11.2 In your view, what are the things that you think the programme has achieved successfully since its inception in 2006?

Theme #12: Good practice model

12.1 In your opinion, which club(s) from the CDP do you think is/are successful and why?

Theme #13: GENERAL COMMENTS:

13.1 Please feel free to add any comment(s) regarding the operation of CDP.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME ☺



APPENDIX D: Interview Guide – Community club officials



UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa

Tel: +27 21-959 3823, Fax: 27 21-959 1240

E-mail: 3515704@myuwc.ac.za

FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY

Interview #:

Club Name:

AN ANALYSIS OF THE DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF DSAC CLUB DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME: CASE STUDIES OF SELECTED COMMUNITY FOOTBALL CLUBS IN KWAZULU-NATAL AND THE WESTERN CAPE

Interview guide for community club officials (Chairperson)

Thank you for agreeing to be part of the interview. The overall purpose of the study is to develop effective implementation strategies and methods for the development of community football clubs in the Cape Metropolitan and eThekweni Metropolitan areas, South Africa. I would like to encourage you to answer each question to the best of your ability and as honestly and correctly as possible. I wish to assure you that your response will be treated in confidence and that you will not be directly quoted in any report of this research study. However, your response will be considered for the purposes of academic contribution such as adding value in different modes of academic platforms, such as book and article publications as well as international and local conferences. In reassuring you that the information given by you will be held in confidence, your full name will not be disclosed at any given stage, but your title may be considered for the purpose of understanding the unique challenges that your club is faced with. To prevent a situation where your responses are being misinterpreted and incorrectly captured, please grant me your permission to record this session. I wish to assure you that this interview will be kept as concise as possible. Kindly note that participation in this study is voluntary and you are welcome to discontinue with interview should you feel uncomfortable at any point.

Are you still happy to proceed with the interview?

Theme #1: RESPONDENTS PROFILE

1.1 What is your title (position) in the club?

1.2 How long have you been involved in the club?

Less than a year years 3 – 5 ye pre than 5 years

1.3 What is your highest qualification?

Theme #2: UNDERSTANDING CLUB DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

2.1 What is your understanding of this programme (CDP)?

Theme #3: CLUB CULTURE

3.1 What are the values of the club?

3.2 How does the club welcome its new members?

Theme #4: CLUB GOVERNANCE

4.1 Does the club have a constitution?

4.2 What is the vision/mission of the club?

4.3 Who developed the club's vision statement?

4.4 Please list all the designations of the board positions that govern your club?

4.5 When did the club become part of the CDP?

4.6 Do members pay a membership fee?

4.6.1 If yes, please explain what is the money being used for?

4.6.2 If no, please explain why not?

4.7 How does the club choose its leaders?

4.8 How long have you been in your position?

Theme #5: MONITORING AND EVALUATION OF THE CDP AT A CLUB LEVEL

5.1 Who monitors the performance of the chairperson/executive of the club?

5.2 Who oversees the implementation of the constitution in your club?

5.3 How often annually does your club governance structure hold meetings?

5.4 When was the last Annual General Meeting (AGM)?

5.5 How often is the club audited annually?

5.6 Who is the independent advisor for the club?

5.7 Looking at how the programme is implemented currently, would you say the department of sport in your province has sufficient personnel to assist with the effective implementation of the programme in different communities?

Theme #6 OPERATIONS MANAGEMENT

- 6.1 How many divisions does your club have?
- 6.2 Approximately, please indicate how many males and females are in your club.
- 6.2.1 Gender: Males Females
- 6.2.2 Please explain why there are more males/females in your club:
- 6.3 Please indicate the different age groups that your club has by ticking the relevant box(es):
- 0–10 years 17 years 18–years 40–54 rs 55 or more
- 6.4 Which age group represents the majority of the members who are active in your club?
- 0–10 years 17 years 18–39 years 40–54 years 55 or more
- 6.5 Linking to 6.4, please provide the reason(s) why the selected age group has more active members than others in your club?
- 6.6 Besides football-related activities, what other programme(s) do(es) the club offer to its community?
- 6.7 Following the response provided in 6.6, how often does the club provide the outlined programme(s) to the community per year?
- 6.8 How often does your club compete with other clubs that are part of the CDP?
- Never han 5 times 5–1s More th times
- 6.9 What qualifications do your office bearers hold?
- 6.10 What model does the club use to ensure that its strategic objectives are met?
- 6.11 Do you believe that the provincial government interferes with how your club executes its tasks? If yes, how?
- 6.12 Who is responsible for the day-to-day operation of the club?
- 6.13 How often per year does government visit your club?
- 6.14 How often does the club convene a general meeting with all its stakeholders to discuss the matters arising from the club?
- 6.15 In your opinion, what are the key success factors that are important in implementing the CDP within communities?

Theme #7: ORGANISATIONAL CAPACITY FOR PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTATION

- 7.1 In your club, who makes the decisions with regard to the direction of the club?
- 7.2 With whom does the club share the minutes (if taken) of meetings?
- 7.3 What type of training has the club governing structure received through CDP?
- 7.4 In your opinion, do you feel that the knowledge and skills acquired from training (as identified in 7.3) have empowered the club representatives fully to implement the programme effectively in your community?
- 7.5 Do you believe that the CDP is implemented according to its design?
- 7.6 Do you feel that the CDP really suits the needs of the club?

Theme #8: VOLUNTEER RECRUITMENT

- 8.1 How many volunteers does your club have?
- 8.2 What qualifications do the volunteers possess?
- 8.3 How does the club recruit its volunteers?
- 8.4 How does the club retain or keep its volunteers motivated?
- 8.5 What type of decision-making powers do volunteers have within your club?
- 8.6 In your view, do you believe that the current administration is trained sufficiently to assist the CDP to achieve its strategic objectives? Please explain.

Theme #9 PARTNERSHIP

- 9.1 Who are the official partners that are assisting the club to ensure that the programme is implemented successfully within communities?
- 9.2 What is the nature of your partnership and how long is your partnership for?

Theme #10: CLUB CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

- 10.1 What factors do you think are hindering the club from achieving its objectives?
- 10.2 How do you think your department should respond to the challenges mentioned above?
- 10.3 What kind of opportunities do you think your club provides to the community?

Theme #11: PLANNING

- 11.1 In your experience, who does the club invite to attend the planning sessions concerning the club development programme?
- 11.2 What role do you think coaches/administrators/players play in assisting your club to achieve its objectives?
- 11.3 What model does the club follow (use) to ensure that its strategic objectives are met?

Theme #12: LEADERSHIP

- 12.1 What initiatives does the club come up with in an effort to raise funds?
- 12.2 How often does the club raise funds in a year?
- 12.3 In the absence of funding from the government, what do you think the club should do to become independent?

Theme #13: PERCEPTION OF SCHEDULE 5A AND 5B OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONSTITUTION

- 13.1 Do you feel that community sports clubs are being prioritised by South African (national) government? Please motivate your answer:

13.2 In reference to the South African Constitution, sport in South Africa is not recognised as a human right. What impact do you think sport will have if the South African Constitution declares it as a human right?

Theme #14: PERCEPTION ON THE DELIVERY OF THE CDP (POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE)

14.1 In your view, what are the things that you think are positive about the CDP?

14.2 In your view, what are the things that you think are negative about the CDP?

Theme #15: GENERAL COMMENTS

15.1 Please feel free to add any other comments concerning the CDP

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME 😊



APPENDIX E: Interview Guide – Community club players



UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa

Tel: +27 21-959 3823, Fax: 27 21-959 1240

E-mail: 3515704@myuwc.ac.za

FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY

Interview #:

Club Name:

AN ANALYSIS OF THE DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF DSAC CLUB DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME: CASE STUDIES OF SELECTED COMMUNITY FOOTBALL CLUBS IN KWAZULU-NATAL AND THE WESTERN CAPE

Interview guide for community club players/volunteers

Thank you for agreeing to be part of the interview. The overall purpose of the study is to develop effective implementation strategies and methods for the development of community football clubs in the Cape Metropolitan and eThekweni Metropolitan areas, South Africa. I would like to encourage you to answer each question to the best of your ability and as honestly and correctly as possible. I wish to assure you that your response will be treated in confidence and that you will not be directly quoted in any report of this research study. However, your response will be considered for the purposes of academic contribution such as adding value in different modes of academic platforms, such as book and article publications as well as international and local conferences. In reassuring you that the information given by you will be held in confidence, your full name will not be disclosed at any given stage, but your title may be considered for the purpose of understanding the unique challenges that your club is faced with. To prevent a situation where your responses are being misinterpreted and incorrectly captured, please grant me your permission to record this session. I wish to assure you that this interview will be kept as concise as possible. Kindly note that participation in this study is voluntary and you are welcome to discontinue with interview should you feel uncomfortable at any point.

Are you still happy to proceed with the interview?

Theme #: CLUB CULTURE

1.1 What are the values of the club?

Theme #: CLUB GOVERNANCE

2.1 Does the club have a constitution?

2.2 What is the vision/mission of the club?

Theme # OPERATIONS MANAGEMENT

3.1 Besides football-related activities, what other programme(s) do(es) the club offer to its community?

Theme #: PLANNING

4.1 Besides being a player, what role do you play in the club?

4.2 Are players normally invited to attend strategic planning sessions for the club?

Yes/No:.....

If no, what do you think the reasons are for not being invited?

Theme #: CLUB CHALLENGES AND SUCCESSES

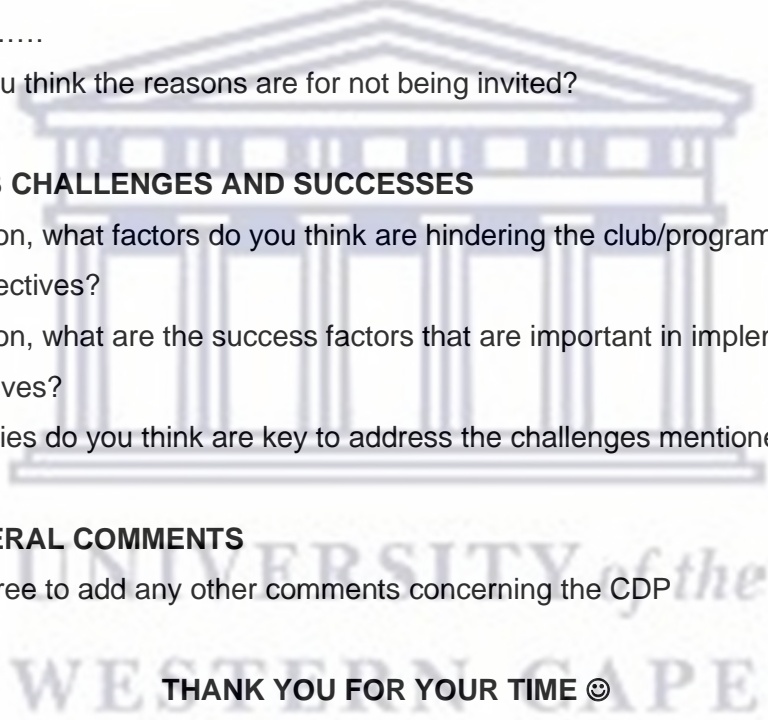
5.1 In your opinion, what factors do you think are hindering the club/programme from achieving its objectives?

5.2 In your opinion, what are the success factors that are important in implementing the club/CDP objectives?

5.3 What strategies do you think are key to address the challenges mentioned above?

Theme #: GENERAL COMMENTS

6.1 Please feel free to add any other comments concerning the CDP



APPENDIX F: Fieldwork consent letter – KwaZulu-Natal



sport and recreation

Department:
Sport and Recreation
PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL

**OFFICE OF THE HEAD OF
DEPARTMENT**

Private Bag X 9141
Pietermaritzburg, 3200
Tel: (+2733) 897 9452
Fax: (+2733) 8979422

Enq: N. Lafeni
Nombulelo.lafeni@kzndsr.gov.za

MEMORANDUM

To : Mr Jakobo Jacob Moroe
From : Dr C.T. Sifunda
Head of Department
Date : 02 October 2020
Subject : Permission to conduct a research

Dear Mr Jakobo Jacob Moroe

CONSENT TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Your letter of request permission to conduct a research for dsac/srsa, cdp community football clubs and government officials in the Western Cape and KwaZulu Natal provinces has reference.

I have pleasure of granting you permission to conduct research for an analysis of the implementation of SRSA's club development Programmes: Case studies of selected football clubs in Kwazulu-Natal and the Western Cape.

I wish you success with a hope that your work will be shared with and benefit the academic fraternity, the Department and the people of KwaZulu Natal, in general.

Your Sincerely

DR C.T. SIFUNDA
HEAD OF DEPARTMENT

5/10/2020

DATE

APPENDIX G: University of the Western Cape Ethical Clearance



OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR: RESEARCH RESEARCH AND INNOVATION DIVISION

Private Bag X17, Bellville 7535
South Africa
T: +27 21 959 2988/2948
F: +27 21 959 3170
E: research-ethics@uwc.ac.za
www.uwc.ac.za

06 March 2017

Mr JJ Moroe
SRES
Faculty of Community and Health Sciences

Ethics Reference Number: HS17/1/16

Project Title: An analysis of the implementation of SRSA's club development Programmes: Case studies of selected football clubs in Kwazulu-Natal and the Western Cape.

Approval Period: 2 March 2017 – 2 March 2018

I hereby certify that the Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape approved the methodology and ethics of the above mentioned research project.

Any amendments, extension or other modifications to the protocol must be submitted to the Ethics Committee for approval. Please remember to submit a progress report in good time for annual renewal.

The Committee must be informed of any serious adverse event and/or termination of the study.

Ms Patricia Josias 
Research Ethics Committee Officer
University of the Western Cape

PROVISIONAL REC NUMBER - 130416-049

FROM HOPE TO ACTION THROUGH KNOWLEDGE.

APPENDIX H: Editing certificate

OFFICIAL LANGUAGE PRACTITIONER

In the English and Greek languages

Doukas (Duke) Coulbanis
Sworn Translator of the High Court of South Africa
Cape of Good Hope Provincial Division
C.N. 4439/2003

JJ Moroc - PhD Thesis Editing Certificate.docx

05/05/2023

Certificate of Editing

To Whomsoever It May Concern

Editing Completed for PhD Thesis

*Thesis Title: "An Analysis of the Design and Implementation of DSAC
Club Development Programmes: Case Studies of Selected Community Football Clubs
in KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape"*

I, Doukas Coulbanis, Language Practitioner in the English and Greek Languages, duly sworn in the High Court of South Africa, Cape of Good Hope Provincial Division, as an Official Translator Case Number 4439/2003, do hereby certify that I have completed the linguistic editing and correction of the above named thesis by Jakobo Jacob Moroe, who is intending to submit it as part of the requirements for his admission into the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Faculty of Community Health Sciences at the University of the Western Cape.

Having worked through the document I affirm that, with the suggested edits, this thesis meets, from a linguistic point of view, the grammatical and syntactical standards for its intended purpose, as does the tone and level of the language used.



Doukas Coulbanis
Language Practitioner: English, Greek
Sworn Translator and ex officio Commissioner of Oaths
c.n. 4439/2003

Doukas (Duke) Coulbanis
Sworn Translator of the High Court of South Africa
Cape of Good Hope Provincial Division
Case Number: 4439/2003
Signed in: Frauschkhoek on 5/5/2023