Management capacity at sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality

By

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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my family. My father, Edward Sere, mom, Grace Sere, brothers, Tshepo Sere and Kgosietsile Sere and sister, Penny Sere. Thank you for the undying love and support you have given me throughout the years and for always standing by me, especially when times were tough.

Furthermore, I would like to dedicate this study to everyone who walked with and supported me through this journey and to everyone who this study will benefit.
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DECLARATION

I, Goitseone O. Sere, herewith declare that the language of this research report has been edited by Mr. Jack Matlou Chokwe.

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SIGNATURE

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DATE
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SUMMARY

Title: Management capacity at sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

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Degree: Magister Artium (Human Movement Sciences)

Department: Department of Sport and Leisure Sciences

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National Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA), as outlined in their National Sport and Recreation Plan (NSRP) and the South African White Paper on Sport and Recreation focuses on three pillars namely, 1) an active nation; 2) a winning nation and 3) an enabling environment. The need for sport and recreation facilities is further emphasised in Priority Two of the South African White Paper on Sport and Recreation. This priority focuses specifically on the provision of sport and recreation facilities and states that the challenge in the provision of facilities is not simply about a shortage, but also the location of the facilities as well as the effective management thereof. Local government has the responsibility of providing an enabling environment through the provision of existing sports and recreation facilities and building of new facilities. Effective sport and recreation provision relies on the effective management of these facilities (SRSA, 2012).

Facility Managers need various administrative skills in order to operate facilities efficiently and effectively. The coordination of these management principles and standard operating procedures is critical in the effective and efficient management of sport and recreation facilities today. This study presents a first attempt to determine the level of management capacity of sport and recreation facilities by local government in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality in the Department of Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture.

The research question for this study was therefore formulated as:

“What is the management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality?”
Based on this particular research question, it was hypothesised that:

H₀: The management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers employed in the City of Tshwane is satisfactory/high.

H₁: The management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers employed in the City of Tshwane is unsatisfactory/low.

The aim of the study was to determine a management capacity profile of sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specific objectives of the study were to:

- Explore and analyse the existing management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers according to the dimensions of the Capacity Analysis Tool;
- Identify potential problem areas in the operations of sport and recreation facilities related to management capacity; and
- Formulate recommendations to the appropriate decision makers in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to create enabling environments for sport and recreation facilities of the local authority under study.

Data were gathered by means of a self-administered Capacity Analysis Tool completed by full time Sport and Recreation Facility Managers of the City Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality’s Department of Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture. A purposive research sample of eight (n=8) was used. The study critically analysed and evaluated the perceptions of the level of management of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality and its capacity to manage its sport and recreation facilities. The results are not generalised but specific to the research sample. Effective management and possible ineffectiveness were identified to formulate guidelines for increased management capacity. The research was quantitative in nature and data interpretation and analysis was therefore made by use of tables, graphs and statistics.

Results for the study indicated that sport and recreation facilities are geographically decentralised over the five regions in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, namely the South region, the North West region, the North East region, the Central
West region and the East region. Part-time, full-time and voluntary staff work at these sport and recreation facilities, all of whom perform different roles and responsibilities and management tasks. An overall collective mean score of $\bar{x} = 2.11$ (SD=1.34) was recorded for all eight management dimensions of management capacity as evaluated by the Capacity Analysis Tool. These results, therefore, confirms the stated $H_1$ for this study. It is, therefore, concluded that sport and recreation managers at the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality perform below average in the majority of elements over the eight management dimensions of management capacity. This result suggests that sport and recreation facilities are most likely not managed optimally to the benefit of all stakeholders.

Recommendations for this research centred around improving those dimensions of management capacity that needed to be improved as they performed below average, which included clearly defined duties and responsibilities of employees guided by policies and a departmental constitution that is agreed upon by all members of the department, hiring of adequate staff and personnel in the right positions, increasing networking and fundraising capacity, revisiting job descriptions, provision of adequate and continuous training, regular maintenance of sport and recreation facilities and hiring of skilled contractors, provision of adequate resources to staff members to perform duties effectively and advocacy of employees and community members.

The effective and efficient management of sport and recreation facilities, including a high capacity to manage sport and recreation facilities is essential and therefore, the following aspects are suggested for the undertaking of further research:

A three year review of the status of management of sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality could be conducted to determine the management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers to manage sport and recreation facilities;
Investigate the community’s perception of sport and recreation facilities with regard to service delivery and meeting the community’s overall needs for sport and recreation participation and quality of life enhancement;
Investigate the management capacity of middle and higher management level employees with regard to sport and recreation facility management in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality;
Conduct a comparative study of the management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers in different municipalities across Gauteng; and
Conduct a needs analysis in communities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to gather information of what communities need with regard to development of new sport and recreation facilities.

**Key words:** Sport and recreation, capacity management, facility management, City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, local government, sport and recreation provision, effective management, recreation benefits, South African White Paper on Sport and Recreation (SRSA).
OPSOMMING

Titel: Bestuursvermoë by sport en rekreasie fasilibiteite in die Stad Tshwane Metropolitaanse Munisipaliteit.

Kandidaat: Goitseone Olebogeng Sere

Graad: Magister Artium (Menslike Bewegingskunde)

Departement: Departement van Sport en Vryetydskappe

Promotor: Professor AE Goslin

Co-promotor: Professor D. A. Kluka

Nasionale Departement van Sport en Rekreasie Suid-Afrika (SRSA), soos uiteengesit in hul Nasionale Sport en Rekreasie Plan (NSRP) en die Suid-Afrikaanse Witskrif oor Sport en Rekreasie fokus op drie pilare, naamlik 1) 'n aktiewe nasie; 2) 'n wen-nasie en 3) 'n bevorderlike omgewing. Die behoefte aan sport en rekreasie fasilibiteite word verder beklemtoon in prioriteit Twee van die Suid-Afrikaanse Witskrif oor Sport en Rekreasie. Hierdie prioriteit fokus spesifiek op die bepaling van sport en rekreasie fasilibiteite en verklaar dat die uitdaging in die voorsiening van fasilibiteite is nie net oor 'n tekort nie, maar ook die ligging van die fasilibiteite sowel as die effektiewe bestuur daarvan. Plaaslike regering het die verantwoordelikheid om 'n bevorderlike omgewing deur die verskaffing van die bestaande sport en rekreasie fasilibiteite en die bou van nuwe fasilibiteite. Effektiewe sport en rekreasie voorsiening maak staat op die effektiewe bestuur van die fasilibiteite (SRSA, 2012).

Fasilibiteit Bestuurders moet verskeie administratiewe vaardighede om fasilibiteite om doeltreffend en effektief te bedryf. Die koördinering van hierdie beginsels en standaard operasionele prosedures is van kritieke belang in die doeltreffende en doelmatige bestuur van sport en ontspanning fasilibiteite vandag. Hierdie studie bied 'n eerste poging om die vlak van bestuur kapasiteit van sport en ontspanning fasilibiteite deur die plaaslike regering in die Stad van Tshwane Metropolitaanse Munisipaliteit in die Departement van Sport, Rekreasie, Kuns en Kultuur te bepaal.

Die navorsingsvraag vir hierdie studie is dus geformuleer as:
"Wat is die bestuur kapasiteit van sport en rekreasie fasilibiteit bestuurders in die Stad van Tshwane Metropolitaanse Munisipaliteit?"
Gebaseer op hierdie spesifieke navorsing betrokke, is dit veronderstel dat:

\[ H_0: \text{Die bestuur kapasiteit van sport en rekreasie fasiliteit bestuurders in diens van die Stad van Tshwane bevredigend / hoog.} \]

\[ H_1: \text{Die bestuur kapasiteit van sport en rekreasie fasiliteit bestuurders in diens van die Stad van Tshwane is onbevredigende / laag.} \]

Die doel van die studie was om 'n bestuur kapasiteit profiel van sport en rekreasie fasiliteite in die Stad van Tshwane Metropolitaanse Munisipaliteit te bepaal. Spesifieke doelwitte van die studie was om:

- Onderzoek en die bestaande bestuur kapasiteit van sport en rekreasie fasiliteit bestuurders volgens die dimensies van die hoedanigheid analyse instrument ontleed;

- Identifiseer potensiële probleemareas in die bedrywighede van sport en rekreasie fasiliteite wat verband hou met die bestuur kapasiteit; en

- Formuleer aanbevelings aan die toepaslike besluitnemers in die Stad van Tshwane Metropolitaanse Munisipaliteit bemagtigende omgewings vir sport en rekreasie fasiliteite van die plaaslike owerheid onder die studie te skep.

Data is ingesamel deur middel van 'n self-geadministreer kapasiteit analyse instrument voltooi word deur voltydse sport en rekreasie fasiliteit bestuurders van die Stad Tshwane Metropolitaanse Munisipaliteit se Departement van Sport, Rekreasie, Kuns en Kultuur. Die doelgerigte navorsing monster van agt (n = 8) is gebruik. Die studie krities ontleed en geëvalueer die persepsies van die vlak van die bestuur van die Stad van Tshwane Metropolitaanse Munisipaliteit en sy vermoë om sy sport en rekreasie fasiliteite te bestuur. Die resultate word nie veralgemeen, maar spesifiek aan die navorsing monster.

Doeltreffend bestuur en moontlike ondoeltreffendheid word geïdentifiseer om riglyne vir verhoogde bestuur kapasiteit te formuleer. Die navorsing was kwantitatief van aard en data-interpretasie en analise is dus gemaak deur die gebruik van tabelle, grafieke en statistiek.
Resultate vir die studie het aangedui dat sport en rekreasie fasiliteite is geografies gedesentraliseerde oor die vyf streke in die Stad van Tshwane Metropolitaanse Munisipaliteit, naamlik die Suid-streek, die Noord-Wes-streek, die Noord-Ooste, die Midde-Wes-streek en die Oos-streek. Deeltyds, voltyds en vrywillige personeel werk op hierdie sport en rekreasie fasiliteite, wat almal verrig verskillende rolle en verantwoordelikhede en bestuur take. 'N algehele gesamentlike gemiddelde telling van $2.11 = (SD = 1.34)$ is aangeteken vir al agt bestuur dimensies van bestuur hoedanigheid as geëvalueer deur die kapasiteit analise instrument. Dit lei dus bevestig dat die verklaarde H1 vir hierdie studie. Dit is dus die gevolgtrekking gekom dat sport en rekreasie by die Stad van Tshwane Metropolitaanse Munisipaliteit verrig onder die gemiddelde in die meerderheid van die elemente oor die agt bestuur dimensies van bestuur kapasiteit. Hierdie resultaat dui daarop dat sport en rekreasie fasiliteite is waarskynlik nie optimaal tot voordeel van alle belanghebbendes bestuur word.

Aanbevelings vir hierdie navorsing rondom die verbetering van die dimensies van die bestuur kapasiteit wat verbeter moet word as hulle verrig onder die gemiddelde, wat ingesluit duidelik gedefinieerde pligte en verantwoordelikhede van werknemers deur beleidsrigtings en 'n departementele grondwet wat ooreengekom is deur al die lede van die departement nodig is, verhuring van voldoende personeel en personeel in die regte posisies, die verhoging van die netwerk en fondsinsameling kapasiteit, herbesoek posbeskrywings, die voorsiening van voldoende en deurlopende opleiding, gereelde instandhouding van sport en rekreasie fasiliteite en verhuring van bekwame kontrakteurs, voorsiening van voldoende hulpbronne aan personeel uit te voer pligte doeltreffend en voorspraak van werknemers en lede van die gemeenskap.

Die doeltreffende en doelmatige bestuur van sport en rekreasie fasiliteite, insluitend 'n hoë kapasiteit sport en rekreasie fasiliteite te bestuur is noodsaklik en daarom is volgende aspekte voorgestel vir die onderneming van verdere navorsing:

- 'n Drie-jaar hersiening van die status van die bestuur van sport en rekreasie fasiliteite in die Stad van Tshwane Metropolitaanse Munisipaliteit kan gedoen word om die bestuur kapasiteit van sport en rekreasie fasiliteite bestuurders sport en rekreasie fasiliteite te bestuur te bepaal;
❖ Ondersoek die gemeenskap se persepsie van sport en rekreasie fasiliteite met betrekking tot dienslewing en die vergadering van die gemeenskap se algehele behoeftes vir sport en rekreasie deelname en kwaliteit van lewe verbetering;

❖ Ondersoek die bestuur kapasiteit van die middel en hoër bestuursvlak werknemers hul bestuur kapasiteit met betrekking tot sport en rekreasie fasiliteit bestuur in die Stad van Tshwane Metropolitaanse Munisipaliteit te bepaal;

❖ Doen 'n vergelykende studie van die bestuur kapasiteit van sport en rekreasie fasiliteite bestuurders in verskillende munisipaliteite regoor Gauteng; en

❖ Doen 'n behoeftebepaling in gemeenskappe in die Stad van Tshwane Metropolitaanse Munisipaliteit inligting wat gemeenskappe nodig het met betrekking tot die ontwikkeling van nuwe sport en rekreasie fasiliteite in te samel.

Sleutel woorde: Sport en rekreasie, kapasiteit bestuur en fasiliteit bestuur, Stad van Tshwane Metropolitaanse Munisipaliteit, plaaslike regering, sport en rekreasie voorsiening, effektiewe bestuur, rekreasie voordele, Suid-Afrikaanse Witskrif oor Sport en Rekreasie (SRSA).
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND RESEARCH AIMS

1.1 INTRODUCTION
Recreation and leisure have multiple meanings based on individual perceptions. From an individual perspective, recreation could include watching television, attending an opera, base jumping, mowing the lawn, taking your children to the zoo, playing drafts, downloading music, writing a book, and an evening on the town (McLean, Hurd & Roger, 2007).

Leisure is a term derived from a Latin word *licere*, which means “to be free”. From this came the French word *loisir*, meaning “free time” (Edgington, DeGraaf, Dieser & Edgington, 2006). Edgington *et al.*, (2006) argue that a leisure experience is defined by four prevailing conclusions namely: 1) *freedom*, implying that individuals have a choice or perceive they have choice in the pursuit of a leisure experience; 2) *perceived competence* referring to the skills an individual possesses that, in turn, relates to satisfying participation in leisure experiences; 3) *intrinsic motivation* as participants are moved from within to pursue a leisure experience and not because they are influenced by external factors; and 4) *positive effect* referring to the positive feelings of control individuals experience when they have some control or influence within the leisure process. However, this does not mean that individuals need to be actively involved in planning or organising the experience, but they must feel some degree of control as the experience unfolds.

Two Latin terms provide the root of the word *recreation*: “*recreatio*” meaning to *refresh*, and “*recreare*” meaning to *restore*. Recreation involves an individual’s participation in specific, wholesome and voluntary activities (Edgington, Jordan, DeGraaf & Edgington, 2002). This is contrasted with the leisure experience, which has no value orientation. According to Edgington *et al.* (2006), participation in leisure or the leisure experience is neither good nor bad; the only value it holds is that which an individual places on it (Edgington *et al.*, 2006). Recreation, on the other hand, always refers to positively inverting in free time. For the purpose of this study, the definition of sport and recreation as stated in the South African Department of Sport and Recreation’s White Paper on Sport and Recreation will be adopted.
“Sport is any activity that requires a significant level of physical involvement and in which participants engage in either a structured or unstructured environment, for the purpose of declaring a winner, though not solely: or purely for relaxation, personal satisfaction, physical health, emotional growth and development.”

“Recreation is a guided process of voluntary participation in any activity, which contributes to the improvement of general health, well-being and the skills of both the individual and society”. (SRSA, 2012:15)

Figure 1.1: Sport, Passive and Active Recreation (SRSA, 2012).

As the focus of the National Sport and Recreation plan is the physical well-being of the citizens of South Africa, SRSA focuses on supporting sport and active recreation as illustrated in Figure 1.1. The two circles of sport and passive recreation come together to meet in the middle to form active recreation. Taking into account the definition of sport presented above, sport can thus be characterised by physical exertion. Other characteristics include elements of competition and external reward. When one participates in sport, they are bound by rules which are to be adhered to. In addition, participation in sport is dependent of facility provision. Participation in sport has certain benefits including external reward, physical and mental benefits and contribution to social outcomes including nation building. Examples of sport include,
but are not limited to, netball, soccer, cricket, swimming, hockey and rugby. Passive recreation, on the other hand, is done during one’s leisure time.

Unlike sport, passive recreation is not rule bound and is non-competitive. Participation in it is purely voluntary and for fun and enjoyment. Participation in passive recreation can overlap with other areas such as arts and culture or education. Examples could include knitting, sewing, bird watching, listening to music, watch movies and playing computer games. At the core of these two circles is active recreation. Participation in active recreation is physically and mentally beneficial and the rules are somewhat flexible. Competition is between one self and nature. Examples of activities include jogging, adventure walking and hopscotch.

Recreation constitutes a major force in national and local economies and provides employment in varied fields such as government, travel and tourism, popular entertainment and the arts, health and fitness programmes, hobbies and participatory or spectator sport. Beyond its value as form of sociability, recreation could also provide significant personal benefits in terms of meaning and physical, emotional, philosophical, and other important health-related needs of participants (Mclean, Hurd & Roger, 2007). Participation in sports and recreation activities has the potential to contribute to the quality of life of individuals and communities as a whole. According to Mclean et al. (2007), leisure and recreation are both crucial components of a balanced and healthy lifestyle as leisure-time is a time when people can do what they want to do, away from work and other commitments and often engage in positive recreation activities.

Recreation and leisure play an important role in facilitating social wellbeing by providing people with a sense of identity and personal autonomy. Involvement in positive leisure-time activities adds meaning to individual and community life, and also contributes to people’s overall quality of life. Recreation may encourage personal growth and self-expression and provides increased learning opportunities and satisfying needs not met in people’s non-leisure time. For many people, participation in leisure and recreation improves their physical and mental health. Moreover, recreation often involves a physical activity or sport. The benefits for mental health are equally important. In contrast, passive leisure also has benefits for mental health,
by providing an outlet for the mind. It may provide physical rest, tension release and opportunities to enjoy nature and escape from the daily routine. Participation in leisure and recreation activities may also have social benefits. It creates opportunities for socialisation and contributes to social cohesion by allowing people to connect and network with others. It can also contribute to family bonding when families do things together in their leisure time (New Zealand, 2010).

According to the South African White Paper on Sport and Recreation (SRSA, 2012) participation in sport and recreation yields an array of benefits. Table 1.1 below presents an overview of these potential benefits.

Table 1.1: Potential benefits of sport and recreation (SRSA, 2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF SPORT AND RECREATION PARTICIPATION</th>
<th>Social benefits</th>
<th>Mental Health benefits</th>
<th>Physical health benefits</th>
<th>Economic benefits</th>
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<tr>
<td>Social benefits</td>
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<td>- Stronger and more secure communities.</td>
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<td>- Social cohesion through its ability to break down social and cultural barriers and bringing people from different backgrounds together,</td>
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<td>- Providing venues where people can meet and interact</td>
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<td>- Closer family units</td>
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<td>- Crime reduction</td>
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<td>- Giving people a sense of purpose</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Sports programmes can also empower and promote the inclusion of marginalised groups especially women, the youth, rural communities and people with disabilities.</td>
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<td>- Providing an opportunity to serve as a volunteer in the community</td>
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<td>- Teaching people about respect for other people and property</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Getting people of all ages involved in their communities</td>
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<td>Mental Health benefits</td>
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<td>Psychological well-being</td>
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<td>Physical health benefits</td>
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<td>Long term health benefits.</td>
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<td>- Long term health benefits.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- An active lifestyle can meaningfully prevent chronic diseases and/or delay the onset of debilitating symptoms.</td>
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<td>Economic benefits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Contributions to national, regional and local GDP.</td>
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<td>- Contributions to national, regional and local GDP.</td>
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<td>- Improved productivity and employment opportunities where participants benefit from developing and improving a variety of skills, including:</td>
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<td>- Management and administrative,</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Coaching and mentoring and;</td>
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<td>Leadership skills.</td>
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Sport and recreation should be available to all the people of a community in order to share in the potential benefits. Opportunities for a wide variety of sport, recreation and leisure pursuits should abound regardless of age, sex or condition in life. SRSA acknowledges the potential value of participating in sport and recreation and has identified three pillars of sport and recreation provision in the country in their National Sport and Recreation Plan (SRSA, 2012b), namely: an active nation; a winning nation; and an enabling environment.

Enabling environments for participating in sport and recreation are vital pre-requisites for achieving potential benefits ascribed to sport and recreation. Although enabling environments for sport and recreation participation may consist of a wide spectrum of formal and informal spaces and structures, sport and recreation facilities play a vital role to create access and opportunity to sport and recreation participation. Sport and recreation facilities in themselves, are however, not going to facilitate the desired benefits automatically. Sport and recreation facilities need to be effectively managed by Sport and Recreation Managers with appropriate management capacity. (SRSA, 2010)

In South Africa, the overall goal of sport and recreation facility management is to provide and maintain facilities in sufficient quantity, diversity and quality to enable or facilitate participation in sport and recreation activities (SRSA, 2012). Prior to 1994, sport facilities were primarily placed in urban areas and were not easily or at all accessible for the majority of South Africans. After 1994 it soon became evident that if sport participation was to play a role in the social and economic transformation of the country, facilities would have to be redesigned and located equitably throughout all geographical areas of South Africa. The principle of accessibility had to be implemented in visible ways in order to redress the imbalances between advantaged, predominantly urban communities and the disadvantaged, largely rural communities. In 1995, national government determined that in order to eliminate the backlog in sport and recreation facilities by the year 2005, an investment of R5 billion was required. In 1995, an amount of R150 million from the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) was procured to construct the needed sport and recreation facilities until 1999 (South Africa, 1995).
In 2000, the National Department of Sport and Recreation (Sport and Recreation South Africa) made a bid for resources from the Poverty Relief, Infrastructure Creation and Job Summit Fund enabling South Africa to build basic sport and recreation facilities in deprived communities in conjunction with provinces and local authorities. The fund obtained made it possible to initiate the “Building for Sport and Recreation Programme” (SRSA, 2011) as a specific job creation and poverty relief programme targeting primarily the rural poor with the objectives of creating sport and recreation facilities for disadvantaged communities; creating short-term employment opportunities for community members through the construction of these facilities; creating substantial employment opportunities associated with the management of sport and recreation facilities; empowerment of municipalities and communities, the promotion of sport and physical activity within communities as well as sustainable management of sport facilities (SRSA, 2000).

There has been an overall increase in participation in sport, recreation and adventure activities worldwide where sport and recreation activities are introduced continuously (Torkildsen, 2005). Participants and spectators in these activities have the right to expect that these activities will be carried out in safe spaces and facilities that are properly designed and with well-maintained equipment. In South Africa, the Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 of 1993 (South Africa, 1993a) requires employers and persons who are in charge of these premises (including recreation facilities) to maintain the workplace and the equipment used therein in an effective state. This implies that sport and recreation facilities must be kept in good repair and in total working order. In addition, sport organisations and facility owners, for example, local governments, are expected to provide a reasonable standard of care for safety and security of their constituents and members. Historically, local authorities have been leading providers for sport, particularly for community recreation and the foundation levels of sport and recreation participation, in line with their statutory responsibilities. Local Authorities recognise the need to respond to increased leisure time and changing social habits, by providing sport, recreation and cultural facilities. Local authorities have become increasingly aware of the importance of such facilities to personal and community development, and the environment. Local Authorities, through sport and leisure provision, provide people with lifelong learning skills that can be transferred to other areas of their lives, improving their ability to cope with the
challenges facing them, enhancing their confidence, self-esteem and employment prospects, and encouraging full involvement in the life of their communities. As such, the importance of capacity to manage sport and recreation facilities to their fullest potential is pushed to the forefront of local authorities’ mandate (SRSA, 2012a).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Local authorities promote good health and well-being through the provision of sports facilities, helping to create an active lifestyle that has long been associated with positive benefits to health. Improving the health of individuals and local communities should be a priority for local authorities such as municipalities.

According to the South Africa White Paper on Sport and Recreation (SRSA, 2012a), local government has the obligation to provide sport and recreation facilities, programmes and services to its communities. In this regard, the purpose of local government is to create sport and recreation facilities that are community-centred. Local government becomes responsible for community needs analysis via consultative fora, facility location decisions, secure funding, creating, maintaining and managing facilities formulating policies, as well as providing relevantly trained staff.

The above obligation regarding sport and recreation facility provision also applies to the Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality in the Gauteng Province. The Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is responsible for 350 sport and recreation facilities ranging from informal sport and play areas to sport stadia and recreation centres. According to a Deputy Manager for Sport and Recreation at the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality (Mr M. Rethman, 2007), the quantity of sport and recreation facilities are adequate, but the quality of and capacity to manage these facilities effectively is lacking. Areas of special concerns relate to the capacity to implement written policies, lack of funding for human resources capacity building and communicating services to consumers. Furthermore, Rethman (2007) states that analysing the capacity within the Department of Sport and Recreation all areas of sport and recreation facilities could significantly enhance the Tshwane Metropolitan Council’s ability to implement the Priorities of the White Paper as well as achieve the
internal goals of the relevant department. However, participation in sport and recreation has the potential for adverse outcomes, such as injury, that could lead to increased risks for the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality and determining the management capacity of Sport and Recreation Managers responsible for managing sport and recreation facilities becomes imperative.

To date, no encompassing capacity analysis of the sport and recreation facility management portfolio of the Tshwane Metropolitan Council has been undertaken. Risk management strategies therefore seem to be very generic and not based on a current capacity analysis. Performing a capacity analysis is the first step in the risk management process, and will provide targeted and viable input to risk management strategies, thus improving the quality of service provision.

The research question is therefore formulated as:

“What is the management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality?”

Based on this particular research question, it was hypothesised that:

H₀: The management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers employed in the City of Tshwane is satisfactory/high.

H₁: The management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers employed in the City of Tshwane is unsatisfactory/low.

1.3 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

Based on the preceding argument and research problem, the overall aim of the study is to determine a management capacity profile of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers employed by the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

Specific objectives of the study are to:

- Explore and analyse the existing management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers according to the dimensions of the Capacity Analysis Tool;
- Identify potential problem areas in the operations of sport and recreation facilities related to management capacity; and

- Formulate recommendations to the appropriate decision makers in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to create enabling environments for sport and recreation facilities of the local authority under study.

1.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study on the management capacity is limited to the Tshwane Metropolitan Council’s Department of Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture. It is also limited to its sports and recreation facilities and not any other facilities that provide a service to the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality constituents. Even though the basic application of management functions and capacity apply to other municipalities in South Africa and even provincial and national sport and recreation authorities, they are not included in this study.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The following paragraphs provide an overview of the research methodology applied in this study. Chapter Four of this study elaborates on this overview by providing a detailed analysis of the research methodology.

1.5.1 Description of research design

This study follows a quantitative research design in that it collects data on management capacity through a quantitative research Capacity Analysis Tool administered to Sport and Recreation Managers employed at sport and recreation facilities in the research area.

1.5.2 Research population

In this study, the research population is all Sport and Recreation Managers in the Department Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality in the Gauteng Province. The relevant department has 25 Sport and
Recreation Facility Managers and the research population therefore consists of 25 (n=25).

1.5.3 Research sample

In this study a non-probability, purposive sample of eight (n=8) respondents was selected. The results of the study can therefore not be generalised and is only applicable to the situation of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

1.5.4 Research instrument

The collection of data was done by use of the Capacity Analysis Tool (CAT) as a self-administered questionnaire. The CAT developed was to assess the capacity of sport facilities and organisations to manage itself effectively and to pro-actively identify potential risk areas (CAT, 2005). The Capacity Analysis Tool consists of 88 questions analysing nine dimensions of management capacity namely; general information; leadership, governance and strategy; administration and human resources; finances and budget of the facility; project design, management and evaluation; technical capacity; advocacy and networking; community ownership and accountability; and fundraising. The CAT has a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0.79, which will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 4 under each element of management capacity.

1.5.5 Data collection

Quantitative data was collected through a self-administrated questionnaire (Capacity Analysis Tool).

1.5.6 Data analysis and data interpretation

Quantitative data was analysed by means of tables and graphs. Answers from respondents were grouped and interpreted collectively by means of percentages illustrated by means of pie charts and bar graphs in Section A. Section B-I was analysed by means of tables representing mean scores (\( \bar{x} \)) of respondents answers to a 4-point Likert-type questions. Results were interpreted and discussed.
1.6 STUDY FRAMEWORK
Chapter 1 provides the introduction, problem statement, research question, research aims and a brief overview of the research methodology.

Chapter 2 presents a theoretical framework and rationale for recreation provision on local government level. It gives a global overview of recreation provision on local government level and an overview of recreation provision on local government level in the South African context. It further presents recreation provision’s contribution to quality of life of the community, sports and recreation facility provision as a facilitator of community quality of life and the significance of risk management in sport and recreation facility provision.

Chapter 3 presents a literature review on management capacity on a broad scale. It discussed its contribution to management and effective service provision at sport and recreation facilities and other facilities in general.

Chapter 4 presents a detailed analysis of the research methodology used to conduct this study.

Chapter 5 presents the study findings and data interpretation.

Chapter 6 gives a summary of the study, concludes the study and gives recommendations for the specific stakeholders and for further research.

1.7 CONCLUSION
In this chapter an introduction to the study was given. Concepts on sport and recreation were clarified. The problem statement and research aims and objectives were developed. The research methodology used in the study was briefly discussed, as well as the study framework.
In the next chapter, a theoretical framework and rationale for sport and recreation provision will be explored. A global overview of sport and recreation provision on local government level as well as sport and recreation provision in the South African context is discussed. Sport and recreation provision’s contribution to quality of life of the community, sports and recreation facility provision as a facilitator of community quality of life and the significance of risk management in sport and recreation facility provision are also discussed.
CHAPTER TWO
A GLOBAL OVERVIEW OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT STRUCTURES AND SPORT AND RECREATION PROVISION

“Sport has the power to change the world. It has the power to inspire. It has the power to unite people in a way that little else can. Sport can awaken hope where there was previously only despair.” (Nelson Mandela, 2000)

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Participation in sport or physical recreation offers many benefits, ranging from simple enjoyment to improved health and the opportunity for social interaction. Regular physical activity may reduce the likelihood of developing chronic diseases, and may also play a therapeutic role in relation to mental health disorders. These physical benefits of sport and recreation participation can also have economic benefits as a healthier workforce is a more productive workforce (Human Kinetics, 2013). Physical activity is important for young people in developing healthy bodies, but is also important for older people in maintaining quality of life and independence. Participating in sport or physical recreation with others may also provide opportunities for social inclusion and social interaction, leading to stronger personal and community networks (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011).

People’s sport and recreation is made possible, in part, through providing a wide range of resources, services, facilities and effective management. A range of facilities are needed both indoors and outdoors, in and around the home, in the broader urban environment, in rural areas, in the countryside and on dry land and on water. A range of services and programmes are needed to meet the diverse needs and demands of individuals, families, groups, clubs and societies. The providers for organised services and formal facilities for sport and recreation come mainly from within the public, voluntary and commercial sectors (Torlikdsen, 2005).

Local government often forms the first line of provision. As municipalities are mandated to provide local sport and recreation facilities, in the absence of national guidelines, each municipality has its own approach to the development of sport and
recreation facilities (SRSA, 2010). And for these facilities to operate optimally, effectively and efficiently, they need to be well managed within local government structures.

In this chapter, local government structures in different countries will be discussed. A global overview of sport and recreation provision on local government and a more focused overview of sport and recreation provision on local government level in the South African context will be given. In addition, sport and recreation provision’s contribution to quality of life of a community, sport and recreation provision as a facilitator of community quality of life and the significance of risk management in sport and recreation facility provision will be presented.

2.2 OVERVIEW OF GLOBAL LOCAL GOVERNMENT STRUCTURES

It is necessary to explore and discuss the global perspective of local government structures so as to be able to draw a comparison between the different government structures around the world. A global perspective could also assist in drawing similarities and differences in the way local governments are governed and are structured around the world.

2.2.1 South African local government structure

Prior to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 (South Africa, 1996) and preceding the transition to democratic local government, local authorities, as they were then known, were mere creatures of statute created by provincial governments. Although the different provincial ordinances led to a variety of procedures, structures and processes, the municipalities, established in terms of the ordinances had a common feature. Because of their lack of constitutional status, they were creatures of statute, and possessed only such rights and powers as was specifically or impliedly granted to them by the legislature (South Africa, 1996). The state government rendered all their actions, including the passing of by-laws, administrative actions, subject to judicial review. Therefore, municipalities existed at the mercy of the provinces.
2.2.1.1 The political transformation process

In 1990, when the process of democratisation began with the unbanning of liberation movements, local governments were subordinate creatures of statute, comprising a multiplicity of fragmented institutions, racially segregated, which, as a result, provided massively unequal services to different communities. The transformation of local government was directed at removing the racial basis of government and making it a vehicle for the integration of society and the redistribution of municipal services from the well-off to the poor. This process occurred in three phases, namely: 1) the pre-interim phase which commenced during the coming into operation of the Local Government Transformation Act 209 of 1993 (LGTA) and establishment of the negotiation forums in local authorities pending the first local government election; 2) the second phase when the first local government elections were held in 1995/1996, establishing integrated municipalities although which were not fully democratically elected; and 3) the final phase commencing with the local government election on 05 December 2000, establishing the current municipalities. Underpinning the transition process were the interim Constitution of 1993 and the final Constitution of 1996 (South Africa, 1993c; South Africa, 1993b; South Africa, 1996).

Local government in South Africa entered a new era with the adoption of the South African Constitution of 1996. The Constitution introduced, for the first time in its history, a wall-to-wall local government system by providing that municipalities be established for the whole of the territory of the Republic. The South African Constitution of 1996 elevated local government to a sphere of government, firmly establishing local government’s autonomy. A municipality now has the right to govern, on its own initiative, the local government affairs of its community. This means that while national and provincial governments may supervise the functioning of local government, this is done without encroaching on the institutional integrity of local government. The Constitution further allocated the functional areas of local government competency in Schedules 4B and 5B. The Constitution introduced three categories of local government, namely: single tier Category A municipalities and two tier local governments in Category B and C municipalities where Category C municipalities share jurisdiction with a number of Category B municipalities.
A metropolitan municipality has exclusive municipal executive and legislative authority in its area (South Africa, 1996).

Subsequent to the adoption of the South African Constitution of 1996, a comprehensive policy was developed to give effect to the new constitutional vision of local government, which led to the adoption of the White Paper on Local Government by Cabinet in March 1998. The South African White Paper on Local Government set out a framework and programme which would radically transform the existing South African local government system. The cornerstone of the White Paper on Local Government was the notion of developmental local government, which was defined as local government committed to working with citizens and groups within the community to find sustainable ways to meet their social, economic and material needs and improve the quality of their lives (South Africa, 1998a). Currently, the developmental mandate of local government is effected through metropolitan municipalities in the eight largest urbanised and industrialised centres in the country. These metropolitan municipalities are charged with addressing the key challenges outlined in the South African White Paper on Local Government (South Africa, 1998b), namely: the legacy of urban apartheid by establishing a basis for equitable and inclusive metropolitan governance and development. In addition, these metropolitan municipalities have legislative competence over all the areas listed in Schedules 4B and 5B. Outside the metropolitan areas, the local government mandate is pursued by two-tier local government comprising 228 local municipalities grouped into 44 district municipalities, sharing the functional competencies listed in Schedules 4B and 5B.

The allocation of responsibilities between the two tiers of local government is prescribed by the Municipal Structures Act of 1998 (South African, 1998b), which must take into account the need to provide municipal services in an equitable and sustainable manner. The South African Municipal Structures Act of 1998 does so by allocating district municipalities’ functions with those not listed then falling in the purview of local municipalities. The transformation of South Africa from a society rooted in discrimination and disparity to a constitutional democracy founded upon freedom, dignity and equality continues to pose particularly profound challenges at local government level. It is here that acute imbalances in personal wealth, physical
infrastructure and the provision of services were and are often most patent. The establishment of non-racial municipalities has not eliminated the divisions of the past, the provision of services and the distribution of resources are thus the challenges that the legacy of apartheid poses to local government.

Given the fact that poverty is experienced locally, municipalities are daily confronted with the consequences of apartheid. As a result, a large part of the burden of addressing this falls upon local government, as it is the provider of primary services which are essential to the dignity of all who live in its area of jurisdiction. Thus, local government is the key site of delivery and development and is central to the entire transformative project of South Africa. It is therefore a key mandate of local government with the support of provincial and national government to eliminate the disparities and disadvantages that are a consequence of the policies of the past and to ensure, as rapidly as possible, the upgrading of services in the previously disadvantaged areas so that equal services will be provided to all residents (South African Local Government Association, 2011).

It is important to have an international perspective on local government structures and how local government is run in other countries around the world so that comparisons can be made to see where the differences and similarities lie, and where improvements can be made where there is a deficit in local government management, structure and operations.

2.2.2 Scotland local government structure
In Scotland, prior to 1929, local government consisted largely of royal burghs, small towns and villages that organised basic services within communities. Scottish local government was first reorganised in 1929, when a complex structure consisting of five kinds of local government areas was established. This structure of local government remained unchanged until 1975, following the report of the Wheatley Commission. The Commission's proposals are reflected in the Scotland Local Government Act 1973 (Scotland, 1973).

Post 1975, Scottish local government became a two-tier system, consisting of 9 Regional Councils, 53 District Councils and 3 all-purpose island councils namely Western Isles, Shetland and Orkney.
Today's Scottish local government structure was the result of the 1996 reorganisation, that is, the legislative basis for which was The Scotland Local Government Act 1994. The 1996 reorganisation resulted in the previous 9 regions and 53 districts being abolished, with the 3 island councils remaining unchanged. The district councils and regional councils were replaced with 29 single tier or unitary bodies to provide a more economic, cohesive, accountable and effective system. All 32 councils are responsible for delivering services such as education, leisure and recreation, planning and building standards, social services, housing, street cleaning, and refuse collection (Scotland, 1994).

Local government in Scotland comprises 32 unitary local authorities responsible for the provision of a range of public services. All 32 local authorities in Scotland co-operate through, and are represented collectively by, the Convention of Scottish Local Authorities (COSLA) which was formed in 1975 to act as an interface between local authorities and central government. It also acts as the employers' association for all Scottish local authorities, negotiating on conditions of services with trade unions, on behalf of local authority employees. There are also a range of organisations representing the interests of particular professional groupings within Scottish local government which include SOLACE (Scotland), Association of Directors of Education in Scotland (ADES), the Association of Directors of Social Work (ADSW) and the Scottish Society of Directors of Planning (Scotland, 1920; Scotland, 1955; Scotland, 1975a; Scotland, 1975b).

According to The Scotland Local Government Act (Scotland, 1973), local authority areas reflect the geographical diversity within Scotland with wide variations in size (from 26 square miles in Dundee to 12,437 square miles in the Highlands and population and from under 20,000 people in the Orkney Islands Council area to over 600,000 in the Glasgow City Council area). Each local authority is governed by a council. The council is made up of councillors directly elected by the residents in the population of the area they represent referred to as a council ward every four years. These elected members are headed by the Leader of the Council, typically the leader of the largest single political grouping in the council. In addition, each local authority elects a civic leader, the Provost or Convenor, who chairs council meetings and acts as a ceremonial figurehead for the area. In the cities of Glasgow, Edinburgh,
Aberdeen and Dundee, the Provost is known as the Lord Provost. Each ward has three or four councillors. In total, there are 1,222 elected councillors who are normally elected every 4 years. Legislation in 2009 moved local government to two consecutive five-year terms to decouple local government elections from elections to the Scottish Parliament. Councils in Scotland are autonomous bodies, independent of central government and are accountable to their electorates for the delivery of services. Local authorities in Scotland must take corporate decisions as there is no longer legal provision for policies made by individual councillors (Scotland, 1994). Provisions in The Scotland Local Government Act (1973) allowed local authorities to devolve most decision-making to a committee, sub-committee or officer of the council. Traditionally, authorities tended to operate through a structure of committees and sub-committees (Scotland, 1973).

In recent years, reviews of local democracy sponsored by the Scottish Government prompted a number of local authorities to alter their decision-making structures, in attempts to achieve more efficient, accountable and transparent arrangements. There is no requirement for councils to adopt a particular political decision-making and scrutiny structure; therefore, each council decides the most appropriate structure for its particular circumstances and context (Scotland, 1994).

2.2.3 England local government structure

Local government in England operates under either a one tier system which are called unitary authorities, or a two tier system which are county and district councils. There are five types of local authority in England namely county councils, district councils, unitary authorities, metropolitan districts and London boroughs (England, 2012).

County councils cover the whole of a county and provide the majority of public services in their particular area. County councils are responsible for education, highways, transport planning, passenger transport, social care, libraries, waste disposal and strategic planning. Each county is divided into several districts.

District councils, which may also be called borough councils or city councils if the district has borough or city status, cover a much smaller area and provide more local services. District Councils are responsible for housing, leisure and recreation, environmental health, waste collection, planning applications and local taxation.
collections. Many large towns and cities and some small counties in England are called unitary authorities. Unitary authorities (UA’s) have only one tier of local government. Unitary authorities can be city councils, borough councils, county councils, or district councils. Unitary authorities are responsible for education, highways, transport planning, passenger transport, social care, housing, libraries, leisure and recreation, environmental health, waste collection, waste disposal, planning applications, strategic planning and local taxation collection. Metropolitan districts are unitary authorities and can be called metropolitan district councils, metropolitan borough councils or metropolitan city councils. Metropolitan districts are responsible for education, highways, transport planning, passenger transport, social care, housing, libraries, leisure and recreation, environmental health, waste collection, waste disposal, planning applications, strategic planning and local taxation collection. Each London borough is a unitary authority. However, the Greater London Authority (GLA) provides London-wide government and shares responsibility for certain services. London boroughs are responsible for education, highways, transport planning, social care, housing, libraries, leisure and recreation, environmental health, waste collection, waste disposal, planning applications, strategic planning, and local taxation collection. The Greater London Authority is responsible for highways, transport planning, passenger transport and strategic planning. Certain parts of England have a third tier of local government. Town and parish councils are responsible for smaller local services such as parks, community centres, allotments and war memorials. In Wales and Scotland, there is a single tier system of local government providing all local government services. On the contrary, in Northern Ireland, there are elected local borough, city and district councils which provide services such as waste disposal, street cleaning and recreation; however, the majority of services are the responsibility of other organisations (England, 2012).

Local government in England has been the subject of a constant re-structuring process over several centuries and continues to be so. Although various forms of local government existed in Saxon and Medieval times, the kind of local government in existence today began to evolve in the 19th century. The England Local Government Act of 1888 (England, 1888) provided for the creation of 66 county councils and a London County Council. These county councils were run by elected councillors and comprise a chairman, aldermen and councillors.
The Act transferred the administrative and financial business of their counties from the Quarter Sessions (local courts) to the county councils. This included maintenance of roads, bridges and county buildings, assessment and levying of rates, appointment, dismissal and setting of salaries of county officers and the organisation of parliamentary elections. The Act also allowed county boroughs to be created. Large boroughs with a population in excess of 50,000 became an administrative county. The England Local Government Act of 1894 (England, 1894) provided for elected parish councils to be established in rural areas and for the creation of urban district councils and rural district councils with elected councillors. Much of the legislation of the 1888 and 1894 Acts were subsequently consolidated under the England Local Government Act of 1993 (England, 1993).

London saw a major structural change to local government in the 1960s. The County of London and the London County Council were abolished and the new area of Greater London was created from the County of London and sections of other surrounding counties. The Greater London Council (GLC) became the local government administrative body for this area together with the 32 newly created London boroughs. By the latter half of the 20th century local government in England had developed into an intensely complex system in desperate need of simplification and reform. Consequently, a radical overhaul was undertaken with plans for a simple country-wide two tier system outlined in the Local Government Act 1972 (England, 1972).

Under these changes, which came into effect in April 1974, all existing local government areas, with the exception of Greater London and the Isles of Scilly, were abolished which included all administrative counties, county boroughs, urban districts, rural districts, urban parishes and municipal boroughs. In their place, new metropolitan and non-metropolitan counties were created and these counties were in turn divided into districts. Each county was administered by a County Council and each district by a District Council. In 1986, changes were made once again to London Local Government. The Greater London Council was abolished together with the six metropolitan counties, effectively leaving the London boroughs as single tier administrations. Then in 2000 the Greater London Authority (GLA) was created to provide a directly elected strategic administration for the whole of Greater London.
The GLA shares responsibility for some local government services with the 32 London boroughs and the City of London Corporation. In the rest of the country, less than 20 years later, these reforms were questioned and yet again further changes were called for. A review carried out by the Local Government Commission for England, established in 1992, recommended that some counties retain their two-tier structure, but that others change to one-tier unitary authorities. Subsequently, several unitary authorities (UAs) were created in 25 counties between 1995 and 1998. In 2009, further local government re-organisation saw 10 new unitary authorities created; however, following the election of the Coalition government in May 2010, plans to create two new UAs in Exeter and Suffolk were revoked by Parliament in 2011 (England, 2012).

Plans by the previous Labour government to devolve more power to the regions by creating eight regional assemblies in England attracted much controversy. A referendum held in November 2004 on a proposed assembly for the North East resulted in a resounding ‘no’ vote and consequently the plans were dropped. The Coalition government elected in May 2010 introduced the Local Government Act which revoked the orders that created unitary councils for the cities of Exeter and Norwich. The Act also prevents the implementation of further unitary proposals. The new government also pledged to promote decentralisation, saying it believed central government had become too big, too interfering, too controlling and too bureaucratic. The Localism Act passed in November 2011 contains a number of measures which were designed to strengthen the role of local government. There are 353 councils in England 27 county councils of which are two tier, 201 district councils, 33 single tier London boroughs including City of London, 36 metropolitan districts, 55 which are unitary including all county unitary authorities and an a Isles of Scilly (England, 2012).

2.2.4 Canada local government structure

In Canada, municipalities and their councils are recognised as an order of government within their jurisdiction that is democratically elected, autonomous, responsible and accountable. It is established and continued by the will of the residents of their communities, and provides for the municipal purposes of their communities. The Provincial government recognises that municipalities require the following,
a) adequate powers and discretion to address existing and future community needs; b) authority to determine the public interest of their communities, within a legislative framework that supports balance and certainty in relation to the differing interests of their communities; c) the ability to draw on financial and other resources that are adequate to support community needs; d) authority to determine the levels of municipal expenditures and taxation that are appropriate for their purposes; and e) authority to provide effective management and delivery of services in a manner that is responsive to community needs. In Canada, the function of a municipality is to provide good governance of its community; to provide services, laws and other matters for community benefit; to provide stewardship of the public assets of its community, and to foster the economic, social and environmental well-being of its community. A municipality has the capacity, rights, powers and privileges of a natural person of full capacity. It may provide any service that the council considers necessary or desirable, and may do this directly or through another public authority or another person or organisation. A council may, by law, regulate, prohibit and impose requirements in relation to municipal services and public places. A mayor must establish standing committees for matters she/he considers would be better dealt with by committee and must appoint persons to those committees. At least half of the members of a standing committee must be council members. Persons who are not council members may be appointed to a standing committee as outlined in subsection 2 of the Canadian Community Charter Bill 14 of 2003 (Canada, 2003).

2.2.5 Australia local government structure
Local government is an integral part of Australian culture and plays a small but significant role in the Australian economy. Official local government began in Australia in October 1840 with the creation of the Adelaide Corporation. This was followed by incorporation of the City of Sydney in July 1842 and the Town of Melbourne in August 1842. Local government grew in tandem with colonial governments as governance developed across Australia through the second half of the nineteenth century. Local government initially developed property-based services such as building and maintaining local roads and collecting and disposing of rubbish. At the time of Federation in 1901, the states gave up power over certain areas they deemed would be better administered at a national level. This did not include local government. Each state and the Northern Territory provide the legal and regulatory
framework for local government operations. As a consequence, there are often significant differences between jurisdictions in the roles, functions, responsibilities and services undertaken by councils (Australia, 1995a).

Local Government is one of the three spheres of government in Australia, namely local, state and commonwealth governments. As a responsible sphere of Government, Local Government councils have considerable discretion in exercising their powers and responsibilities, and in planning for the specific and diverse needs of their local communities. Moreover, councils are well placed to know and understand the views and aspirations of the local community and to influence in a socially just and ecologically sustainable manner. Currently, Local Government in South Australia is made up of 68 separate councils covering a large part of the State in the metropolitan area of Adelaide and the more densely populated country areas. Each council is a different size, has a different number of people living in the area, and has different community facilities and public spaces. The more remote areas where fewer people live are not within local government council boundaries. In some remote areas, certain local services are provided under arrangements with the Australian Outback Communities Authority (Australia, 2009).

State legislation provides the framework for local government roles. In the past, the role of local government was determined by prescriptive legislation, local government bodies. Now all jurisdictions have the authority to provide generally for the good governance of their local government area. In effect, this confers on local government the power of general competence, or the power to take action in any area not expressly precluded by other legislation. Local government has roles in governance, advocacy, service delivery, planning and community development, and regulation. The Australian Government provides funding to local governments through the Local Government Financial Assistance Act of 1995 to help councils deliver these functions (Australia, 1995b).

In Australia, local government councils determine service provision according to local needs and the requirements of the various state local government Acts and they are increasingly providing services above and beyond those traditionally associated with local government. These local government functions and services include engineering
services such as public works design, construction and maintenance of roads, bridges, footpaths, drainage, cleaning, waste collection and management; recreational services such as golf courses, swimming pools, sports courts, recreation centres, halls, kiosks, camping grounds and caravan parks; health services such as water sampling, food sampling, immunisation, toilets, noise control, meat inspection and animal control; community services such as child care, elderly care and accommodation, refuge facilities, meals on wheels, counselling and welfare; building services such as inspection, licensing, certification and enforcement; planning and development approval; administration of aerodromes, quarries, cemeteries, parking stations and street parking; cultural/educational services such as libraries, art galleries and museums); water and sewerage services in some states and other services such as abattoirs, sale-yards, markets and group purchasing schemes (Australia, 1995a).

2.2.6 Germany local government structure

Germany's local government structure and administration is complex. Districts, towns and municipalities are constitutional elements of the States with the power to regulate local government within the States. Each State has the power to determine management arrangements, functional distribution, and electoral laws concerning districts and municipalities. This flexibility has led to considerable variation in functionality among States, for example, relating to the election of mayors and senior civil servants and the separation of powers and duties. Towns and municipalities are local authorities, while some 'intermediate' districts are administered as both States and local authorities. Both the intermediate districts and the lowest tier municipalities are self-administrative and possess the power to issue substantive law (Germany, 1949).

The German Constitution contains two key features relating to local government namely 1) 'Uniformity of living standards throughout the Federal territory (Article 106, Paragraph 3, and Subparagraph 2 of the Basic Law 1949). To achieve this objective, a series of fiscal among States and between States and their municipalities and 2) local autonomy of municipalities is guaranteed. The guarantee of local autonomy prohibits Federal and State legislation from removing the rights of the local authorities to manage their own affairs or from restricting this right to such an extent
that the substance of the autonomy is taken away in Article 28, paragraph 2 of the Basic Law Federal Republic of Germany (1949), and the corresponding provisions of the States constitutions. However, municipalities can be dissolved by means of an Act of State Parliament provided the principle of local autonomy remains unaffected (Germany, 1949).

There is considerable flexibility in the allocation of functional and financial responsibilities, which are often shared among tiers of German government. Functional responsibilities are largely similar across the German States. States are directly responsible for education, culture, local law, public safety and order. In other areas, the States work jointly with the Federal Government and sometimes with the European Union to provide adult education, regional economic development, agriculture and coastal protection. States share responsibilities with municipalities and districts for delivery of a wide variety of mandatory and discretionary services. Local government's tasks are divided between the districts, and the towns and municipalities according to the principle that some services that cannot be provided by the municipalities are largely provided by the higher-level districts. For example, if construction and maintenance of a waste disposal facility exceeds the financial means of an individual municipality, the district takes on this task for all municipalities belonging to the district (Germany, 1949).

Municipalities are largely responsible for the following sovereign rights, namely: personnel sovereignty which grants the municipalities the right to select, engage, promote and dismiss staff; organisational sovereignty which encompasses the right of the municipalities to organise the administration themselves; planning sovereignty which grants the municipalities the power to organise and shape municipal territory under their own responsibility by drawing urban development plans such as land use; building plans and legislative sovereignty which entails the right to pass municipal bylaws; financial sovereignty which entitles the municipalities to be responsible for managing their income and expenditure and tax sovereignty which grants the municipalities the right to raise locally applying taxes such as dog tax, entertainment tax, land tax, second place of residence tax (Germany, 1949).
In Germany, municipal activities are classified into two types namely, 1) mandatory functions transferred from higher authorities, or 2) voluntary activities taken on by the respective municipalities. The first type of functions is State tasks transferred or mandated by the Federal Government or the States to municipalities by virtue of law. These account for the largest part of the local authority's activities. State or Federal Governments provide legal and expert supervision and issue specific directives and instructions under certain conditions. These mandated activities are nationality, registration, passport affairs and issue of registrations of birth, marriage and death certificates; general security; commercial affairs; construction affairs; health care and veterinary affairs; road traffic; registration of vehicles and vehicle taxation; water legislation and land cultivation; federal and land elections implementation; social affairs and youth care; protection and maintenance of historical monuments statistics and forestry and fisheries administration.

A German municipality is also obliged to guarantee energy and water supply for its citizens such as providing essential services such as water supplies, electricity, heating and gas; providing waste water services and waste removal; town planning functions by specifying residential, commercial and other land use plans through Land Use and Building Plans, building approval procedures, local authority land policies (including land order and dispossession), public investment; and construction and maintenance of local roads and green areas, parks and cemeteries. Voluntary or optional self-government tasks include activities in leisure, recreation and cultural spheres such as establishment of sports centres, swimming pools, pedestrian precincts, and a local transport network of trams and buses. Furthermore, municipalities are responsible for numerous cultural institutions from opera to municipal archives, theatres, cinemas, museums and libraries and restoration of historical buildings (Germany, 1949).

In many aspects, local government in Germany contrasts significantly with the Australian local government. Six of the most important differences are 1) federal constitutional recognition where a high degree of autonomy of local government is guaranteed in the German Constitution. Germany's local government has been rated as having a relatively high degree of autonomy among European local government systems. In Australia, local governments are established and operate under State and
Territory legislation. Secondly, federal German Constitution guarantee shared revenue where uniform standards of living conditions across the States are also guaranteed in the Constitution. To achieve this uniform standard, sharing of revenues generated by both federal and State governments is also guaranteed in the Constitution. The fixation of tax shares for several years in advance guarantees local governments a stable source of revenue as well as the incentive to increase tax yields by encouraging tourism, investment and prosperity. In Australia, federal tax revenues are not shared with local government, but local government receives significant funding though the financial assistance grants and roads grants. Thirdly, local government in Germany has access to a stable tax base in terms of value added tax (VAT) revenues that are shared with the Federal and State levels. Unlike income and corporate tax, VAT is less susceptible to economic and business cycles. Further guarantees in the sharing of taxes with the Federation and States also provide a stable revenue base. Local government in Australia has more limited access to a stable tax base through the financial assistance grants from the Australian Government. Fourthly, in Germany, while most legislative and policy-making powers lie at the Federal level, the policy implementation and administrative functions are almost entirely left to the States. At the same time, a long-standing practice of the State governments is to delegate most of the policy implementation and administrative tasks to the local authorities; so, the representative offices of the States at the regional or local levels are very small. In Australia, both State and Federal governments have field staff and regional offices. In Australia, constitutional responsibility for local government lies with the States that are also responsible for local government administrative and financial management issues. In Australia, transfer of functions by States onto local government has led to claims of cost-shifting. Fifthly, German local government has direct local democracy through the right to directly elect mayors and to remove them from office by referendum. In Australia, the State or Territory government may suspend councils, or abolish or amalgamate local governments. Lastly, Germany has for the last 30 years continuously reviewed and reformed its local government both territorially and functionally. Performance assessment and benchmarking are critical themes in German local government management. In Australia, review and reform of local government has occurred within the States and has also occurred at the federal level, most recently through the Hawker Inquiry.
2.2.7 New Zealand local government structure

In New Zealand, the Local Government Act (New Zealand, 2002a) states that the purpose of local government is to enable democratic local decision-making and action by, and on behalf of, communities; and to meet the current and future needs of communities for good-quality local infrastructure, local public services, and performance of regulatory functions in a way that is most cost-effective for households and businesses. Regional councils are primarily concerned with environmental resource management, flood control, air and water quality, pest control, and, in specific cases, public transport, regional parks and bulk water supply. Territorial authorities are responsible for a wide range of local services including roads, water reticulation, sewerage and refuse collection, libraries, parks, recreation services, local regulations, community and economic development, and town planning (New Zealand, 2002a).

Councils, however, can differ widely in relation to activities they undertake, as long as they have consulted their communities in making the decisions. As a result, there is considerable diversity in the range of activities that councils provide, reflecting the different circumstances that cities, towns and communities find themselves in. Councils in New Zealand do not fit in a predetermined category. For councils to be efficient, they need to operate in a way that is in the best interests of their community, and this differs from the far North down to the deep South (New Zealand, 2002a).

While territorial councils are required to have a mayor who is elected by the community and regional councils a chair whom are elected by councillors, other arrangements will vary. Territorial authorities have between six and 30 members, including the mayor, while regional councils have between six and 14 members. The average number of members per council is 11. In terms of political organisation, councils tend to have either a number of standing committees or a portfolio system. They may also contain a number of sub-municipal bodies which bring decision-making closer to communities and/or have a number of services in Council Controlled Organisations (CCOs). Standing committees enable a council to delegate decision-making on issues to smaller groups of elected members who have the
opportunity to investigate issues in more depth and in consultation with citizens. Some committees have decision-making authority while others are purely advisory. As the number of elected members on councils has been reduced, there has also been a move away from standing committees to portfolio systems. Portfolio systems imply individual councillors take a leadership role in relation to specific policy issues, such as transport or the arts. Just as councils delegate responsibilities to standing committees, they also have the ability to delegate responsibilities to sub-municipal bodies, such as community boards, and local boards in Auckland. Once again, practice varies between councils, with some delegating significant decision-making powers and others limiting their community boards to an advisory role.

Council Controlled Organisations (CCOs) are public companies owned by one or more local authority or to which a local authority has the right to appoint more than half the directors. Councils that operate trading activities will almost always incorporate them as CCOs which puts the activity at arms-length from the council itself. The Auckland Council has seven CCOs to run a wide range of activities from transport and water to economic development and events. The question of how to organise themselves, and whether or not to delegate decision-making responsibilities, is one that is addressed by new councils immediately after their election and is outlined in each council's governance statement (New Zealand, 2002a).

Local authorities employ approximately 30,000 staff, representing a broad range of disciplines, from Arborists and Dog Control Officers to Policy Analysts. Each council, however, directly employs only one staff member, their Chief Executive, who employs the remainder of the staff on behalf of the council. Staff numbers vary considerably according to the size of the local authority. Chief Executives are employed on fixed term contracts which are limited to five years, although the term can be extended for another two years following a formal performance review. The positions must be re-advertised at the end of the negotiated period.

Typically, a Chief Executive will work with a management team. However, the organisational structures will vary according to the size of the council and the preferences of the Chief Executive. Council services are provided by internal departments, stand-alone business units or Council Controlled Organisations. Decisions about how services will be operated are made by the Chief
Executive in consultation with his or her council. The decision to form a CCO, however, can only be made after consultation with the community. Councils provide the local public services and local infrastructure that communities need to survive and prosper. Nothing, however, is free. Local services need to be paid for and local government has a limited range of funding tools by which to meet the expectations and needs of not only today’s communities but the communities of the future (New Zealand, 2002a).

Under the Local Government Act 2002 (Section 10), one of the purposes of local government is to promote the social, economic, environmental, and cultural wellbeing of communities, in the present and for the future. Unlike local governments in many other countries, New Zealand councils rely on a single form of tax, that is, property tax. The power to levy a property tax is contained in the New Zealand Local Government Rating Act, 2002 (New Zealand, 2002b). In addition to their ability to levy property taxes councils receive income from a range of additional sources including sale of goods and services, such as swimming pool charges; regulatory fees, such as parking fines and infringements; interest earned from investments, including Council Controlled Trading Organisations (CCTOs) and grants and subsidies, primarily the local government share of road taxes and charges and development contributions (New Zealand, 2002b).

2.2.8 United States of America local government structure
In the United States of America (USA), local governments generally include two tiers namely counties, also known as boroughs in Alaska and parishes in Louisiana; and municipalities, or cities/towns.

In some States, counties are divided into townships. Counties are the basic territorial division within a state and range in size from under 100 square kilometres to over 200,000 square kilometres. In 48 states, counties are also the primary governing entity below the state government. Major functions of county governments include recordkeeping of births, deaths, land transfers; administration of elections including voter registration and; construction and maintenance of local and rural roads, zoning, and building code enforcement, and law enforcement especially in rural areas. Some counties also share responsibility with the state for providing social benefits for low-
income residents, monitoring and enforcing environmental regulations and building codes, overseeing child welfare, and performing judicial functions. In some States, counties are the geographic units for public school districts, but schools usually have a separate administrative structure. Counties are run by popularly elected officials. There is typically a board of supervisors or a county commission which sets policy and often exercises executive functions as well. Other elected county positions may include sheriff, judge, justice of the peace, medical examiner, comptroller, assessor, or prosecutor, among others. In addition to these elected officials, many counties have a professional administrator who is hired to manage the county government’s overall operations (United States of America, 1790).

Municipalities can be structured in different ways, as defined by State constitutions, and are called townships, villages, boroughs, cities, or towns (United States of America, 1790). Municipalities are incorporated cities, towns, or villages within or independent of a county having their own governing and taxing authority. They range in size from small towns with fewer than 100 residents to large metropolises spanning several counties such as New York City. Municipal government responsibilities include public safety, maintenance of city streets, parks and recreation, waste water treatment, trash removal, zoning and building code enforcement, fire and rescue services, animal control, public transportation, and other essential services. Larger cities may also provide assisted housing, operate public hospitals, and administer social welfare programmes funded by the city, the state, or the federal government. Many cities also own or regulate public utilities such as water, electric power, natural gas, and telecommunications. Cities and towns are governed by elected officials. These officials usually include a mayor and a city council that make decisions and set policy. The mayor, who may or may not have a seat on the council, is the head of the municipal government and is responsible for overseeing day-to-day administrative functions. Some cities have adopted the city manager form of government, where the city council hires a professional manager to run the operations of the city. A city manager is the chief administrative officer of the city and, though not elected, reports directly to the elected city council or mayor (United States of America, 1790).
Each State constitution provides for the establishment of local governmental entities. In all States, these local entities include counties and cities, but most States also provide for other types of local government, including wards, school districts, conservation districts, townships, and transportation authorities.

These special types of local government have regulatory, administrative, or taxing authority as defined in the State constitution or in State law. There are over 500,000 elected officials in the United States. Of these, fewer than 8,500 are at the national and state level. The rest are local government officials — city council members, school board members, mayors, sheriffs, and an array of other individuals who serve in various capacities, including park and recreation services (United States of America, 1790).

Various kinds of districts also provide functions in local government outside county or municipal boundaries, such as school districts or fire protection districts. Municipal governments, those defined as cities, towns, boroughs, except in Alaska, villages, and townships are generally organised around a population centre and in most cases correspond to the geographical designations used by the United States Census Bureau for reporting of housing and population statistics. Municipalities vary greatly in size from the millions of residents of New York City and Los Angeles to the 287 people who live in Jenkins, Minnesota. Municipalities generally take responsibility for parks and recreation services, police and fire departments, housing services, emergency medical services, municipal courts, transportation services including public transportation, and public works including streets, sewers, snow removal, signage, and so forth. Whereas the federal government and state governments share power in countless ways, a local government must be granted power by the State. In general, mayors, city councils, and other governing bodies are directly elected by the people (United States of America, 1790; The United States Census Bureau, 2012).

According to the U.S. Census Bureau (The United States Census Bureau, 2012), over one-third of all governmental entities in the United States of America are so-called special district governments. Special district governments operate independently of other local governments and are usually established to serve a specific purpose within a specific geographic region, including water and natural resource conservation; fire prevention; water supply; emergency services and transportation. Leaders of these
governmental entities may be elected or appointed. Nevertheless, powers of special district governments vary widely, but many have significant regulatory and taxing authority. Their activities are commonly funded by a special sales tax or property tax collected within their area of jurisdiction, or by fees charged to users of their services. Public education through grade 12 is available at no charge to every school-age resident. Each State’s constitution or public laws provide for the manner by which public education is to be administered and funded. In most cases, school districts are established with a popularly elected school board or board of trustees. These boards create budgets, set policy, and hire the administrators who run the schools. But, school districts do not necessarily coincide with other political boundaries, though often they serve a specific city or county. In most States, public education is funded by taxes assessed on personal and business property, and State governments may provide additional funding from general State revenues or dedicated revenues from State lotteries. State governments are responsible for setting education standards and general policies within the State, but implementation is left to the local school boards (The United States Census Bureau, 2012).

2.3 GLOBAL OVERVIEW OF SPORT AND RECREATION PROVISION ON LOCAL GOVERNMENT LEVEL

Local government authorities provide their range of recreation services and facilities in a variety of ways. In general, the public has free access to a large number of facilities, for which often no direct payment is made, such as urban parks, playgrounds, libraries, picnic areas, nature trails, beaches and country parks. While the users do not pay directly for these amenities, the general public does so indirectly through taxes. Local authorities also provide facilities such as swimming pools, playing fields, golf courses, marinas, arts, centres, theatres and sports centres, where there is a direct payment by the user, often at highly subsidised charge. While local authorities often look to commercial and voluntary sectors to provide for social activity and entertainment, they nevertheless do provide for entertainment, both directly and indirectly. Community centres are particularly widespread in newly developed towns (SRSA, 2010a; Torkildsen, 2012).
Local authorities also directly provide sport and recreation through the provision of civic halls which are used for entertainment and urban parks with their bandstands and entertainment facilities. Recreation centres are often prime venues for public entertainment. However, local authorities are not simply providers of facilities; they also have a support service to perform. They support organisations of all kinds from private institutions, voluntary organisations to commercial bodies, when it is shown that greater services will be given to the public by so doing. The support given is basically of two kinds. The first is to make its own facilities and equipment available for use, with or without charge and the second is to make financial grants (Torlikdsen, 2005).

Management of local authority services revolves around the local authority structural framework and involves a number of people such as appointed members, voluntary committee members, departmental staff, facility managers and staff, and all the organisations and programmes through which sport and recreation is made available to the public. Appointed members, however, are the utmost important to the management of sport and recreation services as they decide policy, decide what is to be built and made available and they also control the budget and expenditure (City of Cape Town, 2011).

According to the Edwards and Tsouros (2006), governments at the local, regional and national levels are challenged by dramatic increases in the frequency of chronic diseases, obesity and sedentary lifestyles. Physical inactivity seems to be a major contributor to these problems. Physical activity is beneficial to health at all ages. It is especially important to the healthy development of children and young people. At the same time, active ageing can make a dramatic difference to the well-being of older people. Active living also positively contributes to economic prosperity and social cohesion in cities. Participating in physical activity increases opportunities for socialisation, networking and cultural identity. Promoting physical activity requires the involvement and cooperation of all levels of government from national, regional to local government, with clear roles and commitments for each level (Edwards & Tsouros, 2006).
Local governments have a crucial role to play in creating environments and opportunities for physical activity and active living. City leaders and other decision-makers can provide leadership, legitimacy and an enabling environment for developing and implementing policies that support active living for all citizens. Peoples’ participation in physical activity is influenced by the built and natural environment, in which they live, by the social environment and by personal factors such as gender, age, ability and motivation. Design elements in the built environment, such as street layout, land use, the location of recreation facilities, parks and public buildings and the transport system can either encourage or discourage physical activity. People are more active when they can easily access key destinations such as parks, green spaces, workplaces and shops. Other barriers to active living include fears about crime and road safety, transport emissions and pollution, problems with access and/or a lack of recreation and sport facilities and negative attitudes about physical activity and active transport. Disadvantaged people and especially people with low income tend to be less active in their leisure time because they are less able to afford and access programmes and facilities and more likely to live in neighbourhoods with crime and traffic safety problems. Therefore, local strategies and plans should aim at promoting physical activity among people of all ages, in all social circumstances and living in different parts of cities, with special attention to equity, deprivation and vulnerability.

The three pillars of Sport and Recreation South Africa as outlined in the South African White Paper on Sport and Recreation and the NSRP are an active nation, a winning nation and an enabling environment. The main focus of an active nation is to get everyone involved in and participating in sport and recreation activities in order to improve the health and well-being of the nation. In order to achieve an active and winning nation, an enabling environment through the provision of sport and recreation facilities is therefore imperative. Local government is responsible for the provision of and maintenance of existing facilities and for building new multi-purpose facilities. Furthermore, local government is also responsible for the provision of sport and recreation services, programmes and activities (SRSA, 2012b).
Opportunities for physical activity need to be created close to where people live, together with creating cleaner, safer, greener and more activity-friendly local environments. Partnership-based strategies should focus on promoting physical activity in different settings such as neighbourhoods, health care settings, workplaces, schools and transport systems and on making the active choice the easy choice (Edwards & Tsouros, 2006).

Mayors and other elected officials as well as local government employees can provide the political legitimacy and technical support that is needed to integrate urban planning and public health policies in a way that supports active living for all citizens. Planning, transport, health, housing, recreation and economic development officials daily make decisions that affect opportunities for active living. Neighbourhood design, the location of schools and businesses and how local leaders assign priority to cars, cyclists and pedestrians affect people’s ability to engage in physical activity and active living. With the above mentioned, the importance of sport and recreation provision on local government level is very essential to ensuring health living and thus contribute to a better quality of life for individuals and communities. In the following paragraphs the generic responsibility of local governments to enable an active living environment for its constituents are analysed in specific national contexts to provide a deeper understanding of the scope and nature of recreation provision on local government level.

2.3.1 Sport and recreation provision on local government level in the United Kingdom

In the United Kingdom, public services and facilities for leisure are provided by a public authority or by legislation for the general use of the public. The increasing costs of land and construction have left local authorities with the task of providing more land for extensive facilities such as water, recreation and parks, and more expensive buildings such as swimming pools, theatres, sports centres and concert halls. In addition, local authorities in the United Kingdom provide a wide range of facilities and services for sport and recreation. They also provide through financial and other support, through planning decisions and generally by acting as an enabling authority. Local authorities thus play a major role in the provision of facilities and opportunities for public sport and recreation participation. Government agencies, like
new town corporations, regional water authorities and national park boards, also have major roles in sport and recreation provision. All these bodies have powers and duties to assist in or to initiate provision (Torkildsen, 2005).

In addition, Sport England aims to ensure positive planning for sport, providing appropriate facilities in local areas based on robust and up-to-date assessments of need for all levels of sport and all sectors of its communities. Achieving these planning objectives protect sports facilities from loss as a result of redevelopment; enhance existing facilities through improving their quality, accessibility and management; and provide new facilities that are fit for purpose to meet demands for participation on local government level. Aims and objectives are met through planning systems that seek to ensure that they reflect in local planning policies, and are applied in development management (United Kingdom Department of Culture, Media and Sport, 2013). Local authorities have a central role to play when it comes to the provision of community sport and recreation facilities. From the local parks to leisure centres, they allow a huge range of leisure activities to be performed locally. Moreover, local authorities in the United Kingdom are also responsible for the health outcomes for their citizens following reforms to the public health framework in April 2013. Despite their duty to promote healthy lifestyles, however, there is no statutory provision for sport and recreation implying that there is no legal requirement for local authorities to provide recreation facilities. Currently, sport and recreation clubs are operating in a challenging environment due to local government spending cuts and local authorities having more incentive to sell or close facilities which are currently used by sport and recreation clubs (Sport and Recreation Alliance, 2013).

As an example of sport and recreation in the United Kingdom, in Liverpool, the provision of sport and recreation is done through local government’s sport and recreation department. Liverpool City Council’s Sport and Recreation Department’s main priorities are 1) the delivery of a comprehensive and vibrant sports development and events programme which aims to provide opportunities for all the city's residents to participate in sport; 2) to enable young people to progress from a very basic recreational and grass roots level sport participation through to national and international standard if they so desire and have the necessary potential. This would
be achieved by working with a range of local, regional and national governing bodies of sport, schools, and other partner agencies; 3) the delivery of a range of long established sporting events and new national and international events, which complemented and actively assisted the city's status as European Capital of Culture in 2008; 4) the management of the city's outdoor sports facilities in parks, recreational grounds, detached playing fields as well as the city's municipal golf courses and allotments; 5) the management and provision of indoor sports facilities and services through the council's network of sport centres and swimming pools, and 6) to coordinate the financial and performance management aspect of sport and recreation services. Local government principal objective is to deliver sport and recreation services in a way that is instrumental to the delivery of the city council's vision and values which are more specifically to provide a wide range of sporting and recreational opportunities to the citizens of Liverpool, from mass participation grass roots level to that of regional, national and international standards of performance, to enable individuals to realise their full potential; to improve the health and quality of life of the citizens of Liverpool; to deliver services of the highest possible quality at the lowest possible cost; to deliver work to improve the sporting infrastructure of the city and to further develop sports tourism (Liverpool City Council, 2008).

2.3.2 Sport and recreation provision on local government level in Malaysia

According to Aman and Omar-Fauzee (2009), there are two notable features of Malaysian local government involvement in sport and recreation. Firstly, structurally, Malaysian local government is placed under the joint responsibility of central and State government. Central government appoints the mayors and councillors, and provides general policy and funds for local government to function. However, local government has no specific policy for leisure; rather it complements central government initiatives. Secondly, the increase in privatisation as a public management policy in Malaysia changed the role of local governments from providers to facilitators of sport and recreation services and socio-economic growth, with more impact on urban than rural areas.
Overall, Malaysian local government was never really involved in sport and recreation programmes because it has limited power and funding (Aman & Omar-Fauzee, 2009). Furthermore, Malaysian local governments’ roles in sport and recreation provision in the community are still unclear because most of their activities are not being researched and recorded. According to United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2000), the two major roles of Malaysian local governments involve provision of services and the facilitation of socio-economic grow. As a provider of services, under Kota Kinabalu Town Planning in Sabah, the council provides open spaces including gazetted areas such as hills, beaches and sports facilities (United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia, 2000).

In Melaka, local government developed public gardens and forest recreational areas. Melaka City Council also emphasised the building of facilities for active recreation which could be used for sports competitions such as track and field, turf hockey and soccer. According to Aman and Omar-Fauzee (2009), the Town and Country Planning Act (Malaysia, 1976) stated that every Malaysian housing estate had to allocate 10% of the area for open spaces, sport and recreation. This policy was applied to all local governments in Malaysia (Malaysia, 1976). The issue of ‘shrinking green’, however, threatens such policy because the provision of the 10% area of open space is not centrally located and it is just one piece of insufficient land. Consequently, green areas in local areas are shrinking and community sport and recreation enjoys fewer facilities (Aman & Omar-Fauzee, 2009). The role of local government as a facilitator of socio-economic growth was related to the increase of privatisation as a public management policy which began in 1983 in Malaysia. This was due to limited resources on the part of the government. As the public benefited through the provision of more efficient and wider coverage of services, local governments were allowed to privatise their services. The role of the local councils changed from service provider to facilitator. Their regulatory functions shifted to the regulation of activities offered in the private sector. These new roles demanded new mechanisms to ensure transparency and accountability to the communities which local authorities represented (Malaysia, 2001).
Seemingly, Malaysian local government has insufficient funds for sport and recreation development and programmes. Central government’s control over local government is characterised by financial control, appointment of senior staff and local politicians, and the determination of powers and functions of local authorities. For some rural local governments such as Kulim-Kedah and Sandakan-Sabah, there are simply not enough financial resources to provide their communities with anything beyond the basic essentials. The bulk of expenditure by Malaysian local government is spent on the maintenance of basic infrastructure such as transport, sewerage and water with little funds available for sport and recreation. The Malaysian local government system has been unable to counter the centralising tendencies in sport and recreation provision and policy in the country. Local government was never really involved in sport and recreation programme provision because it is dependent on central government, and has very limited power and funding (Aman & Omar-Fauzee, 2009).

2.3.3 Sport and recreation provision on local government level in Australia

According to Sport and Recreation Tasmania (2010), leisure, recreation and a broad range of cultural pursuits have always been a major part of Australian life. They are core elements of Australian way of living, culture and the way Australians express themselves. Recreation, cultural and leisure activities have a major positive influence on personal health and community wellbeing. Improving the health of a community, overcoming obesity, reducing heart disease and, more recently, reducing reliance on fossil fuels, has seen planners and researchers from all walks of life turn to recreation and leisure as a major solution.

More recently, involvement in leisure and recreation pursuits have been found to contribute to community strengthening and the development of social capital. Hence, leisure and recreation are increasingly being seen as central not only to Australian personal happiness and enjoyment, but also to Australian personal, community, social and national health and wellbeing. Not surprisingly, recreational, leisure and cultural activity and involvement do not happen by accident. Individuals, families and groups plan, even if haphazardly, what they are going to do in their leisure time. Councils and governments carefully assess what types of leisure, recreation and cultural
opportunities they might provide in the best interests of the community. Commercial providers calculate how they can create viable, attractive businesses and a multitude of other attractions which people will enjoy during their leisure time.

Increasingly too, Australian governments, town planners and transport providers are focusing on how they can provide attractive, accessible residential estates and community activity hubs which offer a mix of educational, retail, social, recreational and cultural environments. All of these activities entail planning in one form or another. Planning covering all aspects of recreation is important in Australia because sport and elite achievements in sporting events, has the capacity to impact on decision-making that is often detrimental to other recreational endeavours. Hence, planning can help promote other leisure and cultural endeavours and can ensure reasonable resources are allocated from a democratic and community rights perspective.

The present set of Australian resource planning materials provides a guide to the processes of recreation and leisure planning. The materials are accompanied by a range of case materials to illustrate the processes to be used by planners on all government levels and to answer questions on common problems and issues. However, there is no mandatory or legislated approach to the planning of recreation facilities, activities, programs and services in Australia. Most states have legislative processes to guide the acquisition of open space to be used for recreation purposes. A number of states have guidelines to assist in the development of recreation infrastructure and facilities which are outlined in the Australia Local Government Act (Australia, 1995a). For example, New South Wales has long had a section of the Local Government Act, 1995 (Section 94) which requires councils to assess the extent to which residents moving into new developments will increase the demand for community services. In light of these assessments, councils have been required to determine the financial contribution which the property developers will be required to pay to cover the cost of a range of additional community services, including recreation (Australia, 1995a).

Sport and Recreation provision in Penrith City Council, Australia, for example, established a Neighbourhood Facility Management Policy in 2010. The purpose of
this policy is to provide a clear direction for the management of Penrith City Council
neighbourhood facilities to ensure community needs are met and neighbourhood
facilities are operated in accordance with Council’s strategic and policy direction and
State legislation. This policy provides a management framework and is not intended
to address operational matters which are dealt with through the development, adoption
and implementation of the Neighbourhood Facilities Management and Operational
Procedures Manual (Penrith City Council, 2010). The Neighbourhood Facilities
Management Policy specifically sets out Council’s objectives for neighbourhood
facilities management; provides clear principles for the management of all
neighbourhood facilities; reduces exposure to risk for Council, Council staff,
Neighbourhood Facilities Management Bodies and facility users; sets Council’s
expectations for management of neighbourhood facilities; provides a basis for
establishing fees and charges and determining priorities of access and provides a
foundation for the development of management agreements, guidelines, templates and
training for the management and operation of neighbourhood facilities. This policy
was developed with regards to the existing strategic and legislative environment and
is incorporated with the following legislation, strategies and policies namely, the
Australia Local Government Act (Australia, 1993), the Occupational Health and
Safety Act (2000), the Disability Discrimination Act (Australia, 1992), the Anti-
Discrimination Act (1977) and the Building Code of Australia (BCA) (Australia,
1977; Australia, 1993; Australia, 2000 & Australia, 2005)

In Queensland, the national government works with local governments and other
organisations to make sure Queensland’s recreation needs are met into the future. The
national government works with local governments by providing advice on recreation,
sport and open space plans, and facility needs studies and participating in the planning
scheme process and providing comments on the recreation and sport components of
local government planning schemes such as town plans.

In Australia, sport and recreation provision is also done through the Victorian
Government’s Sport and Recreation Victoria Department of Transport, Planning and
Local Infrastructure. This provision of sport and recreation is outlined through the
Local Facilities for Local Clubs Programme 2014/2015. This is a funding programme
that encourages, rewards and recognises the role of community clubs and

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organisations who have worked hard to bring together resources to develop sport and recreation facilities. In Western Australia’s Department of Sport and Recreation, the provision of sport and recreation is outlined through Outcome Two of the Strategic Plan 2013-2015 and Local Facilities for Local Clubs Programme 2014/2015 (Australia, 2014).

2.3.4 Sport and recreation provision on local government level in Canada

In Canada municipal governments are closest to the people and are likely to respond more flexibly, more quickly and more effectively to the needs of the community in matters of recreation. For this reason, all three levels of government agree the municipality is the primary public supplier of recreation services. The National Recreation Statement (Canada, 2011a) states that the basic role of a Canadian municipality is to ensure the availability of the broadest range of recreation opportunities for every individual and groups which should be consistent with available community resources.

Typically, Canadian municipalities are tasked to do the following; 1) set a framework and develop a municipal authority to serve as the focus for the provision of community recreation opportunities; 2) be continually aware of all community resources and recreation opportunities and ensure that the information is readily available and accessible to the public; 3) ensure effective development relevant to the needs identified and provide appropriate support to these programs and initiatives such as training leaders, providing programme information, developing facilities and resources and ensuring needs of special populations are addressed; 4) coordinate the development and best use of community resources to stimulate joint planning, information exchange, and programme evaluation among all groups and agencies involved in providing recreation opportunities and 5) regularly assess and determine community needs not being met through existing programmes and services; and make every effort to respond to the needs. This can be done through working with existing community groups, organisations or agencies; working to establish community groups where needed; working with the private/commercial sector where appropriate; working with other sectors such as health, education, social services, safety services; and where necessary, direct provision of programmes and services by the municipality (Canada, 2011).
In British Columbia, as province of Canada, the role of Municipalities is defined within the Canadian Community Charter Bill 14 (2003). The Canadian Community Charter Bill 14 (2003) sets out the principles of municipal governance, municipal purposes and the fundamental powers of Canadian municipalities. As stated in the Community Charter, the purposes of a municipality include providing for good government of its’ community; providing for services, laws and other matters for community benefit; providing for stewardship of the public assets of its’ community, and fostering the economic, social and environmental well-being of its’ community. Under the authority of the Community Charter, the Mayor establishes standing committees, for matters the Mayor considers would be better dealt with by Committee, and appoints committee members for example the Parks, Recreation and Cultural Services Committee (Canada, 2003).

In Canada, community sport and recreation facilities are primarily provided by municipalities. Local governments assess infrastructure needs arising from within their jurisdictions and utilise a number of strategies to provide and operate the required facilities. Many providers are utilising progressive and proactive facility provision and management approaches in order to meet the needs of local populations as effectively and efficiently as possible. For decades sport and recreation facilities have been fundamental to the lives of Canadians of all walks of life. The local arena, pool or community hall are places where bodies are strengthened, skills are learned, friendships are developed and lifelong memories are made. These important community assets have always been central to the fabric of Canadian society. Community sport, recreation and green infrastructure is critical to the health, wellbeing and quality of lives of Canadians.

Participation in recreation activities has health, social, economic and environmental benefits and a strong recreation system is essential to effective community building (Canada, 2012-2014). There is an undeniable connection between healthy people and vibrant communities. Therefore, public investment in facilities and other infrastructure that improves the health and wellbeing of individuals should be automatic - but unfortunately, this is not necessarily so. Throughout Canada, community sport and recreation facilities are provided by municipalities, not-for-profit agencies, charitable organisations and school boards. In most jurisdictions,
municipalities provide the largest number of assets. And in the case of local
governments, while the provision of these assets is not legislatively mandated, most
municipalities have a department or an authority that presides over recreation, sport,
cultural and leisure activities and facilities. Communities that tracked local
preferences established sport and recreation facilities including parks, trails and open
spaces are highly valued commodities and key priorities of their citizenry. Yet, in
times of financial restraint, recreation departments were often the first to be asked to
justify their budgets or rationalise their spending (Frittenburg, 2011). In 2005-2006,
most Canadian provinces and territories undertook recreation infrastructure inventory
and physical assessment studies which confirmed that recreation facilities are
deteriorating and in need of immediate attention. Moreover, a comprehensive national
strategy was required to deal with infrastructure demands arising from population
growth as well as new types of facilities to meet changing participation profiles and
the needs of emerging users (Canada, 2005a; Canada, 2005b).

With the above mentioned, a Canadian National Framework for Sport and Recreation
was developed in 2012 (Canada, 2012). The Framework described five goals and
priorities for action under each goal. These five goals are 1) to foster active, healthy
living through recreation; 2) to increase inclusion and access to recreation for
populations that face constraints to participation; 3) to help people connect to nature
through recreation; 4) to ensure the provision of supportive physical and social
environments that encourage participation in recreation and build strong, caring
communities and 5) to ensure the continued growth and sustainability of the
recreation field. The purpose of this framework is to guide and stimulate effective,
coordinated policies and practices in recreation that improve the wellbeing of
individuals, communities and places and spaces in Canada (Canada, 2012).

The National Framework is the result of a comprehensive process of renewal that
began at the 2011 National Recreation Summit. It drew on reflections and
recommendations from two years of consultations, discussions and debate at
Canadian provincial, territorial and national levels. Throughout these conversations,
three key messages emerged, namely: high quality, accessible recreation opportunities
are integral to a well-functioning society; the recreation sector can be a leader in
addressing major social issues of the day and that all people and communities deserve
equitable access to recreational experiences, regardless of socio-economic status, gender, age, ability, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation and geographic location. Recreation is a public good that must be accessible and welcoming to all (Canada, 2011). Partnerships are fundamental in the provision of sport and recreation. Key partners for sport and recreation provision include government departments and not-for-profit organisations at all levels, including those dealing in sport, physical activity, public health, health promotion and health care, urban planning, infrastructure development, rural development, natural resources and conservation, arts and culture, social development, tourism, justice, heritage, child development and active aging.

Canadian educational institutions and educators are also important partners in sport and recreation, providing spaces and programmes, teaching students about recreation, and developing and sharing knowledge. Increasingly, innovative public-private partnerships in sport and recreation support access to facilities such as swimming pools in privately owned buildings, park renewal efforts, product and service innovation, corporate responsibility and sponsorship, and the delivery of tourism products and services.

Public recreation can be described as the provision of recreation services by governments and non-governmental groups and organisations for the benefit of individuals and communities. Within government, Canadian provinces and territories have primacy of jurisdiction for recreation such as in health and education. The municipality or local government is the primary public supplier of direct recreation services to Canadians. Canadian federal government plays a role in matters of national and international concern, and in collaborative developing and supporting policies and funding mechanisms that enable all Canadians to participate in recreation.

Collaboration between and among all levels of government is essential. Municipalities are the primary owners and operators of the sport and recreation infrastructure in Canada. They provide fitness centres, indoor and outdoor pools, water parks, sports fields, courts, ball diamonds, pre-school programme spaces, and a variety of other places and spaces that support active choices. Safe, well-kept outdoor environments including parks with playgrounds and trails are equally important. Recreation also has
a key role in the design and provision of pathways and bikeways that link communities and encourage active transportation (Canada, 2014).

The fields of physical activity, sport, recreation, parks, the environment and health share a common mandate to enhance the wellbeing of Canadians, communities and the environment. Thus, Canadians identified a clear need to coordinate these frameworks and policies, and to collaborate on specific actions and initiatives. Strategies proposed by the Canadian parks, physical activity, sport and health sectors have historically involved the recreation sector. For example, municipal recreation is a key delivery agent for sport and provides a variety of support to local sports organisations. These include access to facilities, early skill development and exposure programmes, ongoing sport play, coordination and communication, enhanced coaching capacity, allocation policies and subsidies, joint use agreements, sport hosting and sport tourism. Similarly, the promotion of active, healthy lifestyles for Canadians is a key priority for recreation. This includes the provision of physical activity programmes for all age groups, ranging from active play for pre-school children, to teen and adult fitness classes, to engaging older adults in ongoing activity.

Many Canadian municipalities have worked with partners in public health, sport and education to develop comprehensive community plans for active living. Plans include awareness campaigns, programme opportunities and events, initiatives aimed specifically at inactive and vulnerable populations, and the development of supportive indoor and outdoor environments (Canada, 2014).

The vision of the Canadian National Framework for Recreation (2014) describes a Canada where everyone is engaged in meaningful, accessible recreation experiences that foster individual and community wellbeing as well as the wellbeing of places and spaces. Even though the Canadian National Framework for Recreation (2014) is primarily written for and by professionals in the recreation and parks field, its implementation requires collaboration, especially with sectors in Canadian society dealing with sport, physical activity, health and environments in nature (Canada, 2014).
2.3.5 Sport and recreation provision on local government level in New Zealand

In New Zealand, sport and recreation is provided primarily by the local government to its citizens. This is done through the New Zealand Sport and Recreation Department. To assist the department with fulfilling its mandate, the New Zealand Sport and Recreation Act was developed in 2002 (New Zealand, 2002c).

The functions of the department as outlined in the Act are as follows: 1) to develop and implement national policies and strategies for physical recreation and sport; 2) to allocate funds to organisations and regional bodies in line with its policies and strategies; 3) promote and advocate the importance of participation in physical activity by all New Zealanders for their health and wellbeing; 4) promote and disseminate research relevant to physical recreation and sport; 5) provide advice to the Minister on issues relating to physical recreation and sport; 6) promote and support the development and implementation of physical recreation and sport in a way that is culturally appropriate; 7) encourage participation in physical recreation and sport by Pacific peoples, women, older New Zealanders, and people with disabilities; 8) recognise the role of physical recreation and sport in the rehabilitation of people with disabilities; 9) facilitate the resolution of disputes between persons or organisations involved in physical recreation and sport; 10) work with schools, regional, central, and local government, and physical recreation and sports organisations to ensure the maintenance and development of the physical and organisational infrastructure for physical recreation and sport; 11) work with health, education, and other agencies to promote greater participation in physical recreation and sport through policy development, advocacy, and support, in line with the objectives of the New Zealand health strategy; 12) provide advice and support for organisations working in physical recreation and sport at national, regional, and local levels; 13) facilitate co-ordination between national, regional, and local physical recreation and sport organisations and represent the Government’s policy interests in physical recreation and sport internationally ((New Zealand, 2002c).

It has long been the case within New Zealand that local government agencies are the primary providers of sport and recreation facilities. The level and degree to which local government provides for sport and recreation facilities varies significantly from
council to council. The New Zealand Local Government Act (2002) requires councils to consult communities and develop clearly defined community outcomes based on the four well-beings namely environmental; cultural; economic and social. The provision of sport and recreation facilities aids in the delivery of all outcomes associated to the four well-beings. Councils define and publish the importance of the well-beings within a community within their Local Town Plans in the form of community outcomes (New Zealand, 2002b).


The New Zealand taxpayer pays 93% of the cost of providing recreational opportunities on the Conservation Estate. Conservation Estate is a collection of all native forests and remaining wild public land in New Zealand managed by the Department of Conservation. This estate is managed by the New Zealand Department of Conservation in order to provide recreation facilities to the citizens of New Zealand. Facilities provided without charge include tracks, visitor centres, restrooms, viewing platforms, roads and some huts. Even those services and facilities that do incur a user charge including the great walks through some of New Zealand’s most iconic scenery and serviced huts are provided by the Government at heavily subsidised rates. While the government park-administering agency, the Department of Conservation (DOC), does have a cost-recovery system, user-pays revenue accounts for a small proportion of the amount that the Department spends upon recreational opportunities. Even when cost-recovery measures are in place, subsidies are almost always provided.
The New Zealand taxpayer spends well over $115 million a year on the provision of recreational opportunities on conservation land. Park-administering agencies in a large number of overseas contexts have found that outcomes can be significantly improved by requiring those who benefit from the use of recreational facilities to pay at least a large proportion of the costs through user-charges. Agencies undertaking such strategies have been able to improve the quality of the recreational experiences that they offer. They have gained greater and more sustainable access to financial resources, reduced cross-subsidisation between users and become more responsive to visitor requirements. Because of this, the implementation of user-charges systems for recreational facilities is often viewed favourably by park agencies, park visitors and the general public (Lindberg, 2001; Queensland, 2000 & United States Department of Agriculture, 2000). In New Zealand, there is an ingrained social expectation that access to public conservation land will be provided free of charge. This is reflected in the New Zealand Conservation Act 1987, which explicitly precludes the Department of Conservation from charging for access to the Conservation Estate or for the use of roads or paths provided upon the estate. Guaranteed freedom of access imposes limitations upon the Department of Conservation’s ability to emulate the experience of overseas park administering agencies, but expanding the Department of Conservation’s current system of charging for the use of specific facilities is both possible and desirable.

The Department of Conservation was established under the Conservation Act (New Zealand, 1987) with a mandate to conserve New Zealand’s natural and historic heritage for all to enjoy, now and in the future (New Zealand, 2005). In pursuing this goal, the department undertakes two key activities. Firstly, the department works to protect indigenous biodiversity. This work takes the form of species recovery programmes, ecosystem protection projects, biodiversity advocacy, research and the publication and dissemination of biodiversity related information. Secondly, the department works to foster recreation and tourism on the Conservation Estate. In fostering recreation and tourism, the Department of Conservation provides and maintains pathways, visitor-centres, washrooms, jetties, signage, viewing platforms, and car-parks; and employs maintenance staff, guides, cleaners and other service staff for the benefit of those visiting the Conservation Estate for recreational purposes (New Zealand, 2005).
2.4 OVERVIEW OF SPORT AND RECREATION PROVISION ON LOCAL GOVERNMENT LEVEL IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

Local government in South Africa is regarded as a sphere rather than a tier of government. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) stipulates that local government is responsible for the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner. In accordance with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), a municipality has executive authority and the right to administer, inter alia, local sports facilities, the latter being a local government matter listed as such, as well as any other matter assigned to it by National or Provincial legislation. Furthermore, a municipality has the right to exercise any power concerning a matter reasonably necessary for, or incidental to the effective performance of its functions, such as local government matters as listed in the Constitution, for example, local sports facilities. A municipality is furthermore obliged, within a spirit of cooperative governance, to promote social and economic development within its area of jurisdiction. However, the said obligation should be exercised within the ambit of the functions entrusted to local government (South Africa, 1996).

In terms of South Africa’s Constitution, provincial government must ensure that the basic minimum level of service is available for all, while local government is responsible for the actual provision of services. If local government lacks the resources to fulfil this function, central government may support local authorities with funds needed to provide basic minimum levels of service. Each municipality has to ensure the provision of basic municipal services to members of the local community. Basic municipal services are those which are necessary to ensure an acceptable and reasonable quality of life which includes sport and recreation services. The non-provision of these services results in a risk to public health, or the safety of the environment. The municipality must assess whether it has the financial and human resources to provide a service itself, and whether it has the capacity to improve and extend that service in the future. The direct and indirect costs and benefits associated with the service provision needs to be carefully considered. When a municipality decides to provide a service through its own administration, it must allocate adequate human and financial resources for the proper provision of the service. It must
transform the service. In other words, it must ensure that the service is provided in an efficient, effective and sustainable manner, that the service is equitable and accessible, and that the best possible use is made of available resources (SRSA, 2012c) As a result, a large part of the burden of addressing this falls upon local government, as it is the provider of primary services which are essential to the dignity of all who live in its area of jurisdiction. Thus, local government is the key site of delivery and development and is central to the entire transformative project of the new South Africa. It is therefore a key mandate of local government with the support of provincial and national government to eliminate the disparities and disadvantages that are a consequence of the policies of the past and to ensure, as rapidly as possible, the upgrading of services in the previously disadvantaged areas so that equal services will be provided to all residents (South African Local Government Association, 1998).

According to the National Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa, as stated in the South African White Paper of Sport and Recreation (2012), local authorities are in direct contact with the sites of delivery of sport and recreation in a community. Local authorities primary functions are to; 1) develop a policy framework for the governance of sport at local level that is in concert with the national and provincial sport and recreation policy; 2) make sport and recreation accessible to all people in the local area; 3) create the infrastructure required for the delivery of sport and recreation given that the club is the basic unit of sport and recreation, the local authorities are an important link in the value chain; 4) ensure the existence of programmes that develop the human resource potential in sport and recreation; and 5) effect international agreements in concert with provincial sport and recreation departments, as reached by the National Department of Sport and Recreation, for the purpose of sharing technology, skills transfer and the development of sport and recreation (SRSA, 2012a).

The South African White Paper on Sport and Recreation is an important guiding document for service provision on all levels of government. In the South African White Paper on Sport and Recreation (2012), the following priorities are stated. Priority One confirms the roles and streamlines the responsibilities of the various stakeholders in sport and recreation to ensure that coordination and economies of scale are realised. Therefore, the local authorities and the municipalities, have to play
the following roles: 1) they have to develop policies at local level, 2) implement the recreation policy, 3) fund its principal agencies, clubs and individuals, and 4) create facilities for local and provincial usage. Priority Two addresses the provision of funding for the creation or upgrading of basic multi-purpose sports facilities in disadvantaged areas. The challenge in the provision of facilities in South Africa is not simply about a shortage of facilities, but rather the location of the facilities as they are just not where the majority of the people are. Furthermore, it is the considered approach of the Ministry and Department of Sport and Recreation to make multi-purpose facilities the focal point of each community. This community-centred approach is developed to ensure that communities take ownership of the facilities, and assist in their maintenance and management (SRSA, 2012a).

The National Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA) and its agencies endeavour to utilise local resources in the creation and upgrading of facilities that will contribute to job creation. All facilities should allow for easy access for users who have disabilities. Municipalities have the role to create multi-purpose indoor and outdoor facilities that are community-centred. Their responsibility for schools, clubs, and sport and recreation organisations including community members is to conduct needs analysis through consultative forums, to make decisions on location of facilities, to secure funding, to create and manage these facilities and to maintain them. Priority Three of the South African White Paper on Sport and Recreation (2012) focuses on local government and its responsibility to assist in the provision, maintenance, upgrading and management of basic sport and recreation facilities, especially in the disadvantaged communities through identified priorities (SRSA, 2012a).

The focus areas of facilities are indicated in the South African White Paper on Sport and Recreation (SRSA, 2012a), namely, the challenge in the provision of facilities in South Africa is not simply about a shortage of facilities, but rather the location of the facilities - they are just not where the majority of the people are located.
2.4.1 The role and function of the South African Local Government Association (SALGA) in the provision of sport and recreation services on local government level

The South African Local Government Association (SALGA) is an association of municipalities that was established in 1996 and is officially recognised as the body which represents local government in 1998 and, is mandated to be the voice and sole representative of local government. This mandate is derived from the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996). SALGA works together with Parliament, the National Council of Provinces (NCOP), and cabinet as well as provincial legislatures. The association is a unitary body with a membership of 278 municipalities. The mission of the SALGA is to be consultative, informed, mandated, credible and accountable.

The role of the SALGA can be summarised under four key roles, namely, 1) advice and support which includes policy analysis, research and monitoring, knowledge exchange and support to members; 2) representation which involves stakeholder engagement; lobbying on behalf of local government in relation to national policies and legislation; 3) to act as an employer body through collective bargaining on behalf of our members; capacity building and municipal human resources and; 4) strategic profiling which involves building the profile and image of local government locally and internationally. SALGA is governed by its own constitution which was adopted in May 2000. The objectives and principles are in line with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), the South African White Paper on Local Government (1998) and within the parameters of the Organised Local Government Act (South Africa, 1996 & South Africa, 1997).

The Preamble of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) puts the onus on all spheres of government to 1) heal the divisions of the past and establish a society based on equality and social justice; 2) improve the quality of life of all citizens and free the potential of each person as well as 3) build a nation that would hold its rightful place among other nations. Local government therefore supports this ideal by fulfilling its constitutional and legislative mandate of human development and social cohesion. As the official representative of local government, SALGA is
vested in ensuring social cohesion and human development through sport and recreation in all municipalities as this affects all its members.

Sport and recreation is a multifaceted function of government that is shared by all spheres of government. Local government is specifically responsible for the provision of sport facilities, parks and recreation as indicated on Schedule 5B of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996). This places local government at the heart of sport and recreation provision in the country and its implementation of the National Sports and Recreation Plan depends on the well-being of sport and recreation facilities and how sport and recreation development is facilitated at local government level (South Africa, 1996).

As an association of local government, SALGA plays a central role in the implementation of the South African National Sport and Recreation Plan (SRSA, 2012) with regards to programmes such as the Mass Participation. Therefore, SALGA has a key role to drive mass participation in sport and recreation. In addition, SALGA developed a Local Government Sport and Recreation Framework (2014) aimed at: 1) encouraging social cohesion by bringing together people from diverse backgrounds; 2) the creation of sporting families by encouraging community participation of parents, extended family members, guardians and children; 3) ensuring that sport is not over emphasised at the expense of recreation; 4) assisting with advocating for the development of sports infrastructure (i.e. district multi-purpose sports centres); 5) developing a common framework and coordinating unit that will assist in getting provincial and local government capacity on the same level; and 6) supporting local municipalities with regard to the effective use of the Municipal Infrastructure Grant (MIG) provided for sport and recreation infrastructure (South African Local Government Association Local Government Sport and Recreation Framework, 2014). Through the MIG, municipalities are not only able to build and construct sport and recreation facilities but also ensure that the facilities are well maintained and continuously upgraded (South Africa, 2014).

From the above discussion it can be concluded that the role of SALGA is an important one. As it is the role of local government to provide sport and recreation and adequate and well maintained facilities, the role SALGA plays is key.
2.4.2 The City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as provider of sport and recreation services on local government level

The Sport and Recreation Policy guidelines (2009) of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality and its agencies endeavour to utilise local resources in creating or upgrading facilities. This will contribute towards local job creation. All facilities should allow for easy access for all users. With regards to existing facilities before deciding on developing new facilities, a comprehensive audit of existing facilities should be carried out. A database of all these facilities should be maintained. Because of the shortage of facilities and the lack of funds for the management thereof, the use of these facilities should be co-ordinated. Although communities should take ownership of facilities because most local councils cannot afford to build and maintain facilities, the latter should also be availed for the use of the overall community. The use of schools and local club facilities should be optimised within the total sport and recreation plan of its particular community. The possibility of schools and the community sharing facilities should be investigated (City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, 2009b).

New facilities and upgrading of current facilities should be in line with the identified Independent Development Programme (City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, 2011) priorities, including a full environmental analysis. Organisations should be able to apply for funding to build or upgrade a facility. A project steering committee consisting of construction specialists, community leaders, sport federations and a member of sport for the disabled should evaluate the business plan. Once the business plan has been approved, a project steering committee should monitor the development of that particular facility. Development and upgrading should be in line with the following criteria, 1) multi-purpose facility; 2) local contractors; 3) maintenance plan; 4) community involvement; 5) accessibility for all; 6) sustainability and 7) international standards as determined by the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality’s equipment. The purchase and maintenance of equipment should be catered for in the facility business plan. The upgrading and development of facilities and provision of equipment should be in line with the identified needs. The City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality attempts to ensure that the provision for sport and recreation facilities is included in the Open Space Master framework for the City.
of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In terms of the management of facilities, the community should, together with the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, take ownership of the management of newly developed or upgraded facilities. A facility should be viewed as a community centre that is available to the community, and not to the exclusive few. The Facility Manager should submit regular reports to the facility committee. The City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality should ensure that all facilities are managed transparently and in line with business practises to promote the sustainability thereof. When it comes to safety at facilities, all operational sport and recreation facilities within the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality should comply with the Occupational Health and Safety Act, Act 85 of 1993 (City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, 2009b).

It is stated in the Sport and Recreation Policy of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality (2009) that to ensure an effective policy for this region, in line with the current thrusts in South African Sport and Recreation, the above mentioned guidelines from the National White Paper of Sport and Recreation South Africa (2012) should be regarded as the cornerstone for future policy development. In delivering sport and recreation services to all in City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, focus is placed on the city as well as social development. As part of city development, the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality should strive to be viewed as an international sport and recreation destination. Attracting and hosting international sporting events is paramount to realising this. Sport and recreation could assist in the overall economic development of this region through hosting of big sporting and recreation events that will have a far reaching economic impact on the city directly or indirectly in terms of tourist, marketing or future spending spin-offs (City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, 2009a & South Africa, 2012a).

Community development should be facilitated through sport and recreation services, therefore contributing meaningfully to the social wellbeing of the residents in the region. In other words, and with reference to the above mentioned policy guidelines, the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality (2009) should endeavour to promote social and economic development in the exercise of local government matters entrusted to it such as with regards to local sports facilities by national government. As stated earlier with reference to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa
Act 108 of 1996 and the South African National Sport and Recreation Act 10 of 1998 including the National Sport and Recreation Norms and Standards (2012), the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality may exercise any power reasonably necessary for, or incidental to, the effective performance of the function of local sports facilities. Therefore, it should be argued that aspects relating to such facilities, namely, the provision, maintenance, promotion and co-ordination of these facilities be well within the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality powers (South Africa, 1996; South Africa, 1998 & City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, 2009b).

The South African National Sports and Recreation Act 10 of 1998 stipulates that a local authority may carry out sporting or recreation activities or activities relating to physical education, sport and recreation, including training programmes and development of leadership qualities. However, the above mentioned Act does not define the extent of such activities and it may therefore be presumed to include any sporting-related activity subject to such activities being in line with national and provincial government’s sport and recreational policies. The City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is also responsible for the above mentioned functions and responsibilities. These functions are the responsibility of the Department of Sport, Recreation, Arts, Culture and Libraries (SRACL) in the city. The vision of the Department of Sport, Recreation, Arts, Culture and Libraries is to provide sport and recreation facilities and services in order to develop the community in a holistic manner to contribute meaningfully to the improvement of the quality of life of the citizens of Tshwane. The department’s mission is to manage, develop and promote sport and recreation services by providing facilities, develop programmes and projects in partnership with all stakeholders (South Africa, 1998 & City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, 2009).

According to the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality Independent Development Programme Report (2011), sport and recreation is to be developed in a holistic manner to contribute meaningfully to the improvement of the quality of life of the citizens of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, and hence sport and recreation must be managed, developed and promoted through the provision of facilities, and the development of programmes and projects. The vision of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality’s Department of SRACL is to provide the best
possible sport and recreation facilities and services to all people in Tshwane to enhance their quality of life. Presently, there are 464 sport and recreation facilities in City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Most of the facilities are concentrated in the central business district (CBD) and in Centurion. There are also quite a number of facilities which have been established in Atteridgeville (Region 3), Mamelodi and Eersterust (Region 6). The northern areas such as Soshanguve and Mabopane (Region 1) including areas such as Olivedenbosch (Region 4) are lagging behind, though this situation is currently under review. These communities, by and large, have identified several needs in respect of sport and recreation, though there is strong emphasis on the upgrading of existing facilities and the building of new facilities. This demand is not confined to one area but reaches around the city as a whole (City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, 2011). Hence more facilities need to be built and existing facilities need to be maintained and upgraded.

2.4.3 The City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality as provider of sport and recreation services on local government level

The City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality in the Gauteng Province serves as an example of implementing the relevant Priorities of the National White Paper of Sport and Recreation (SRSA, 2012) as it relates to sport and recreation facilities. Johannesburg’s many recreation centres, swimming pools and other sporting facilities make an important contribution to the well-being of residents. These are managed by the Unicity's Department of Sport and Recreation, which also looks after council halls, campsites and the municipal caravan parks.

The Sport and Recreation department in the City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality oversees a total of 565 facilities, 394 of which are for sports, 108 are for recreation and 63 are for aquatics. The 394 sports facilities include various stadia, some of international standards, while others meet national and regional standards. Grassed and gravelled fields are also provided, as are open, indoor and multipurpose facilities. The 108 recreational facilities range from simple indoor structures to multi-purpose indoor facilities, outdoor play areas and wide-open spaces at parks. The 63 aquatic facilities vary from international standard swimming pools to standard pools, outdoor and indoor, heated and unheated. In order to provide sport and recreation opportunities and facilities for sport and recreation participation for people living in
the City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality, the Department of Sport and Recreation has to perform a number of functions which include, the maintenance and upkeep of sporting and recreational facilities; formulate policies; address issues of social upliftment through the initiation and overseeing of projects and functions; ensure and facilitate the involvement of communities in putting programmes and facilities in place and ensure that outlying communities are not left out and encourage them to take ownership of new projects (City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality, 2010).

The Sport and Recreation Department in the City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality aims to provide programmes, activities, facilities, services and development to the people of the Johannesburg unicity so that a healthy sporting culture is created and maintained. In order to do this the department works in partnership with local communities. The empowerment of communities is achieved through volunteer aid and facility management, while the hosting of events provides economic and social growth. The Sport and Recreation Department believes that public and private partnerships are important for the development of programmes and facilities. Links with institutions are established at provincial, national and international level to provide co-operative management and exchanges. Staff and users are educated and learn skills to utilise the facilities to their maximum benefit. Sport, recreational and aquatic facilities are accessible and the programmes supporting them are well balanced with sound budgets.

The City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality’s recreation centres offer residents a wide range of services such as toddler play facilities; special courses for housewives and social clubs for senior citizens in the mornings; afternoon activities for young school pupils and evening activities for older children, teenagers and adults; as well as special holiday programmes. Fees are charged for specialised classes and courses but are usually very reasonable and are approved tariffs that are gazetted. Halls at the various recreation centres throughout the city can also be hired directly at these centres. Charges vary according to the function, time and day of the week. A number of the council’s halls are available for hire for weddings, flower shows, banquets, concerts or other indoor events, thus making a contribution to the well-being of the community (City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality, 2010).
2.4.4 The City of Cape Town Metropolitan Council as provider of sport and recreation services on local government level

The aim of the City of Cape Town’s Sport and Recreation Department is to enhance the quality of life of citizens and visitors through the provision of world-class facilities and programmes thereby contributing to Cape Town being a world-class sport and recreation destination. The strategy of the Sport and Recreation Department in the city is to facilitate grassroots sport and recreation development programmes, apply international best practices, sound relationships and partnerships with all role players, provide effective management of facilities, maximise income opportunities, and promote Cape Town as a national and international Sport and Recreation event city (City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality, 2004).

The City of Cape Town strives to provide and manages a range of sport and recreational facilities and programmes that are not only within easy access to the communities it serves, but are also of a world-class standard. Therefore, residents can play, relax and participate in sporting activities, thereby relieving stress and building relationships. The city’s facilities attract international investment by positioning the city as a premier sport and recreation destination. In the City of Cape Town, the Institutional Framework (City of Cape Town, 2004) is a uniform mechanism of interaction between the Department of Sport and Recreation and the users of all their sports field complexes such as City Sports Forum, District Sports Councils, Local Sports councils and Municipal Facility Management Committees (City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality, 2009).

The City of Cape Town’s Sport and Recreation Department manages 180 community centres, many with large halls that are ideal for public functions or private hire. Their approach to provision of community centres is to ensure that a minimum of 50% of the existing community recreation centres are utilised for a minimum of three hours per day per week for programmes contribute to community upliftment and individual development. The Sport and Recreation Department in the City of Cape Town is responsible for the provision and management of nine public bathhouses and ninety-eight public toilets and coastal public toilet amenities which are clean and maintained regularly. The city also manages fourteen camping and chalet facilities in the Cape
metropolitan area. These resorts form an important part of the city’s economic development, social development and tourism attraction. The key aims of these resorts are to attract investment, improve the income of resorts and to turn the resorts into an integrated tourism destination.

The scope of the City Resorts Project further includes 14 city resorts as facilities that provide overnight accommodation, for example, caravan parks and chalets, and in some cases includes day facilities such as picnic areas or braai facilities. The City of Cape Town also manages 36 public swimming pools. These facilities consist of olympic sized pools, splash pools for children, and fully equipped springboard diving pools. It also manages a total of seven stadia which are enclosed to ensure shelter from adverse weather. In addition, the City also has sixteen outdoor recreation centres that are of international standard and offer both able and disabled people the opportunity and facilities to practice their sport all year around, regardless of weather conditions. In addition to sports events, these indoor facilities are able to host a number of other events and function not related specifically to sports. The City also manages 166 sports field and complexes which are made available to all its citizens, including visitors and international sports teams (Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality, 2009).

2.5 SPORT AND RECREATION PROVISION AS CONTRIBUTOR TO QUALITY OF LIFE ON COMMUNITY LEVEL

According to Davenport, Anderson, Leahy and Jakes (2007), local authorities have become increasingly aware of the importance of providing sport and recreation facilities and services to contribute to the quality of life of their citizens. Local authorities have also recognised the need to respond to an increased change in how individuals chose to spend their time and to changing social habits and environment. Thus, local authorities have recognised that there is a need for the provision of sport and recreation facilities that will positively develop individuals, communities and the environment.

Local authorities through sport and recreation provision provide people with lifelong learning skills that can be transferred to other areas of their lives, improving their ability to cope with challenges facing them, enhancing their confidence, self-esteem
and employment prospects and also encourage full involvement within their communities. Delivery of sport and recreation through local authorities is not only confined to the provision of facilities but also finds expression in services designed to generate broader benefits and society at large. Understanding the potential benefits of sport and recreation is therefore essential to meeting the needs and desires of individuals and communities (Davenport et al., 2007).

According to the South African National White Paper on Sport and Recreation (South Africa, 2012a), as cited on South African Sports Commission’s Draft Policy Framework for Recreation (2002), recreation is defined as a guided process of voluntary participation in activity which contributes to the improvement of general health, well-being and the physical development of the individual to the benefit of society. In contrast, sport is defined as any activity that requires a significant level of physical involvement and in which participants engage in either a structured or unstructured environment, for the purpose of declaring a winner, though not solely or purely for relaxation, personal satisfaction, physical health, emotional growth and development (SRSA, 2002; South Africa, 2012a).

Literature has established that sport and recreation can contribute to the health and well-being of the individual and communities and minimise adverse social, economic and environmental impacts. The impact of sport and recreation extends beyond the confines of participation. It is felt in many other spheres of life like health, education, economy, crime, nation-building and international relations. According to the South Africa National White Paper on Sport and Recreation (2012), there is sufficient evidence that sport and recreation have enormous social and economic values to a country. The actual impact thereof is largely the result of the quality of the overall sport and recreation systems put in place by government on all levels and the private sector. There is no sport and recreation system in the world that does not have social and economic value but the challenge is maximising this value (South Africa, 2012a). These benefits are discussed in more detail below.
2.5.1 Social benefits of sport and recreation

Participation in sport and recreation programmes can empower and promote the inclusion of marginalised groups in society. In addition, participation in sport and recreation also has certain social benefits. These benefits include long-term health benefits, stronger and more secure communities, closer family units, social cohesion through its ability to break down social and cultural barriers and bringing people from different backgrounds together, providing venues where people can meet and interact, providing an opportunity to serve as a volunteer in the community, teaching people about respect for other people and property, getting people of all ages involved in their communities, giving people a sense of purpose and addressing social issues such as conflict and crime. Furthermore, active participants could benefit from developing and improving a variety of skills, including management and administrative, problem solving, communication, coaching and mentoring and leadership skills. Sport and recreation programmes may also empower and promote the inclusion of marginalised groups, especially women, the youth, rural communities and people with disabilities.

For every rand invested in sport and recreation there are multiple social benefits such as stronger and more secure communities, social cohesion, and crime reduction. Participation in sport and recreation programmes has also been shown to improve a range of cognitive and social skills such as self-discipline, self-confidence, cultural identity and pride, goal setting and delayed gratification and cooperation and conflict resolution (Higgins & Burchill, 2005; Lonsdale, Wilkinson, Armstrong, McClay, Clerke & Cook, 2011).

Participating in sports and recreation is enjoyable for most people. It provides opportunities to build physical and social skills and develop friendships. This makes sport and recreation activities useful for engaging people in programmes that aim to build other skills or promote health goals such as increased life expectancy (Cunningham & Beneforti, 2005; Light, 2010). According to Phipps and Slater (2010), pleasure and relaxation are also important mechanisms by which both traditional and non-traditional forms of sport and recreation can help to improve mental well-being.
Boredom and a sense of having no purpose are often precursors to engaging in antisocial, destructive or illegal activities in communities. Participating in active pursuits is a prime mechanism for preventing these types of behaviours (Delfabbro & Day, 2003; Stojanovski, 2010). In the case of youth, being involved in active pursuits reduces the amount of unsupervised free time they have, which in turn could reduce their capacity to engage in negative or risky behaviours (Morris, Sallybanks & Willis, 2003), while promoting positive behaviours and even some social or employment opportunities (Frazier, Cappella & Atkins, 2007). Nichols (2007) also noted that by providing a positive environment in which to take risks, sport and recreation can provide an alternative to criminal behaviour as a way of maintaining one’s social standing.

The South Australian Commissioner for Social Inclusion’s interviews with delinquent youth document that the youth repeatedly called for increased arts and sport activities, so that crime does not become an appealing option (South Australian Commissioner for Social Inclusion, 2007). Sport and recreation participation are repeatedly shown to be a powerful antidote to boredom (Cunningham & Beneforti, 2005; Ruhanen & Whitford, 2011). Sport activities often require longer-term commitment to build technical skill and mastery, which Nichols suggests can be a hook, or long-term diversion from negative behaviours (Nichols, 2007). Empowering people to live happy, fulfilling lives is an important mechanism for developing sustained, healthy communities. Sport and recreation programmes not only teach physical skills, but can also be used to teach a range of other cognitive social skills that are important for personal and community functioning in everyday life. For example, group activities can be sites for learning to communicate more clearly, relate to different people and build networks, contribute ideas, and learn pro-social values (Light, 2010; Nichols, 2007).

In addition, sport and recreation programmes can support skills development in four ways, namely, 1) context-based learning situated in a community of practice where participation in sport and recreation allows for learning new cognitive, social and other skills via context-based learning (Fogarty & Schwab, 2012); 2) fostering social interaction as social interaction is important for building a supportive environment to support changes in behaviour and attitudes, and helps reduce social isolation and build
social inclusion (Cameron & MacDougall, 2000; Ruhanen & Whitford, 2011); 3) fostering intercultural exchange may help to build greater social cohesion. (Phipps & Slater 2010; Ruhanen & Whitford 2011); and 4) group activities to promote inclusiveness (Light, 2010; Tonts, 2005).

2.5.2 Economic benefits of sport and recreation

Participation in sport and recreation may yield economic benefits such as improved productivity and employment opportunities where participants benefit from developing and improving a variety of skills. In addition to the social benefits, sports is big business making substantial contributions to national, regional and local gross domestic product (GDP). Since South Africa’s return to international sport, the sporting sector has made a significant contribution to the country’s GDP. According to the Department of Sport and Recreation, through the updating of the Case for Sport (SRSA, 2009), specific emphasis was placed on evaluating annual sport related spending in South Africa. After the successful hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, there has been increasing interest in the potential contribution of sports to inward investment and economic regeneration in communities, cities and regions. Globally, more and more policy makers realise that sport and recreation is more than fun and games. World leaders increasingly acknowledge that sport and recreation touches virtually every aspect of a nation’s ethos. It has proven abilities, among others, to bind people together as a nation, for example, in the case of the hosting of the 1995 Rugby World Cup and the 2010 FIFA World Cup, to increase sport tourism and contribute to peace and development, to increase social and economic values as well as to enhance healthy and fulfilling lives. To fully benefit from and exploit the social and economic opportunities of sport and recreation, it is essential to have an integrated sport and recreation delivery system in place that is effectively coordinated, aligned, and functional and performance oriented. The Case for South African Sport (SRSA, 2009) is linked to the ability of the overall sports system to produce both social and economic value that is measurable. The National Sport and Recreation Plan (SRSA, 2012) has paved the way for such a sport system on all levels of government.

Participation in sport and recreation programmes can lead to economic development through direct training in specific job skills, for example, sport coaching or indirectly by encouraging increased tourism (Higgins & Burchill, 2005). According to Ruhanen
and Whitford (2011), the latter is particularly salient in communities where sport events can attract increased tourism. The benefit to individuals from improved health both physical and mental and as a result of a healthier population has the potential to reduced costs to the National Health Service (Marsh, Mackay, Morton, Parry, Bertranou, Lewsie, Sarmah, & Dolan, 2010). According to Sport England (2013), the annual value of health benefits generated by participation in sport was estimated to be £1.7 billion in terms of savings in healthcare costs and £11.2 billion in total economic value in 2011-2012.

Other economic benefits include the contribution sport and recreation participation has on reducing youth crime. Participation in sport can contribute towards reducing crime and anti-social behaviour, particularly amongst young people; the net impact of sport on the environment through walking and cycling more thus reducing emissions and congestion; the use of sport-related projects to stimulate regeneration and community development as a result of major commercial sport projects or more local community sport activities; and the benefits to the individual and to society through volunteering. Voluntary work contributes to the wider charitable objectives of sport organisations and the volunteers themselves derive a range of benefits from the experience and satisfaction of volunteering (Sport England, 2013).

2.5.3 Physical and mental health benefits of sport and recreation

The World Health Organisation (WHO) (Edwards & Tsouros, 2003) defines health as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity. This definition moves from a strictly medical model of health toward the concept of total well-being.

Participation in sport and active recreation activities has direct benefits in improving physical health and well-being, such as increased life expectancy and reduced heart disease (Higgins & Burchill, 2005; Monyeki, De Ridder, Du Preez, Toriola & malan, 2012). Furthermore, Palmer and Baker (2002) conducted research which focused on the relationship amongst different aspects that individuals regard as necessary for increased quality of life. These included health, community pride, and other community elements which included leisure opportunities, economic conditions,
educational opportunities, social opportunities, government and public services, medical facilities and community involvement and support. While sport and recreation may have a measurable impact on national and local economies, they do have important non-economic benefits as well (California State, 2005). Bergerson, Rosenberger and Kline (2009) also demonstrated the importance for service providers to understand the role of parks, outdoor recreation and recreation activities and to work with the people in their communities to fight diseases and to ensure high quality of life for everyone in communities through parks, recreation and leisure (Bergerson, Rosenberger & Kline, 2009).

Some of the long-term health benefits derived from participation in sport and recreation include physical and mental health and psychological well-being. An active lifestyle can meaningfully prevent chronic diseases or delay the onset of debilitating symptoms. Increasingly people in urban communities are confronted with a number of serious health and social issues including stress, obesity, diabetes, depression, suicide and other mental health issues. People in communities with high stress levels are more at risk for common colds, heart attacks, and cancer. Stress has also been linked to obesity, high systolic blood pressure, and elevated heart rates (Brand Hanson & Godaert, 2000). Mental stress can decrease blood flow to the heart. A lack of physical inactivity can lead to a decrease in physical health. The trend towards a sedentary lifestyle in modern civilisation is recognised as a major contributor towards many of the above health and social issues. With the increased awareness of these issues, sport and recreation professionals, policy makers (including local government), health care providers, public safety officers and educators need to better understand the benefits that sport and recreation activities, facilities and programmes may play in addressing these concerns. Sport and recreation opportunities therefore need to be readily available in local communities while actively promoting the link between sport and recreation and better mental, physical and societal health (California State, 2005).

Obesity continues to be a major health concern all over the world and is closely linked to physical inactivity. Overweight and obesity are associated with increased risk for disease, mortality and chronic medical conditions, such as coronary heart disease, hypertension, diabetes, gallbladder disease, respiratory disease, some cancers, and arthritis. Physical activities can undoubtedly help curb obesity. According to Welk
and Blair (2000), the prevalence of obesity is more strongly related to a lack of physical activity than to increases in caloric intake. Cardiovascular Disease (CVD) or heart disease is a leading cause of death around the world. Three of the major factors, according to California State Parks Planning Division (2005), that significantly increase the risks of developing heart disease are 1) obesity, 2) diabetes and 3) lack of physical activity. Obesity and diabetes can be greatly reduced through regular aerobic exercise and physical activity. Sport and recreation activities, such as running, brisk walking, swimming and bicycling are excellent for elevating the heart rate and lowering the incidence of heart disease, obesity and diabetes, if done regularly (California State Parks Planning Division, 2005).

Research (Nieman, 2001; O'Sullivan, 2001) shows that positive changes in the immune system occur during moderate exercise. Even though the immune system returns to its pre-exercise condition, each exercise session appears to be additive in reducing the risk of infection over time (Nieman, 2001). According to a study conducted by O’Sullivan (2001), people who participated in community activities and surrounded themselves with family and friends were four times less likely to get colds than those who were more isolated (O’Sullivan, 2001).

The function of sport and recreation lies more in the experience derived from the activity than in the activity itself. The Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa has firmly committed itself to the principle of providing positive sport and recreation opportunities for all. Sport and recreation can be utilised to harness the promotion of ethnic harmony, leadership opportunities and the development of a healthy society. Sport and recreation are linked in a symbiotic relationship. The department has recognised that sport and recreation are much more than participation in physical activity and general fitness. They are important contributors to the benefits derived through participation. This is articulated in the holistic and strategic import of the sport and recreation development continuum. The provision of sport and recreation opportunities on local level is a vital prerequisite for sport and recreation development programmes (SRSA, 2012a).
Against the background of the above discussed benefits of sport and recreation, it can be concluded that participation in sport and recreation has a number of benefits and can have a positive impact on the quality of life of individuals and a community. It can further be concluded that physical activity helps to control obesity, boost the immune system, diminish the risk of disease and increase life expectancy and that participation in recreation activities is an important contributor to the mental health and quality of life of all people. Sport and recreation opportunities are essential for strengthening and maintaining healthy community life. Social bonds are also improved when families recreate and partake in sport together and when senior citizens and individuals with disabilities are actively engaged in sport and recreation activities.

2.6 SPORT AND RECREATION FACILITY PROVISION AS A FACILITATOR ON COMMUNITY QUALITY OF LIFE

A requirement in the realisation of the benefits of sport and recreation on local government level is availability of and access to community facilities. According to the South African Norms and Standards for Sport and Recreation Infrastructure Provision and Management (SRSA, 2010a) of the Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa, a sport and recreation facility is any demarcated and enclosed facility where sports and physical recreation activities are played. The enclosure can either be natural or man-made and has to be complete so that the facility is self-contained. Sport facilities form part of what is known as public assembly facilities on local government level. These include sport facilities as well as other entertainment or non-entertainment facilities where large groups of people can gather. Typical examples of public assembly facilities are stadia, arenas, theatres and convention centres. All of these types of facilities can host sport and recreation events. A stadium is a single or multi-purpose facility hosting a specific number of spectators according to its holding capacity. It is considered an outside structure. Examples are Newlands Stadium, Botshabelo Stadium, Supersport Park, Sahara Park, Ellis Park, or Peter Mokaba Stadium.

Outdoor playing fields and courts are typical multi-purpose facilities found in most local municipalities, where combo grass fields are provided for a variety of sports
activities, such as football, rugby, hockey, softball, and/or athletics. They frequently have adjacent all weather courts for sports such as netball, basketball, tennis or volleyball. The entire complex is fenced and gated. Examples of such facilities are Mankweng Sport Facilities or University of Kwa Zulu-Natal Sports Facilities.

An arena is a flat floor indoor facility with seating for spectators at one or more levels. The sight lines in this facility are usually designed for sports such as basketball, indoor hockey, indoor soccer, volleyball or tennis. Examples are the Standard Bank Arena or the L.C. de Villiers Sport Centre. Conversely, a theatre is an indoor structure that accommodates about 300-3000 people. Features include a sloping floor, fixed seats, permanent stage, acoustics, multi-sets, and dance overlay. Examples are Johannesburg Civic Theatre or the Market Theatre. In contrast, an exhibition centre/ hall is a modern enclosed structure that ranges from a few thousand to several thousand square metres, with high ceilings, and the capacity to display goods or for public entertainment, host exhibitions, flea-markets, trade shows and relatively small functions. These usually include offices for the administration of the Centre. Examples are the Durban Expo Centre, Feather Market hall, NASREC, or the World Trade Centre. On the other hand, a convention centre is an indoor structure occupying several thousand square metres of exhibition and meeting space. These facilities host a broad range of activities from sport awards, banquets, dances, music shows and large conventions, seminars and meetings. They usually include offices for the administration of the Centre. Examples are the Durban International Convention Centre, Sandton Convention Centre, and Cape Town International Convention Centre.

A Public Open Space is land that is owned by a local municipal council and reserved in terms of its town planning scheme for use for community sport, recreation and play. Sport and recreation facilities can also be classified as either single or multi-purpose facilities (SRSA, 2010a).

The above community facilities are important for a number of reasons. Sports and recreation facilities are valuable for health and fitness, they allow people to be involved in team activities and give people of all ages an outlet for their energy. Other facilities such as community and village halls are equally important in that they provide a venue for various activities and a hub for community activities. Sports and recreation facilities can make an important contribution to the physical

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infrastructure of communities by providing a social focus for a community and affecting people's perception of their neighbourhood. The maintenance of under-used community facilities and wider environmental recreation related improvements have a significant role to play in the development of the quality of life in communities.

The need for sports and recreation facilities in South Africa is further emphasised in Priority Two of the South African White Paper on Sport and Recreation (SRSA, 2012). Priority Two focuses on the provision of funds for the creation or upgrading of basic multi-purpose sport facilities in disadvantaged areas of South Africa. This priority focuses specifically on the provision of sport facilities and states that the challenge in the provision of facilities in South Africa is not simply about a shortage of facilities, but also the location of the facilities as well as the effective management thereof. To make facilities accessible to the majority of people, the approach of national government is to make multi-purpose facilities the focal point of each local community. This community-centred approach is to ensure that communities take ownership of the facilities and assist in their maintenance and management. All facilities should allow for easy access for users who have disabilities (SRSA, 2012a).

The provision of sport and recreation facilities is the responsibility of local government authorities. Every municipality is tasked with providing sport and recreation facilities to its citizens to enhance the quality of life of those who live in them. In order to do this, local authorities have developed policies which guide them towards the provision, maintaining and effective management of these sport and recreation facilities.

2.7 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF RISK MANAGEMENT IN SPORT AND RECREATION FACILITY PROVISION

Events that are hosted at sport and recreation facilities in local government authorities are frequently the lifeblood of the facility. Therefore, it is imperative that local government provide participants and spectators be provided a safe, secure, and accommodating environment. Each event, whether it sport events or fitness activity, has unique risk concerns that may require specific attention that cannot be addressed by a generic plan. In order to address these unique risks, a written event risk management plan for each event should be developed.
The plan should be part of an overall facility risk management plan. Sport and recreation facilities that are poorly planned, designed, or constructed often increase participants’ exposure to hazardous conditions and not only render the facility harder to maintain, operate, and staff but can also significantly increase the organisation’s exposure to liability and risk (Sawyer, 2005) and impact negatively on the potential to realise the spectrum of benefits attributed to participation in sport and recreation.

Risks are viewed broadly as physical injury or death, potential litigation, and financial loss and can be defined as those occurrences that expose a provider to the possibility of loss. The foundation of effective risk management is taking logical and proactive steps to handle uncertain financial and other losses that may occur from the activities of the facility (Jensen & Overman, 2003).

Risks, including the risk of safety, are one of the many important aspects in the management of sport and recreation facilities. Because sport and recreation facilities have multiple purposes, they need to be managed effectively to eliminate any sort of risk to the facility and people that use them. Therefore, the most effective way for sports and recreation facility operators and managers to avoid losses and risks is to design and implement a strategy risk management plan that identifies those situations in which operational difficulties may arise and then take corrective actions that will either eliminate the exposure, significantly reduce the chances of the situation from occurring, or reduce the impact of the happening should it occur. This process is referred to as risk management (Appenzeller, 2000).

The first step in developing risk management strategies is doing a capacity analysis of the sport and recreation facilities to determine the areas or categories of risk with which the sport and recreation facility operator should be concerned. The purpose of analysing the capacity to deliver services and selecting the areas of concern is to provide risk reviewers with a reference for brainstorming and finding more specific risk exposure. After the general categories have been selected, Risk Managers and Sport and Recreation Managers do a risk inventory and compile a list of specific hazards that they may face in each category. Interviews with pertinent personnel, loss analysis questionnaires, physical site inspection or business plan reviews can be used. Finally, equipment and facility checklists or audits designed to help expose risk
situations can be utilized. Not all risks are identifiable, however, if the above suggestions are applied, a fairly compressive list of risk can be identified (Sawyer, 2005).

An effective risk management programme increases the safety of those who use the facilities, reduces the losses to the local government, and increases effective use of public funds. Managing risks generally requires strategies addressing public liability caused by negligence, public liability excluding negligence, business operations and property exposure (Brown, 2003). Jensen and Overman (2003) emphasise that the foundation of effective risk management is taking logical and proactive steps to handle uncertain financial and other losses that may occur from the activities of a facility. Analysing the capacity of sport and recreation facilities and the competence of Sport and Recreation Managers become a management tool in the process of identifying areas of potential risks as illustrated in Figure 2.1 below.

![Figure 2.1: Process to identify potential risks in sport and recreation facilities.](image-url)
The first step in developing a risk management programme is to determine the areas or categories of risk with which the Sport and Recreation Facility Manager should be concerned. The purpose of selecting the areas of concern is to provide risk reviewers with a reference for brainstorming and finding more specific risk exposure (Sawyer, 2005). In addition, potential risks to the facility need to be identified. The second step is the analysis and assessment stage. Contracts, programmes, activities, facilities, participants, spectators, employees, volunteers and equipment cause risk. The cause of risk can also be identified as negligence, tort or liability. Although a number of risks can be identified, it does not imply that all of these will occur at a sport or recreation facility. Therefore, a risk assessment has to be done to determine the severity of loss arising from the risk and the frequency of occurrence of the risk. Severity of loss and frequency are the two criteria in assessing risk. To cover all possibilities the Sport and Recreation Facility Manager needs to utilise a risk assessment matrix to classify identified risks into risk fields. It should be kept in mind that risk assessment is an ongoing process and the severity and frequency of risks may change over time (Goslin & Burger, 2005).

The third step is the treatment of the risks. Risks can be treated in three different ways. They can be avoided, transferred or kept and decreased. Activities or programmes should be avoided when a high degree of loss can occur frequently. Such activities carry a high probability of financial loss, property damage, injury and lawsuits. The Sport and Recreation Facility Manager should manage such risks by either eliminating them by cancelling the event, contract or closing the facility.

Activities that are transferred are those that have moderate potential for loss. Such activities or risks might not be severe or frequent enough to avoid but might be large enough to cause substantial financial losses to the sport and recreation facility. Risks are then transferred to someone who is willing to take the risk. Furthermore, risks are mainly transferred by obtaining insurance or allocating risks to a sponsor or parent organisation. Nevertheless, risks that have a low or very low potential for loss can be kept, as there is very little chance of damage. Most importantly, risks can be reduced by developing safety rules; conducting safety audits; implementing maintenance plans; training employees; developing emergency procedures; and developing standard operating procedures. Standard operating procedures (SOP’s) are a set of...
instructions giving detailed directions and appropriate courses of action for given situation in a manner that will reduce the chance of liability. The final step is monitoring and reviewing the risk.

Risk management is an ongoing process; so, it has to be reviewed regularly to determine whether anything has changed which may impact on the risk issues identified. A risk management plan is the result of the above mentioned steps of the risk management process. A systematic risk management plan therefore reflects systematic reporting and record keeping; regular facility inspections; safety briefing and communication; employee training and goal setting; and emergency procedures in the form of standard operating procedures (Goslin & Burger, 2005). Continuous assessment, evaluation and correct management of these areas could be used to analyse the overall operational effectiveness and capacity of any sport and recreation facility. This could in turn lead to the effective elimination or reduction of any risk the facility is faced with. If risk is well managed and decreased, it could lead to an increase in the effective operation of the facility; conversely, an increase in risk could lead to a decrease in the operational effectiveness and capacity of the facility (Fried, 2005).

The Safety at Sports and Recreation Events Act (SRSA, 2010) is an indication of the importance of safe and risk free environments for sport and recreation participation on all government levels. The South African Government’s intention when developing this Act was to ensure that spectators are not exposed to safety and security risks when they attend sport and recreation events.

The Safety at Sports and Recreation Events Act (SRSA, 2010) of South Africa was formulated to provide for safety and security of all persons who attend sports or recreation events held at stadiums and other venues within the country. In addition, the Safety at Sports and Recreation Events Act (SRSA, 2010b) of South Africa also provides risk categorisation and the designation of sports and recreational events. In addition, the Safety at Sports and Recreation Events Act (SRSA, 2010b) of South Africa also addresses the issuing of general safety and design certificates for existing and planned stadia and venues; the issuing of special safety certificates and
prohibition notices; to provide for the powers and functions of a National Event Inspectorate.

The Safety at Sports and Recreation Events Act (SRSA, 2010b) of South Africa also provides safety and security planning and measures for sports and recreational events held at stadiums and other venues; selling of tickets for an event and accreditation requirements; to provide for spectator access and vehicular control at stadiums and other venues; alcohol, tobacco, environmental, corporate hospitality and vendor control at stadiums and other venues; proper accredited training of stadium and venue personnel; to provide for proper stadium and venue safety and security communication policies, structures and procedures; the role of volunteers at stadiums and other venues; to provide for measures to counteract ambush marketing; spectator exclusion orders; to provide for the securing of public liability insurance at stadiums and other venues; fees payable in terms of this Act; appeals and offences and matters connected thereto. Moreover, the physical well-being and safety of all persons attending sports and recreation events at sports and recreation facilities and their belongings should prioritised.

Planning, management and enforcement of safety and security at sport and recreation events held at stadiums and other is the responsibility of the venue manager and event organisers. Minimum reasonable safety and security standards at sport and recreation events held at stadiums must be upheld and the rights and interests of all persons who attend sport and recreational events must be recognised. All requirement and legislation applicable to the hosting of any sports and recreational events at stadia are to be complied with. The importance of the promotion of spectator friendly and secure sports and recreational events held at stadiums and other venues in the country must be observed (SRSA, 2010b).

2.8 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, a global overview of local government structures and recreation service provision was provided. In South Africa the overall goal of sport and recreation facility management is to provide and maintain facilities in sufficient quantity, diversity and quality to enable or facilitate participation in sport and
recreation activities. Sound sport facility management adds value to the sport or recreation experience and fosters favourable attitudes towards the organization, the activity and sport in general. A global overview of sport and recreation provision on local government level as well as an overview of sport and recreation provision on local government level in the South African context was provided. Participating in sport and physical recreation may enhance social inclusion as well as health and well-being (SRSA, 2012b; Collins & Kay 2003). A discussion on the benefits derived from sport and recreation participation and provision as a contributor to quality of life on community level was provided. Risk management is also an important part of facility provision and management. The significance of risk management in sport and recreation facility provision was also discussed.

In the next chapter, selected management theories will be discussed as well as the concept of management capacity. A literature review on management capacity on a broad scale will be presented. Management capacity’s contribution to management and effective service provision at sport and recreation facilities and facilities in general will be discussed.
CHAPTER THREE:

MANAGEMENT THEORIES AND MANAGEMENT CAPACITY

3.1 INTRODUCTION
In the previous chapter, the role and responsibilities of local government to provide sport and recreation activities to the benefit of all community members were explored. Issues such as good governance, effective delivery of services, creating good quality local infrastructure, management policies, adequate human resources and recurring requirements in the discussed local government structures to create enabling environments for sport and recreation were discussed. Organisations, especially local government, serve the society in a number of ways by bringing together resources to produce the products and service a society’s needs. However, local governments as organisations do not achieve their goals on their own.

Managers facilitate the deployment of basic resources that any local government has at its disposal to achieve its goals. Managers activate and guide the local authority until the goals have been achieved. Without management, local authorities are lifeless. Therefore, managers combine, allocate, coordinate, and deploy resources or inputs in such a way that local government’s goals are achieved as productively as possible (Smith, Cronje, Bevis, & Verbal, 2007). Furthermore, it is imperative that managers are skilled and have the capacity to lead an organisation to goal achievement. This further implies a sound understanding of management theory. In this chapter selected management theories will be discussed as well as the concept of management capacity. These theories of management will include the different types of management theories such as 1) the classical management theories and approaches; 2) the human relations movement/theories; 3) the quantitative management theory; and 4) the contemporary approaches to management theories. The following theorists who contributed to the different schools of thought include Frederick Taylor, Luther H. Gulick II, Henry L.Gantt, Frank and Lillian Gilberth, Henry Fayol, Max Weber, Hawthorne, Maslow, McGregor, Fiedler and Deming will be discussed.

3.2 THE THEORIES OF MANAGEMENT
There is no shortage of theories of management in literature which have formed the basis of management in organisations and businesses today. In order to better
understand or make sense of these theories, the concept of management itself has to be clarified first.

Management is best defined not as a limited number of ‘top’ or ‘leading’ positions, but as a set of competencies, attitudes, and qualities broadly distributed throughout the organisation (Adetule, 2011). Nevertheless, management skills or competencies are not the property of few. Management has also been defined respectively as an art, science, function, process, profession, resource and concept. An understanding of management as a concept can be approached from several perspectives. Like art, which implies high level of skills, proficiency, expertise and competence, management can be distinguished by its proficiency through studies, experience, observations, skills, expertise and competence. On the other hand, science is a body of knowledge acquired by method of science involving actions and results (Adetule, 2011).

The concept of management is multi-dimensional and can be approached as functions, a process or profession, as a resource. Management as a function is viewed as a special duty or performance in the course of work or duty; that is, planning, organising, directing and controlling. These are combined to make up functions or elements of management. Process refers to a systematic way of doing things. Management as a profession refers to an occupation that requires intellectual proficiency that should meet four basic criteria: make decisions based on certain general principles; 1) meet stated objectives; 2) standards of performance and not by chance or favouritism; 3) have superior knowledge and 4) guided by code of ethics.

Management is an indispensable resource that helps to effectively combine other resources, human resources and material, to achieve desired goals and objectives. Management as a concept refers to its universality. Management is defined in Nigeria the same way it is defined in Japan or the United States of America. The only difference is its application, which is relatively ‘culture bound’ (Adetule, 2011). For the purpose of this study, management is defined as the process of planning, organising, leading and controlling the resources of an organisation (local government) to predetermine stated organisational goals as productively as possible (Smith, Cronje, Bevis, & Vrba 2007). Management theories developed over time as
management environments changed, and are categorised broadly into classical management theories, and modern management theories.

3.2.1 Classical management theories and approaches

The oldest and most widely accepted school of thought among management practitioners is referred to as the “classical management movement”. This approach to management developed between 1885 and 1940 in an effort to provide a rational and scientific basis for the management of organisations. Its beginning stems from the Industrial Revolution when people were brought together to work in centralised factories as opposed to the handicraft system whereby people worked in small shops or in decentralised homes (Robbins, DeCenzo, Stagg & Coulter, 2013). Industrialisation created a need for efficient planning, organising, influencing and controlling of all work activities and resources. The classical management movement has two fundamental thrusts – scientific management and general administrative management. Scientific management centres on ways to improve productivity. This included work by Frederick Taylor, Luther Gulick, and Henry Gantt.

Administrative management theory examines organisations as total entities and focuses on ways to make them more effective and efficient. Henri Fayol and Max Weber are recognised proponents of administrative management theory. One of Fayol’s key contributions was the 14 principles of management. These principles provided and continue to provide a general management perspective for practicing managers and an instructional tool for academic teaching in the field of management (Rodrigues, 2001). Another branch of administrative management theory is the bureaucratic approach of Max Weber. His theory centres around six central elements, which are clearly defined division of labour and authority; hierarchical structure of offices; written guidelines prescribing performance criteria; recruitment to offices based on specialisation and expertise; office holding as a career or vocation and duties and authority attached to positions, not persons (Montemurro, 2001). The timeframe for the classical management movement runs from 1895 to around 1940. In recent years, there has been renewed interest in classical management theory as a method to cut costs, increase productivity and re-examine organisational efficiency and effectiveness (Robbins, DeCenzo, Stagg & Coulter, 2013). It can be concluded that classical management theories still have much influence in the way organisations are
managed today and have advantages in terms of laying foundations of basic management principles in organisations. Even though management environments have changed, the influence of the fundamental elements of these theories, such as organising, leading, planning and controlling in all organisations is still visible. In the subsequent paragraphs, the essentials of the scientific management school and the administrative approach will be explored.

3.2.1.1 Scientific management school
The beginning of the twentieth century brought new concerns about productivity in organisations. Businesses were expanding and money was available. However, labour was in short supply. Management began looking at methods to improve efficiency. Frederick Taylor’s entire theory was predicated on the assumption that the primary interest of management and the worker was one and the same. If management’s goal was lower labour costs, then the workers’ goal of higher wages could be easily met because their work was considered measurable. It was also Taylor’s assumption that once the workers understood the great advantages of scientific management, they would immediately develop a better mental attitude towards management and one another, thus eliminating the need for constructive criticism and complaints. Taylor was interested in ways of improving the productivity of workers. He believed that there was one best way to perform any task. Under his management system in the industrial era, factories were managed through scientific methods rather than by use of the empirical “rule of thumb” (Sandrone, 2000).

The main foundation of Taylor’s work was to describe how the application of the scientific method to the management of workers greatly could improve productivity. Taylor believed that increasing the efficiency of the workers scientifically would increase not only the opportunity of more work, but also the real wealth of the world, happiness, and all manners of the worthwhile improvements in the life of the working person. Taylor analysed each aspect of each task and measured everything measureable. He was well known for time-and-motion studies. Working in the steel industry, he observed the phenomenon of workers purposefully operating well below their capacity, better known as “soldiering”. This meant that the worker merely did his job but not to the best of his ability in fear of losing his job. The worker therefore
tried to balance the inner conflict he feels as a result of worrying about job security versus expectations of productivity (Montemurro, 2001). Taylor attributed soldiering to three main causes, namely, 1) the almost universally held belief among workers that if they become more productive, fewer of them would be needed and jobs would be eliminated; 2) non-incentive wage systems encouraged low productivity if the employee will receive the same pay regardless of how much is produced, assuming the employee can convince the employer that the slow pace really is a good pace for the job. The employees took great care never to work at a good pace out of fear that this faster pace would become the new standard; and 3) workers wasted much of their effort by relying on rule of thumb methods rather than on optimal work methods that could be determined by scientific study of the task (Grachev & Rakitsky, 2013).

Unnecessary physical movements that slowed production down were identified and eliminated, and the exact sequence of the activities was determined through the time and motion studies. A standard time for the accomplishment of each task was determined. Taylor also believed that money motivated workers (Smith et al., 2007). He stated the importance of management commitment and the need for gradual implementation and education. Taylor assumed that there was one and only one method of work that maximised efficiency. His theory was based on four principles, the development of a true science; the scientific selection of the worker; the scientific education and development of the worker and the intimate and friendly cooperation between the management and the workers (Sandrone, 2000).

Luther Halsey Gulick III agreed with Frederick Taylor that certain characteristics of organisations make an administrator effective. Gulick was in accord with Max Weber in that organisations were hierarchical. He added the concept of span of control limiting the number of people a manager can supervise effectively. Gulick also recommended unity of command so that workers should know to whom they are responsible in an organisation. He strongly advocated homogeneity of work based on the fact that an organisation should not combine dissimilar activities in single agencies. This was the basis of Gulick’s major contribution in the area of departmentalisation. He expanded Fayol’s elements of management with a popular acronym POSDCORB (planning, organising, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting), which made his theory widely known (Adetule, 2011).
Henry L. Gantt, a colleague of Taylor’s at Bethlehem Steel Works, implemented a wage incentive programme considered far superior to Taylor’s to promote productivity. Gantt’s incentive system provided bonuses for workers who completed their jobs in less time than the allowed standard. He also initiated a bonus plan for supervisors. Though he made many contributions to the field of management, Gantt is best known for an offshoot of his task and bonus system. The main thrust of his system was centred on the completion of a given amount of work in a given time. He developed planning and control techniques using a simple graphic bar chart, the Gantt chart, to display relationships between planned and completed work on one axis and elapsed time on the other. This planning tool developed around the turn of the 20th century and the idea behind it is relatively simple. It is essentially a bar graph, with time on the horizontal axis and the activities to be scheduled on the vertical axis. The bars show output, both planned and actual, over a period of time. The Gantt chart visually shows when tasks are supposed to be done and compares the assigned date with the actual progress on each task. This simple but important device allows managers to detail easily what has yet to be done to complete a job or project and assess whether it is ahead of, behind, or on schedule (Robbins, DeCenzo, Stagg & Coulter, 2013).

Frank and Lillian Gilberth built on the work of Taylor regarding production and operation management. The Gilberths are best known for their time and motion studies. From these studies, the Gilberths developed the “laws of motion economy”, which involved dealing with the use of the human body; the workplace arrangement; and tools and equipment design (Pindur, Roger & Kim, 1995 as cited in Mahmood, Basharat & Bashir, 2012).

3.2.1.2 The administrative approach

Henri Fayol, a French manager-engineer, was the first writer to advance a formal statement of management elements and principles. Although his training was in engineering, Fayol realised that managing a geographically dispersed company with ten thousand employees required skills other than those he had studied. He viewed management as more than devising systems and methods of increasing throughput as it
had been for scientific management. For Fayol, management involved all the activities associated with producing, distributing and selling products and services. A manager needed to be able to formulate plans, organise plants and equipment, deal with people, and do much more. Engineering school had never taught such skills (Wren & Bedeian, 2009). According to Pryor and Taneja (2010), Fayol’s theory was the original foundation for management as a discipline and as a profession. Fayol was also the first to advocate management education. He had a pressing desire to continue learning throughout his life and to document for future generations the important things he learned. In other words, he seemed to understand the relevance of his theory, that they are essential for an organisation to be successful. According to Henri Fayol (1949), to manage is to forecast and plan, to organise, to command, to coordinate and to control. He saw forecasting and planning as looking to the future and drawing a plan of action. Organising was seen in structural terms, and commanding was described as ‘maintaining’ activity among the personnel. Coordinating was seen as essentially a verifying activity. Controlling meant ensuring that things happen in accordance with established policies and practices (Adetule, 2011).

Henri Fayol, unlike Taylor, was interested in the overall management of an entire organisation. He defined management as comprising five interrelated elements, namely, 1) forecasting and planning: examining the future and drawing up a plan of action; 2) organise: building up the structure, material and human resources of the undertaking; 3) command: maintaining activity among the personnel; 4) coordinate: bringing together, unifying and harmonizing all activity and efforts and 5) controlling: seeing that everything occurs in conformity with established rule and expressed command (Adetule, 2011). Burnsson (2008) reiterates that Fayol’s management principles were considered as all of the activities that a manager has to perform in the organisation, which was to plan; organise; coordinate; command and control the actual work in the organisation.

Fayol’s theory was the result of his managerial experiences and his reflection on the ones that worked best. He is best remembered for his contribution to school of management thought. First, Fayol believed that organisational and business life was an amalgamation of six activities, namely, 1) technical; 2) commercial; 3) financial;
4) security; 5) accounting and 6) management (Parker & Ritson, 2005). Second, Fayol is known for the five elements or functions of managements, namely planning; organising; coordination; command; and control (Robbins, Bergman, Stagg & Coulter, 2000). According to Wren (2001), Fayol was the first to distinguish between technical and managerial skills. According to Fayol (1949), employees need to be proficient in all the skills at each level, but technical skills would be essential not only at the worker level, but in management positions. Managerial skills would become increasingly important as employees assume higher levels of management responsibility in the hierarchy of command (Pryor & Taneja, 2010).

In his work, Fayol developed 14 principles of management, namely, division of labour, authority, discipline, unity of command, unity of direction, subordination of individual interests to the general interests, remuneration, centralisation, scalar chain, order, equity, stability of tenure of personnel, initiative and spirit de corps. He did however caution that these principles are flexible and capable of adaptation to every need. He believed that all businesses are the same over the world; that is, business is universal. He identified common functions of management as planning, leading, organising and controlling and formulated management principles such as division of labour/work which states that a manager should give an employee a specialized job or activities to carry out. Fayol argued that specialisation leads to efficiency and high productivity; authority and responsibility where staff or employee’s responsibilities commensurate with the authority given to him or her (Meier & Bohte, 2000).

The principle of unity of command states that an employee can only report to only one supervisor. The principle of scalar chain or chain of authority and communication refers to the superiors ranging from the ultimate authority to the lowest ranks. The principle of discipline ensures respect for rules and regulations and authority of command. The principle of unity of direction explores one channel to direct related operations. The principle of unity of direction requires the individual’s interest to be subordinated to the organisation’s interests. The principle of remuneration of personnel refers to adequate payment of wages and salaries. The principle of compensation of employees argues that compensation should be fair, based on the value of the employees, and an amount that would be satisfactory to the employees and the organisation. Fayol went on to classify the types of remuneration as time, job

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and piece rates; bonuses; profit-sharing and non-financial incentives. The principle of centralisation deals with centralised authority and the extent to which decision making is concentrated at one particular level or situated at successively lower levels in the chain of command. The principle of order deals with people and the material that should be found in the right place at the right time. Equity and justice as principle focuses on fairness to all while the principle of stability states that the tenure of personnel must be stable and a high degree of worker turnover should be discouraged. Initiative as a principle argued that employee should be allowed to think, initiate ideas and execute plans of action independently. Initiative requires the power and freedom to propose and execute plans. Organisations encourage and reward employees who possess the zeal and energy to create innovative ideas and take initiative to implement them. The principle of esprit de corps refers to the unity of effort through harmony of interest or teamwork. This is necessary to maintain high morale and unity among employees (Adetule, 2011; Pryor & Taneja, 2010; Rodrigues, 2001).

Rodrigues (2001) postulated that an organisation’s proper implementation of Fayol’s 14 principles of management would lead to organisational efficiency and effectiveness. Rodrigues especially supported the concept of continuous training of personnel. Training is important because it not only improves employees’ skills, knowledge, and competencies, but it also enhances organisational capacity, capability and performance which are essential ingredients for organisational effectiveness and forms the foundation of an organisation. Many management experts consider Fayol’s 14 principles of management to be the early foundation of management theory as it exists today (Bartol, Martin & Matthews, 2001; Bedeian & Wren, 2001; Rodrigues, 2001; Breeze & Miner, 2002; Robbins, DeCenzo & Coulter, 2013).

3.2.2.3 The bureaucratic approach (Weber)
Max Weber, the father of the bureaucratic management approach, developed a system in which the individual was granted a series of primary occupations and responsibilities within an office. Each lower office was accountable to the next higher one following a systematic division of labour which pursued organisational goals and objectives. People working in each office were chosen for their position based on their qualifications. Their sole responsibilities were the primary occupations or classifications assigned to them when they were hired. Promotions were designed to
reward seniority, achievement or both (Pindur, Roger & Kim, 1995 as cited in Mahmood, Basharat & Bashir, 2012). The main concern of Max Weber, a German sociologist, was a more fundamental issue of how organisations are structured. Weber’s ideal bureaucracy is based on legal authority. Legal authority stems from rules and other controls that govern an organisation in its pursuit of specific goals. Managers are given the authority to enforce the rules by virtue of their positions. However, obedience is not owed to an individual person but to specific positions in the hierarchy of the organisations. One of the major limitations of this approach is that bureaucratic rigidity results in managers being compensated for doing what they are told to do and not for thinking (Smith et. al. 2007).

Weber identified six central elements in a bureaucracy namely, 1) clearly defined divisions of labour and authority; 2) hierarchical structures of offices; 3) written guidelines prescribing performance criteria; 4) recruitment to offices based on specialisation and expertise; 5) office holding as a career or vocation and 6) duties and authority attached to positions not persons (Montemurro, 2001). Based on these elements, it would expected that the organisation conducts its affairs in the following manner: individuals are recruited on the basis of relevant qualifications for a particular task; they are assigned a position with fixed duties, responsibilities and authority; the duties, responsibilities, and authority are tied to the assigned position and cannot be transported out of the organisation or into other positions within the organisation. The position or office is part of a larger hierarchical structure that defines superordinate and subordinate relations; written legal documents represent the formalisation of information prescribing task assignments and the rules and regulations of the larger organisation; the tasks of a particular office are part of a larger vocation or career; and each of these elements is designed to guide and direct individual behaviour toward the larger goals of an organisation (Brunsson, 2010).

Max Weber’s theory of bureaucracy described a new organisational form that Weber noticed started emerging in Western society during the second half of the nineteenth century. According to him, in this new type of organisation, leadership and authority were derived from a more ‘rational’ framework than was the case before. According to Jain (2004), authority was previously derived from either charisma or tradition. In the case of charismatic authority, followers obeyed gifted leaders out of devotion,
loyalty and respect. In contrast, traditional authority existed due to historical reasons and people obeyed a person in power for the simple reason that the person was in a position of traditional power. Weber believed that authority in the new, bureaucratic organisational form was more ‘rational’ because leaders were recognised and obeyed for subscribing to values of logic, efficiency and reason. Such organisations functioned on the basis of legitimately derived laws, rules and regulations. Laws, rules and regulations derived their legitimacy from the consistent, disciplined, rationalised and methodical calculation of optimum means to given ends. Moreover, Weber posited that bureaucratic action was typically oriented towards solving problems and that bureaucratic decision-making was guided by the objectives of efficiency, calculability and predictability. Consequently, decisions were more rational because they were made without regard to persons (Jain, 2004).

3.2.2 Human relations movement/ theories
The early approaches to management emphasised the technical aspect of the work at the expense of its personal aspects. During the Depression of the 1930s and major changes in the economy, it caused managers to challenge these approaches and their relevance in the business environment. Managing people became the major issue facing managers, and the latter became more oriented to human relations and behavioural science. This approach grew out of the famous series of studies best known as the ‘Hawthorne Studies’. These studies investigated the relationship between the level of lighting in the workplace and worker’s productivity (Smith et al., 2007). The Hawthorne studies provided new insights into individual and group behaviour and were without question the most important contribution to the behavioural approach to management at that time. Conducted at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company in Chicago, the studies were initially designed as a scientific management experiment. Company engineers wanted to see the effects of various levels of lighting on worker productivity. Using control and experimental groups of workers, they expected to find that individual output in the experimental group would be directly related to the intensity of the light. However, much to the company’s surprise, it was found that productivity in both groups varied with the level of lighting. Not able to explain it, the engineers called in Harvard professor Elton Mayo. This began a relationship that lasted until 1932 and encompassed numerous experiments in the behaviour of people at work. Some
conclusions to this were that group pressures could significantly affect individual productivity, and people behaved differently when they were being observed. Scholars generally agreed that the Hawthorne studies had a dramatic impact on management beliefs about the role of people in organisations and led to a new emphasis on the human behaviour factor in managing organisations (Robbins et. al, 2013).

Maslow and McGregor were two well-known behavioural scientists that influenced management theory. Maslow suggested that human beings have five levels of needs. The first level is the physiological needs. This includes food, drink shelter, sex, and other physical requirements. The second level refers to the safety need and includes security and protection from physical and emotional arm, as well as assurance that physical needs will continue to be met. The third level is the social needs that include affection, belongingness, acceptance and friendship. The fourth level refers to esteem needs and include internal esteem factors such as self-respect, autonomy, and achievement and external esteem factors such as status, recognition, and attention. The fifth level focused on self-actualisation needs and includes growth, achieving one’s potential, and self-fulfilment and the drive to become what one is capable of becoming (Robbins et. al., 2013).

The physical need for food and water is deemed the most important while the most advanced need is the need for self-actualisation or personal fulfilment. Maslow argued that people try to satisfy their lower-order needs before attempting to satisfy their higher-order needs (Smith et al., 2007). In addition, Maslow argued that each level in the needs hierarchy must be sustainably satisfied before the next need becomes dominant. An individual moves up the needs hierarchy from one level to the next. In addition, Maslow separated the five needs into higher and lower levels. Physiological and safety needs were considered lower-order needs; social, esteem, and self-actualisation needs were considered higher-order needs. Lower-order needs are predominantly satisfied externally while higher-order needs are satisfied internally (Robbins et. al, 2013). When analysing the relationship between Maslow’s needs hierarchy and management theory, it can be concluded that lower level tend to be satisfied first, before higher level needs. Therefore, workers will do the minimum job requirements that required of them, in order for them to receive a salary and will not
look for recognition or achievement if their basic needs are not met by the jobs they perform. Once lower order needs are satisfied, workers will move up the hierarchy of needs and satisfy the higher order needs, such as satisfying the need for self-actualisation from performing beyond what is required from their jobs and being rewarded for it, through incentives or even promotions to higher positions in their organisation.

Douglas McGregor was best known for proposing two assumptions about human nature and distinguished two alternative basic assumptions about people and their approaches to work (Zhang, Liu, Shang, Cheng, Lu and Ma, 2013). These two assumptions, which he called Theory X and Theory Y, take opposite views to people’s work. The two theories are opposing methods by which supervisors perceive employee motivation. According to Zhang, Liu, Shang, Cheng, Lu and Ma (2013), Theory X states that people dislike work, do not have a creative nature and are self-centred in their actions, so they need the constant threat of job loss and financial incentives to work hard. Theory X assumed that workers were drones, without ambition or initiative, had to be punished and bullied by bosses to achieve results.

According to Theory X, the only motivation for employees to succeed at their jobs is monetary gain. Theory X managers assume that workers must be constantly coaxed into putting effort into their jobs, while Theory Y, on the other hand, assumes that people relish work and approach their work as an opportunity to develop talents. Theory Y states that people are self-motivated, responsible, and creative and need to work. McGregor believed that Theory Y assumptions should guide management practice and proposed that participation in decision making, responsible and challenging jobs, and good group relations would maximise employee motivation (Smith et. al., 2007; Robbins et. al, 2013). Key Theory Y principles postulate that work is as natural as play or rest; workers who are engaged and fulfilled actually enjoy their work; under the right conditions workers actively seek responsibility, take initiative and make creative decisions and self-fulfilment is the real reward workers seek (Zhang et al., 2013). Theory Y has been adopted by more progressive management intellects that follow Elton Mayo’s human relations approach (Zhang et al., 2013). Questioning some of the fundamental assumptions about human behaviour in organisations, McGregor emphasised a new role of managers which was that rather
than commanding and controlling subordinates, managers should assist them in reaching their full potential.

At the foundation of McGregor’s Theory Y are assumptions that employees are not inherently lazy; are capable of self-direction; and capable of providing important ideas/suggestions that will improve organisational effectiveness. Thus, with appropriate management practices, such as providing objectives and rewards and the opportunity to participate in decision making, personal and organisational goals can be realised. Simultaneously in contrast to Theory Y, McGregor posited that conventional managerial assumptions which he called Theory X reflect essentially an opposite and negative view that employees are lazy; are incapable of self-direction and autonomous work behaviour; and have little to offer in terms of organisational problem solving. The manager who believes that people are inherently lazy and untrustworthy will treat employees in a manner that reflects these attitudes. Employees, sensing that there is little in the job to spur their involvement, will exhibit little interest and motivation (Kopelman, Proltas & Davis, 2008).

McGregor identified a number of management practices that he thought were connected to Theory Y assumptions such as participative leadership, delegation, and job enrichment and performance appraisals. Furthermore, McGregor recognised that implementation of these practices with a Theory X mind-set would be limitedly successful with employees seeing such techniques as disingenuous manipulations.

Although McGregor’s Theory X and Y may be characterised as representing a dispositional mind set, suggestive of one best way to manage, McGregor recognised that Theory Y managerial styles will not be appropriate in all situations (Heil, Bennis & Stephens, 2000).

### 3.2.3 Quantitative management theory

The quantitative theory deals with mathematical models, statistics, and their use in management decision making. The quantitative school argues that management decision-making should be based on quantifiable information. The quantitative perspective comprises the management science which deals with the development of mathematical models to assist managers in decision making and operations research.
(OR) which is an applied form of management science that helps managers develop techniques to produce their products and services more efficiently (Smith et al., 2007). Tools and techniques of the quantitative management theory such as computerised spreadsheets, Program Evaluation and Review Techniques (PERT), linear programming and regression analysis are used in many organisations to develop scenarios and projection, production scheduling, budgeting and cash flow management and inventory control. Since many aspects of management decisions cannot be quantified, the quantitative management approach is seldom used as the only approach to management (Berning, de Beer, du Toit, Kriel, Kriel, Louw, Mouton, Rossouw & Singh, 2007) and is usually applied in combination with other qualitative management theories.

3.2.4 Contemporary approaches to management theory

3.2.4.1 The systems approach

This systems approach to management developed during the 1950s (Robbins, DeCenzo & Coulter, 2013). This approach compensated for the two main limitations of the classical approaches in the sense that classical approaches ignored the relationship between the organisation and its external environment and that they focused on specific aspects of the organisation at the expense of other considerations. The systems approach to management views an organisation as a group of interrelated parts with a single purpose namely to remain in balance (equilibrium). The action of one part influences the other parts and causes imbalance. Managers can therefore not deal separately with individual parts but should maintain a balance between various parts of the organisation as well as between the organisation and its external environment (Smith et al., 2007).

Systems theory treats an organisation as a system. A system can be either closed or open, although most approaches treat an organisation as an open system. An open system interacts with the external environment by way of inputs, throughputs and outputs. However, a closed system is not affected by its external environment. A system refers to any set of distinct parts that interact to form a complex whole. An organisation is also a system with parts such as employee, assets, products, resources, and information that form a complex whole. An organisation receives resources such as equipment, natural resources, and the work of employees, referred
A negative feedback loop indicates a problem that should be corrected. For example, a sport and recreation product that needs to be recalled due to malfunctioning. A positive feedback loop can identify outputs that have worked well, for example, hosting a successful sport and recreation event at a facility. Thus, feedback loops are a means of confirming success or signalling that corrections to the system need to be made. The role of management in an open system should be fairly clear. Firstly, one needs to manage the inputs into the organisation such as capital, natural resources, equipment, and employees. Secondly, one must monitor the throughputs which are the use of the inputs for the creation of goods or services. Thirdly, one needs to manage the outputs into the environment which are the goods and services. Finally, one must monitor for positive and negative feedback loops and make changes necessary to alleviate any negative ones (Robbins, DeCenzo & Coulter, 2013).

3.2.4.2 The contingency approach

The Contingency theory was developed by Fred E. Fiedler. This approach is a development on the systems approach to management. The basic principle of this approach is that the application of management principles depends on the particular situation that management faces at a given point in time. Management has to decide whether to use the principles of the scientific, bureaucratic, administrative, behavioural, or quantitative approaches. Therefore, it tries to direct the available techniques and principles of the various approaches to management towards a specific situation in order to realise the goals of the organisation as productively as possible. The contingency approach recognises that every organisation is unique. Therefore, the characteristics of each situation are called ‘contingencies’, and they can be used in helping the manager identify the situation (Robbins et al., 2013).

Contingencies are the organisation’s external environment (its rate of change and degree of complexity), the organisation’s own capabilities (its strengths and weaknesses), managers and workers (their values, goal, skills, and attitudes) and the technology used by the organisation (Smith et al., 2007). The contingency theory is a management theory that states that in order to maximise work group performance,
leaders must be matched to the situation that best fits their leadership style. Fiedler’s contingency theory states that in order to maximise work group performance managers must be matched to the right management situation. More specifically, the first basic assumption of Fiedler’s theory is that managers are effective when the work groups they lead perform well. So, instead of judging managers’ effectiveness by what they do or who they are, Fiedler assesses managers by the conduct and the performance of people they supervise. Secondly, Fiedler assumed that managers are generally unable to change their management styles and that they will be more effective when their management styles are matched to the proper situation. Thirdly, he assumed that the favourableness of a situation for a manager depends on the degree to which the situation permits him/her to influence the behaviour of group members under their supervision. Fiedler’s third assumption is consistent with William’s (2012) definition of leadership, as the process of influencing others to achieve group or organisational goals. In other words, in addition to traits behaviours and a favourable situation to match, leaders have to be allowed to lead (William, 2012).

3.2.4.3 Total quality management approach
The Total Quality Management theory (TQM) was inspired by William Edward Deming. This philosophy of management is driven by competition and customer needs and expectations. Deming is widely credited with improving production in the United States of America during World War II, although he is probably best known for his work in Japan. From 1950 onwards, Deming taught Japanese top managers how to improve product design and product quality, testing, and sales, primarily through applying statistical methods (Robbins et al., 2013).

The Total Quality Management represents a counterpoint to earlier management theorists who believed that low costs were the only way to increase productivity. The costs of rejects, repairing shoddy work, recalls, and expensive controls to identify quality problems can lead to lower productivity. Deming further believed that profound knowledge, including an understanding of a system, statistics, and psychology, is required for the achievement of quality (Smith et al., 2007). Deming believed that by adopting appropriate principles of management, organisations can increase quality and simultaneously reduce costs by reducing waste, rework, staff
attrition and litigation while increasing customer loyalty. The key is to practice continual improvement and think of manufacturing as a system, not as bits and pieces.

Putting that philosophy into practice required following Deming’s 14 points for improving management’s productivity. These suggestions were the following: to plan for the long term future; to never be complacent concerning the quality of your product; to establish statistical control over production processes and require suppliers to do so as well; to deal with the best and fewer number of suppliers; to find out whether problems are confined to particular parts of the production process or stem from the overall process itself; to train workers for the job they need to perform; to raise the quality of line supervisors; to drive out fear; to encourage departments to work closely together rather than to concentrate on departmental or divisional distinctions; to not adopt strictly numerical goals; to require workers to do quality work; to train employees to understand statistical methods; to train one’s employees in new skills as the need arises, and lastly to make top managers responsible for implementing these principles (Robbins et al., 2013).

The TQM approach was governed under the following eight principles, namely, 1) everyone has a customer and a supplier; 2) involvement of people, every employee is responsible for quality and must therefore be involved; 3) quality must be managed and measured; 4) quality must always be improved continuously; 5) a process approach where problems much be managed or prevented not just rectified; 6) a systems approach to management where an organisation is managed as a system of interrelated processes; 7) factual approach to decision making where effective decisions and actions are based on the analysis of data and information; 8) life cycle costs not front end costs (Smith et al., 2007).

3.3 SUMMARY OF MANAGEMENT THEORIES AND APPROACHES

As the human era evolved and the times in which people lived changed, so did the need for management and evolution of management theories. Management theories have moved from early management theories to classical and then modern/contemporary management where today’s management theories draw from previous management theories developed over the years. The classical management theories, which included scientific management theories, administrative management
and the bureaucratic approach, took shape during the period from 1911-1947. These theories included management theories developed by Frederick Taylor, Luther Halsey Gulick, Henry Gantt, Frank and Lilian Gilberth, Henri Fayol and Max Weber (Robbins, DeCenzo & Coulter, 2013).

Beginning around turn of the twentieth century, the discipline of management began to evolve as a unified body of knowledge. Rules and principles were developed that could be taught and used in a variety of settings. These early management proponents were referred to as classical theories. A behavioural approach to management took place between the late 1700’s to 1950’s. This approach to management focused on the actions of workers. It dealt with how managers could lead and motivate employees in order to get high levels of performance. The quantitative management theory approach was developed between the 1940’s to 1950’s, and its main focus was on mathematical models and statistics. Unlike the classical models, this theory argued that management is to be based on quantifiable information through the use of as management science and operations research. Contemporary approach to management was developed in 1960’s till present day. This approach includes the systems approach, the contingency approach and the total quality management (TQM) approach. Most of the early approaches to management focused on managers’ concerns inside the organisation. Starting in the 1960s, management researchers began to look at what was happening in the external environment outside the organisation. Unlike Taylor’s approach to management where it enforced the ‘rule of thumb”, the contingency approach based its theory of management on the systems approach to management and its main focus is that the application of management principles is dependent on the particular situation a manager is faced with at a given time.

Berdayes (2002) examined the classical management theories of Henri Fayol and Frederick Taylor and postulated that their theories are examples of communication about exercising social control during the modern era. According to him, the work of Fayol and Taylor are united by the following ideas, which in a way make their ideas similar. The first is the work process, organisational structure, and an emphasis on the hierarchical division of labour. The second is the creation of the concept of the organisation as a whole. Fayol delineated clear lines of authority into a conceptual and
functional unity, and similarly, Taylor emphasised formalisation of work processes into a total organisation. The third is that the role of managers is to work with and encourage their workers. Taylor indicated that managers should work along with the workers, helping, encouraging, and smoothing the way for them. However, he also sought to change their mental attitudes and behaviours on the basis of scientific principles so as to improve operational efficiency. Along this same line, Fayol noted that need to determine their work abilities, encourage and train them, and reward enthusiasm, initiative and success.

While the work of Fayol and Taylor produced similar theories and concepts, there were differences. According to Berdayes (2002), Fayol was more open in terms of maintaining flexibility in the implementation of his theories and in the organisational hierarchies. Brunsson (2008) noted that Fayol and Taylor both believed that all kinds of organisations, irrespective of their production, size or location, need management and managers. According to Brunsson (2008), Taylor believed that managers and workers should specialise, but he expected the management activities to vary depending on the type of production and the specific organisation. Notably, he believed that on the other hand Fayol’s concept of general management specifically defines the activities of managers. Taylor also believed that managers should be technical experts who can perform the work better that their subordinates, but Fayol envisioned them to be more organisational experts who had benefited from a general management education.

Parker and Ritson (2005) note that various authors portray Fayol an Taylor as ‘romantic rationalists’ who consider workers as cogs in machines, the means to an end, who work only for money (Bartol, Martin & Matthews, 2001; Robbins, Bergman, Stagg & Coulter, 2000; Schermerhorn, Campling, Poole & Wiesner; 2004). Parker and Ritson (2005) indicate that Taylor and Fayol are also seen as advocating a universalistic approach to management, which means that they prescribed a rigid and flexible set of principles designed to suit all organisations. However, Fayol seemed to be much more flexible in the application of his theories and did not at all fit the non-idealistic stereotype. Fayol discussed changing plans to meet changing circumstances and many other topics regarding flexibility.
3.4 DIFFERENCES AND SIMILARITIES BETWEEN MANAGEMENT THEORIES

When analysing the above-mentioned theories, it could be concluded that there are similarities between the management theories. They all seem to have the same foundation of organising, planning, leading and controlling. And in these different elements, there is a great need for management capacity. This implies that no organisation can be effective and efficient without the capacity it needs to function on its optimal level. It needs workers, managers (human resources), both of whom need the competencies and knowledge to perform their duties, policies to govern these workers and managers; finances and a budget to produce goods and services; all of which work together to increase organisational effectiveness. All these elements in an organisation are interrelated, implying that if one element or department in an organisation fails, all elements will be affected and the organisation would not function effectively and efficiently. The capacity to manage any organisation is therefore vital to the growth and survival of an organisation and leads to organisational effectiveness.

The implementation and use of management theories could assist an organisation to function optimally. Each individual organisation should make use of a theory or a combination thereof, which best suits its goals. These theories will lay the foundation to the organisation’s management capacity and effective management from which they will strive to goal achievement.

3.5 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ELEMENTS OF MANAGEMENT AND MANAGEMENT CAPACITY

According to Heinrich and Lynn (2000), government management can be divided into two components of analytical purpose. Governments are composed of two complementary sets of organisational structures, procedures and technology, namely, those related to administrative functions and those related to policy implementation. The administrative functions and their associated infrastructure involve generic staff activities such as financial management, human resource management, capital management and information technology management. These activities support all of the other managerial work of government more directly related to running programmes such as policy implementation.
Administrative support and policy implementation operate simultaneously and influence a government’s performance and capacity.

According to Heinrich and Lynn (2000), capacity can be defined as an organisation’s ability to marshal, develop, direct and control its human, physical, and information capital to support the discharge of its policy directions. Therefore, management capacity concerns the extent to which a government has the right resources in the right place at the right time.

Management has the following dimensions in which it operates, namely, leadership; governance; strategy management competence; administration; human resource management; technical capacity; finance management; fundraising; project design; management and evaluation; advocacy; networking; community ownership; and accountability (leadership) which are discussed in more detail below. These elements are discussed in more detail to show the importance of each element to effective and efficient management of an organisation and to show the link between these elements and management capacity. Each of these elements can be grouped under one of the four main management principles, namely organising, planning, leading and controlling which formed the basis of Henri Fayol’s management theory. Fayol defined planning and forecasting as looking to the future and drawing a plan of action (Adetule, 2011). Project design can be grouped under the planning management principle as extensive planning is an important aspect to the design and implementation of any project.

Human resource management, financial management, fundraising, administration and technical capacity can all be grouped under the management principle of organising. Human resource is a significant part of any organisation. Without human resources, the organisation cannot meet its goals and objectives. Therefore, in an organisation where there are employees (human resource), there is a need for management of these employees. It is also imperative for these employees to be trained and placed in the positions that they are qualified to perform. This will in turn lead to organisational efficiency and effectiveness and an increase in the capacity to manage an organisation. This was emphasised in the bureaucratic approach to management theory by Max Weber as previously discussed (Adetule, 2011).
Leadership, strategy management competence, accountability, advocacy and governance can all be grouped under the management principle of leading. For an organisation to be managed efficiently and effectively it needs the management capacity to succeed. Leadership is important to any organisation in that people need to be lead and managed in order to reach the organisations goals and objectives. Without leadership capacity and competency, each employee would be working towards their own individual goals, and not towards those common to all employees in the organisation or of the organisation itself (Williams, 2012). Therefore, it is important to have the capacity to lead, to govern, to account, to advocate and to manage strategically in an organisation, in order for the organisation to be effective and efficient. Therefore, there is a great need to continually build capacity in an organisation in order to effectively and efficiently manage it.

Each of the above-mentioned dimension of management (leadership; governance; strategy management competence; administration; human resource management; technical capacity; finance management; fundraising; project design; management and evaluation; advocacy; networking; community ownership; and accountability) are important to building management capacity and formed part of the research questionnaire used in this research.

3.6 MANAGEMENT CAPACITIES

3.6.1 Leadership, governance and strategy management competence

Leadership skills determine the level of success of an organisation or business. Leadership can be described as the ability to influence group members to set and attain objectives. It entails much more than being able to plan, budget, staff, and carry out other technical managerial skills. According to Williams (2012), leadership can be defined as the process of influencing others to achieve group or organisational goals. Hoye, Smith, Westerbeek, Stewart and Nicholson (2006) define leadership as skilfully influencing and enabling others towards the attainment of aspirational goals.

Leadership is defined as a process of social influence in which one person is able to enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task. The major focus of this definition is that leadership is a group activity, is based on social
influence; and revolves around a common task. Although this specification seems relatively simple, the reality of leadership is very complex. Intrapersonal factors such as thoughts and emotions interact with interpersonal processes, such as attraction, communication and influence, to have effect on a dynamic external environment (Chemers, 2014). It is true that effective leaders are able to use the power of their positions to generate and influence employee effort. A leader provides a climate within the department or organisation that brings about desired outcomes through individual or group effort. Motivation is an important ingredient imparted by a good leader. Staff members who are inspired to excel and to make their business, department, or sport club a model for quality are desired outcomes of effective leadership. This can be linked to Fayol’s administrative management approach and Taylor’s scientific management theory. Taylor indicated that managers need to work along with their subordinates, helping, encouraging, and smoothing the way for them. Along the same line, Fayol noted that managers need to determine their workers abilities, encourage and train them, and also reward enthusiasm, initiative as success (Berdayes, 2002).

Managers at the helm of sport and recreation departments in local government authorities need to be able to influence others to follow their visions, empower individuals to feel part of a team working for a common goal and be adept at working with leaders of other local government departments to forge alliances, deal with conflicts or coordinate common business or development projects. Most importantly, the leadership that the immediate supervisor and top-level administrators provide helps employees understand their roles and performance expectations and their relationships to organisational goals and reward systems. In addition, good leadership enhances employees’ personal growth and development, motivation, performance, and job satisfaction. Therefore, sport and recreation managers need to have a clear understanding of the dynamics of leadership within organisations (Chelladurai, 2006). The sport industry thrives on organisations having leaders who are able to collaborate effectively with other organisations to run a professional league, work with governing bodies of sport and coordinate the efforts of government agencies, international and national sport organisations and other groups to deliver large scale sport events.
Organisational governance involves the exercise of decision-making power within organisations and provides the system by which the element of organisations are controlled and directed. Governance is a particularly important element of managing sports organisation, many of whom are controlled by elected group of volunteers, as it deals with issues of policy and direction for the enhancement of organisational performance rather than day-to-day operational management decision-making (Hoye et al., 2006). Taking the above-mentioned into consideration, it is clear that the efficient and effective management of an organisation is dependent on leaders who have the necessary and adequate leadership skills to lead and manage. Therefore, the development of leadership skills in an organisation will lead to an increased capacity to manage the organisation.

Corporate governance is the system by reference to which an organisation is managed and controlled and from which the organisation’s values and ethics emerge. According to the King II Report, seven characteristics were identified, namely, discipline; transparency; interdependence; accountability; responsibility; fairness and social responsibility (Smith et. al, 2011). This is done by means of policies and procedures and it is beneficial to capacity building as everyone in the organisation is governed by the same policies and procedures meaning that they are all working towards a common set of goals and objectives.

According to Toma (2005), corporate organisational governance is defined as who within the organisation makes what decisions. Every organisation is managed and governed through policies and procedures. This is to make sure that everyone in the organisation works towards a common goal and guided by rules to attain those goals and objectives. This can be linked back to two of Henri Fayol’s 14 principles of management which are unity of direction and centralisation. Fayol’s principle of unity of direction suggests that there must be one head and one plan (one line of direction) for all of the activities that have the same objectives. His principle of centralisation refers to the extent to which decision-making is concentrated at one particular level or is at successfully lower levels in the chain of command (Rodrigues, 2001). The above can also be linked to one of Max Weber’s six management elements of the bureaucratic management theory which is the element of right guidelines prescribing to performance criteria. Conversely, corporate governance is important to capacity
building in that it governs the way an organisation, its employees and all its resources are managed. One can then conclude that corporate governance is an important element to building management capacity of an organisation.

Sport managers utilise management techniques and theories that are similar to managers of other organisations, such as hospitals, government departments, banks, mining companies, car manufacturers and welfare agencies. However, there are some aspects of strategic management, organisational structure, human resource management, marketing, governance and performance management that are unique to the management of sport organisations.

Strategic management involves the analysis of an organisation’s position in the competitive environment, the determination of its direction and goals, the selection of an appropriate strategy and the leveraging of its distinctive assets. The success of any sport organisation may largely depend on the quality of their strategic decisions (Hoye et al., 2006).

3.6.2 Administration, human resource management and technical capacity
Administration theory has little value if it is not used effectively by the administrator. The two main administrative theories that are still used today are Henri Fayol’s administrative theory which includes his 14 principles to management and Max Weber’s bureaucratic approach to management.

To fully understand the study of human resource management, it must be considered in terms of its integration with various other disciplines. Firstly, human resource management stems from the study field of management. Management is defined by Robbins, Bergman, Stagg and Coulter (2009) as the process of coordinating and overseeing the work activities of others so that their activities are completed efficiently and effectively. It also depends on various other disciplines and the point of view taken when describing the management discipline within the context of people. Therefore, it also consists of prescribed work roles of people, selection and job description, directed towards the attainment of aims and objectives, organisational efficiency, effectiveness and success; achieving through the efforts of other people,
through leadership, motivation and groups; and using systems and procedure through culture, policies, communication, performance appraisal. This can be linked to Henri Fayol’s theory of management which comprises the four elements of management which are planning, organising, leading and controlling.

The second important sister discipline is psychology. Psychology is defined by Robbins, Bergman, Stagg and Coulter (2009) as the science that seeks to measure, explain and sometimes change the behaviour of humans and animals. Its contributing areas are learning, motivation, personality, perception, training, leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction, individual decision making, performance appraisal, attitude measurement, employee satisfaction; job design and work stress (Robbins et al., 2009). This can be linked to Fayol’s third element of management theory which is to lead. Thirdly, the field of sociology is of great significance, especially in groups and the cultural aspects of organisational functioning. In addition, Robbins, Judge, Millett and Jones (2010) defined sociology as the study of people in relation to their fellow human beings. Its contributing areas are group dynamics, communication, power, conflict, intergroup behaviour, formal organisation theory, bureaucracy, organisational technology, organisational change and organisational culture. This can be linked to Max Weber’s bureaucratic approach to management.

The fourth discipline, social psychology is, according to Robbins et al., (2010), an area within psychology that blends concepts from psychology and sociology and it focuses on the influence of people on one another. Its contributing areas are behavioural change, attitude change, communication, group processes, and group decision making. The fifth discipline is the study of the behaviour of individuals and groups within a political environment. Its contributing areas are conflict, intra-organisational politics and power. The sixth discipline, anthropology, according to Werner, Bagaim, Cunningham, Potgieter and Viedge (2007) is the science of humankind and the study of human behaviour as a whole.

Its contributing areas are comparative attitudes, cross-cultural analysis, organisational culture and organisational environment (Werner et al., 2007). Lastly, depending on the approach taken, the social science field of study referring to people in business has split into organisational behaviour and human resource management. There is major
interaction and overlap in the study and approach taken by academics and practitioners regarding these two disciplines. In this regards, Werner et al. (2007) describe organisational behaviour as referring to behaviour of individuals and groups within the organisation as well as the interaction between members of the organisation and their external environment. The above can be illustrated in Figure 3.1 below.

![Diagram of various disciplines impacting on human resource management](image)

Figure 3.1 Interrelationship of various disciplines impacting on human resource management (Nel, Werner, Poisat, Sono, du Plessis, Ngalo, van Hoek & Botha, 2011)

According to Hoye et al., (2006), human resource management is a central feature of an organisation’s planning system. It cannot be divorced from other key management tools, such as strategic planning, financial planning or managing organisational culture and structure. Many of these core concepts that underpin human resource management apply to all organisations. Human resource management can both drive organisational success, and is a consequence of good management and planning. It is therefore imperative that organisations (for example, local government) have well developed human resources.
Human resource management can be linked to the first function of Henri Fayol’s management function of forecasting and planning in his administrative management theory. Personnel are charged with the task of ensuring that a department’s or a municipality’s goals are achieved through efficient, effective performance of duties, the requisite for success being ethical conduct and professionalism on the part of the employees (Shafritz & Russel, 2005).

Human resource management can also be linked to one of Henri Fayol’s principle of management theory, namely, the division of labour which states that a specialisation of labour is required to enable people to perform work more effectively. Fayol believed that specialisation lead to efficiency and high productivity (Meier & Bohte, 2000). It can also be linked to one of Max Weber’s six central elements of his bureaucratic approach to management theory which is the element of recruitment to office based on specialisation and expertise (Montemurro, 2001).

According to Henri Fayol (1949) it is also very important that employees are trained for the positions in which they are employed, as this will lead to increased capacity, which will in turn lead to increased organisational capacity to manage an organisation. This is supported by Rodrigues (2001) as he believed that the proper implementation of Fayol’s 14 management principles, as discussed earlier, will lead to organisational efficiency and effectiveness. He supported the concept of continuous training of personnel. Rodrigues (2001) believed that training is important because not only does it improve employee’s skills, knowledge and competencies, but also enhances organisational capacity, capability and performance which are essential ingredients for organisational effectiveness and are the foundation of an organisation.

Technical capacity can be traced back to the era of the classical management theory of Henri Fayol’s administrative management approach. Fayol believed that organisational and business life are the amalgam of six activities namely 1) technical; 2) commercial; 3) financial, 4) security; 5) accounting and 6) management (Parker & Ritson, 2005). According to Fayol, employees need to be proficient in all the skills at each level, but technical skills are essential not only at the worker level but also in management positions. Therefore, this means that employees have to have the necessary skills and technical capacity to do their jobs and manage an organisation.
which is essential to the effective and efficient management of an organisation. As a result, it is imperative to build capacity through technical skills at every level in management and in an organisation.

3.6.3 Finance management and fundraising capacity

Financial management in sport involves the application of accounting and financial decision-making process to the relatively unique revenue streams and costs associated with sport organisations. This can be linked to Fayol’s management principles. Fayol’s management theory included classification of six management activities including financial activities which were defined as the search for and optimum use of capital and accounting activities which include stocking, balance sheet, costs, and statistics (Pryor & Taneja, 2010). It is important for sport managers to understand the financial management principle associated with a diverse array of incomes (Hoye et al., 2006). According to Brigham & Ehrhardt (2007), financial management is the pro-active and on-going financial focus in terms of planning and prioritising; resource sourcing and allocation; performance monitoring against revenue collected, expenditure and finance obtained, and debt reduction and result measurement; and control and accountability. Financial management is one of the most important duties of an administrator. Finances are the ingredients that drive an organisation, department, or business. Successful controlling finances and targeting them to attain the objectives of the organisation are attributes of a skilled administrator (Brigham & Ehrhardt, 2007) and a management capacity that needs to be developed and maintained.

Financial managers are to balance the achievement of short and long-term objectives in order to reach the target return on shareholders’ funds. Financial managers should assess and evaluate financial statements and make their decisions based on the assessment of associated risks and returns. Financial managers must use data provided by accountants as inputs to the decision making process. They are involved in financial analysis and planning. This involves evaluating and assessing the entire current financial position; determining what is needed in terms of increasing or decreasing production capacity and determining financial requirements. This involves assessment of the organisation’s current cash flows and formulating plans to ensure that adequate cash flows are achieved to support the goals and objectives (Brigham &
Ehrhardt, 2007). However, facilities cannot function without money. Money is needed to plan, build, open, operate, and maintain facilities. The problem is that there is often no guarantee that money will be available to keep a facility operating. Some facilities, such as government facilities, may appear to have deep public pockets. However, that appearance is misleading as most public facilities have tighter budgets than private facilities (Fried, 2005). Consequently, all facilities require financial planning. Revenue expenses from a previous year can be used as the starting point to developing a budget. A budget is a roadmap for the future of a facility. A Facility Manager looks at the budget as a way to reach financial success. The budget is a tool used by management to utilise resources effectively to reach a predetermined goal. It helps guide the financial decisions of most facilities (Fried, 2005). According to Shim (2000), a budget is a blueprint of planning and controlling. It enables an organisation to see its role and set goals accordingly. A budget is also seen as a control devise used to measure a department or organisation’s performance against the organisational plan so that future performance may be improved. Shim (2000) identified five major steps that need to be followed when preparing a budget, which are, 1) completing a sales forecast; 2) determining expected production volume; 3) estimating manufacturing costs and operating expenses; 4) determining cash flow and other financial effects and 5) preparing projected financial statements.

The budgetary process involves establishing goals, developing strategies, noting changes in the customer base, formulating plans of action, evaluating the market, looking at political and economic conditions, reviewing suppliers, analysing competition, appraising industry trends and taking corrective action (Shim, 2000). Without competent financial management capacity, poor budgeting could lead to loss of money or budget overrun. Therefore, in order for an organisation to perform effectively and efficiently, it needs managers who have the capacity and the knowhow when it comes to managing the finances of a facility. They require the skills to allocated the necessary finances to the different departments where and when needed; to track income and expenditure and also to control all assets and revenue. It is therefore very imperative for an organisation to have the capacity to deal with financial management in terms of hiring of people who are skilled and have the knowledge or financial management, budget control and management. This leads to organisational effectiveness as income and expenditure will be balanced through the
constant monitoring of finances and expenditure. This in turn could lead to organisational success; therefore one can conclude that the capacity to manage finances in an organisation is very important.

3.6.4 Project design, management and evaluation
In an organisation, when dealing with new projects and design, a great deal of management is needed. New projects assist organisations to keep up with current trends and cater to the needs of its clients. Therefore constant management of resources and staff is essential. At every step of the management process, monitoring and evaluating capacity is needed. This can be likened to Fayol’s fourth step of the management process, which is where monitoring and evaluating activities and providing corrective measures. Wheelwright and Clark (1992) suggest that learning and capacity building take an important part in new product development projects because it allows new products to be adapted towards new knowledge about changing environmental factors, such as customer demand uncertainty, technological developments or competitive turbulence. Hult, Hurley and Knight (2004) find that since an organisation has been characterised as an innovative performer, management must create and support organisational systems and mechanisms that embody a clear learning orientation and capability. Alegre and Chiva (2005) agreed and pointed out that innovation is dependent on the organisation’s capacity to learn, through which new knowledge is developed, distributed and utilised or in other words managed.

3.6.5 Advocacy, Networking, Community ownership and accountability
These management capacity elements can be grouped under leadership. As leader a manager is responsible for facilitating the above mentioned elements in an organisation. According to Henderson and Pochin (2001), advocacy can be described as the process of identifying with and representing a person’s views and concerns in order to ensure enhanced rights and entitlements, undertaken by someone who has little or no conflict of interest. This therefore means that in an organisation, a manager can advocate on behalf of employees under his or her supervision. This may result from non-agreement with organisational policies or rules which govern employment. Advocacy in organisations is a role that is also played by unions which speak on behalf of the employees in an organisation when met with unfavourable work conditions.
According to Hylton, Bramham, Jackson and Nesti, (2001), networking can be defined as the coming together of organisations or employees in an organisation to further the missions and visions of an organisation. This is where people unite in pursuit of a common goal. This can be linked to one of Henri Fayol’s 14 management principle namely the principle of unity of direction. This principle states that there must be one line of direction for all the activities in an organisation that have the same objectives (Brunsson, 2008).

Community ownership can be seen in communities where governments place a sense of ownership of facilities in the hands of community members. This assists local governments in managing facilities with the help of communities they serve.

Accountability is defined as the responsibility of employees to complete the tasks they are assigned, to perform the duties required by their job, and to be present for their proper shifts in order to fulfil or further the goals of the organisation (Garcia-Zamor, 2001). When an employee is accountable it means that they take responsibility for their work and decisions they take within their work environments to complete their duties. An employee is always accountable to their manager in an organisation. This is important to the effective and efficient management of an organisation and is important to capacity building in that every employee takes responsibility for their own work. Should an employee not perform their required duties in an organisation, they will be held accountable (Garcia-Zamor, 2001).

What became evident from these discussions is the importance of management and management capacity to unlock the potential benefits of sport and recreation participation and, to also ensure the effective and efficient management of an organisation.

3.7 THE IMPORTANCE AND VALUE OF MANAGEMENT CAPACITY IN FACILITY MANAGEMENT ON LOCAL GOVERNMENT LEVEL
According to Alexander (2013), organisational effectiveness may be described as maintaining commitment amongst the members of an organisation, communication
among operating units, projecting a positive and responsible image and enabling change and improving productivity. Facilities have the potential to contribute to the quality of life of individuals and it is important to identify and measure the extent that facilities support, or can be adapted to, the changing needs of the communities they serve, and contribute to productivity, profitability, service and quality. For any local authority to run effectively and efficiently, it needs good management of staff and resources, including sport and recreation facilities. Effective local authorities will recognise that many jobs which have not conventionally borne the tag ‘manager’ rely more the less on that bundle of actions-taking charge; securing an outcome; controlling affairs - which amount to ‘managing’ (Local Government Management Board, 1993; Chelladurai, P. 2006). Even though the duties undertaken in sport and recreation facility management may be fluid and can change according to the facility size, a Facility Manager has some well-defined expectations. According to the International Facility Management Association (IFMA), Facility Managers are critical for implementing any facility management plan and need to understand and appreciate several distinct functions (Fried, 2005).

The latest study, ‘Exploring the Current Trends’, conducted in the International Facility Managers Association (IFMA, 2007) highlights that the future competency and management capacity of facility managers should entail the following elements: operations and management; facility function; real estate; finance; human and environmental factors; quality assessment and innovation; planning and project management; communication and technology. When the management theories discussed previously are reflected upon, a link between these elements as stated by the International Facility Managers Association (IFMA) become evident. All these fall under the core management elements which are to plan, lead, organise and control. These management elements formed the foundation of Frederick Taylor’s theory of management which was later expanded by Henri Fayol. As stated previously, Fayol believed that the organisational and business life was an amalgam of six activities which were technical; commercial; financial; security; accounting and management (Parker & Ritson, 2005). Fayol also developed 14 principles of management which formed the foundation of his management theory but cautioned that principles are flexible and capable of adaptation to every need, making them less rigid. This means that every organisation can adapt these elements to its management as the need arises.
Furthermore, to prepare for the future, the IFMA stated that Facility Managers should develop their skill sets in regard to some of the following major current concerns such as linking facility management with strategy; emergency preparedness; change management; sustainability; emerging technology; globalization; broadening diversity in the workforce and aging building. Although the issue of potential versus current capacity is real, the distinction may not necessarily impede the process of hiring people. If a sport and recreation manager can be specific about what abilities a particular job requires, the manager can then verify whether an applicant for that job has those abilities. The solution is to match current ability requirements of the job to current capability of the applicant (Chelladurai, 2006). Evaluating the management capacity of facility managers in the Tshwane Metropolitan Council as intended in this study therefore becomes imperative.

Skills attainment and development was one of the core foundations of Henri Fayol under his 14 management principles. According to Meier and Bohle (2000) and Rodrigues (2001), Fayol (1949) believed that if organisational leaders used his theories, including the 14 management principles, they would be able to achieve performance excellence. Fayol believed that the principle of division of labour would help employees be more efficient by specialising in different tasks. He especially supported the concept of continuous training of personnel. Moreover, training is important because it not only improves employees’ skills, knowledge, and competencies, but it also enhances organisational capacity, capability and performance which are essential ingredients for organisational effectiveness and are the foundation of an organisation (Rodrigues, 2001).

Organisational effectiveness is the concept of how effective an organisation is in achieving the outcomes it intends to produce. Leadership and management skills are necessary for performing tasks in the organisation management cluster. Sport and Recreation Managers need good organisational skills to direct and supervise subordinates in settings such as sport and recreation clubs, municipal recreation programmes and facilities or sport associations for specific populations, such as senior citizens or people with differing abilities (Parker, Quaterman & Thibault, 2007). Organisational effectiveness is linked to Fayol’s second step of the management
process which is leading. With the growth of the leisure industry comes the increased role of managing leisure service employees. Motivating employees has long been recognised as a central role of management, and certainly leisure service workers cannot be managed the same as for example manufacturing workers (Townsend, 2004). Where the employee has frontline contact with a consumer, such as a Recreation Facility Manager, a great deal of responsibility falls to the employee to ensure the interactions between the consumer and the organisation are positive (Stamper & Van Dyne, 2003). A Recreation Facility Manager is someone who is responsible for various types of facilities such as recreation centres, water parks and pools, playgrounds, parks, fitness centres, sport complexes, and resorts, each with its own set of goals and challenges (Mull, Beggs & Renneisen, 2009).

Arising from the open system approach is an essentially pragmatic ‘theory’ which argues that there is no one theory at present which can guarantee the effectiveness of an organisation. Management has to select a mix of theories which seem to meet the needs of the organisation and its internal or external pressures at a particular period in its life. This has been termed a contingency approach to management. Organisations such as local governments need to learn and absorb their knowledge and knowledge based assets to implement them effectively in new innovative projects. One of the most valuable and distinguishing assets an organisation can have is its knowledge or capacity to manage. Organisational growth and survival, increased and more effective performance, sustained competitive advantage, and improved quality of service, are some of the benefits that successful handling of knowledge may bring, while the utilization of knowledge is key to production, power, and advancement (Jasimuddin, 2012). Employee participation in decision-making has long been recognised, as a source of enhancing organisational effectiveness. Therefore, organisational effectiveness is considered as a function of participation. The effectiveness of an organisation is the extent to which it achieves its goals; efficiency thus refers to the achievement of these goals using minimum resources and maximum management capacity to produce desired outputs (Luthans, 2002).

Research suggests that sport and recreation management competencies are universal and have remained relatively stable over time (Danylchuk & Boucher, 2003; Horch & Schütte, 2003) although competencies required for specific settings depend on the
assigned tasks and the type and size of particular organisations (Horch & Schütte, 2003). Most of the competencies required for sport and recreation management tasks are transferable, which means that managers should be able to use them in variety of vocational settings that include, but are not limited to sport and recreational organizations (Luthans, 2002). According to Fried (2005), numerous activities occupy a Sport and Recreation Facility Manager’s time such as that the Facility Manager needs to plan all facility activities, control schedules, manage contractors, develop work standards and evaluate both employees and external contractors; managers need to hire and organise all personnel, develop work schedules, and implement appropriate policies and procedures; Sport and Recreation Facility Managers need to develop short-, intermediate- and long- term plans, with a strong focus on financial ramifications for each option; the Sport and Recreation Facility Manager needs to focus significant effort on budgeting, accounting, and economic forecasting; workplace planning and design entail procuring and managing furniture and equipment for such areas as concessions, locker rooms, and press box; and a Sport and Recreation Manager will need to spend significant time on operations, maintenance, and repairs. These activities may also include exterior maintenance of sport and recreation facilities and aspects such as trash and pest control (Fried, 2005). An analysis of the above mentioned functions demonstrates Fayol’s management functions of planning, organising, leading and controlling.

Local government management capacity refers to the ability of a given local authority to effectively implement policy decisions and to offer a comprehensive range of potential services from which decision- makers can choose. Local government capacity thus depends on the administrative and technical expertise available in local authorities. The involvement of sport and recreation managers in all aspects of service provision from identifying priority needs, selecting an appropriate system and contributing to the planning process, through to the on-going maintenance and management of the system is now considered a necessary and important requirement for sustainable service provision. Education and training are also seen as fundamental to the process. Evaluating the management capacity of recreation and sport facility managers thus becomes evident in order to contextualise appropriate education and training interventions (Dollery & Robotti, 2008).
There is thus a need to create within a community and local authority the skills, confidence and capacity to work in partnership with one another, and take ownership and responsibly for implementation, management and long-term sustainability of sport and recreation. There seems however, a clear governance deficit in all Southern African cities due to tense centre-local relations, rigid patrimonial institutional cultures, citizens lacking trust in their authorities, lack of capacity within both the local authorities and in civil society (United Nations Human Settlement Programme, 2008).

3.8 CONCLUSION

One of the keys to successful management is the ability to understand and apply classical and modern management principles and techniques effectively. Managers must develop an in-depth knowledge of past and present models, theories and processes in order to manage effectively and intelligently. Contemporary management practice is pervasive in every aspect of human life within all types of organisations including local governments. With sound and solid management as a foundation, local government can be effective and efficient. However, this is achievable only if there is sufficient management capacity in all the departments of local government to carry out these tasks.

In this chapter, an overview of classical and contemporary management theories was provided. The following management capacities were deduced from the discussed management theories: leadership, governance, strategic management, effective administration, human resource management, technical capacity, financial management, fundraising, project design, advocacy, networking, accountability and evaluation. These capacities were subsequently discussed and related to the discussed management theories.

Sport and recreation facilities constitute significant assets of local governments. The significance of management capacity in sport and recreation facilities was therefore contextualised in a local government perspective.

In the following chapter the research methodology applied to this study will be clarified in detail.
CHAPTER FOUR
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Research methodology is a way to answer a given question in a specific context; the research question is also referred to as research problem. In research methodology, the researcher uses different criteria and method for solving given research problems. This chapter will therefore investigate the methodology used in this research, the research problem that needs to be addressed and how this was addressed by means of research design, data collection and how this data were analysed.

As had been previously stated in Chapter One, local government has the obligation to provide sport and recreation facilities, programmes and services to its communities (SRSA, 2012a). The vision of SRSA strives to build an active and winning nation, and one of the key enablers of this vision is sport and recreation facilities. The strategic objective is that South African Sport and Recreation should be supported financially so that it can provide adequate and well maintained sport and recreation facilities. Priority Two of the South African White Paper on Sport and Recreation (SRSA, 2012a) addresses providing funds for the creation or upgrading of basic multi-purpose sport facilities in disadvantaged areas. As these facilities must be community-centred, it becomes the responsibility of local government. Responsibilities of local government include needs analysis via a consultative forum, facility location decisions, secure funding, creating, maintaining and managing facilities formulating policies, as well as providing relevantly trained staff (SRSA, 2012a).

Priority Two of the South African White Paper on Sport and Recreation (SRSA, 2012a) also applies to the Department of Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Reality indicates that there seems to be sufficient and adequate facilities in the Tshwane Metro but the capacity to manage it effectively is lacking. The research question of this study is:
“What is the management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality?”

Based on this particular research question, it was hypothesised that:

H₀: The management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers employed in the City of Tshwane is satisfactory/high.

H₁: The management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers employed in the City of Tshwane is unsatisfactory/low.

In order to answer the above research question, the overall aim of the study is to determine a management capacity profile of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers employed by the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

4.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.2.1 Research design

Kumar (2008) defined research design as the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure. This study investigated the capacity of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality in managing its sports and recreation facilities. It also addressed the municipality’s effectiveness to manage these facilities and how that could lead to organisational effectiveness, and how this in turn could lead to a better quality of life for its residents.

According to Burns and Grove (2005), quantitative research is a formal, objective, systematic process in which numerical data are used to obtain information about the world. This research method is used to describe variables; to examine relationships among variables; and to determine cause-and-effect interactions between variables (Burns & Grove 2005). Quantitative research was applied in this research by means of a self-administered questionnaire which was used to collect data.

4.2.2 The research population

The research population (universe or target population) refers to the entire set of individuals to which findings of the study are to be extrapolated. Therefore, the
research population refers to everyone who shares those characteristics defined by the researcher as relevant to the investigation (Gratton & Jones, 2010). The research population for this study included all employees in the Department of Sports, Recreation, Arts and Culture in the City of Tshwane.

4.2.3 Research target population
A research target population is the group of or the individual to whom the research survey applies (Kitchenham & Pfleeger, 2002). For this study, the target population comprised all Sport and Recreation Managers that managed sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane’s Metropolitan Municipality. These facilities were spread over five regions namely, the North West region, North East region, Southern region, Central West region and the East region.

4.2.4 Research sample frame
A research sample frame is a comprehensive, itemised list of all individuals which comprise the research study population, from which a sample will be taken. It includes the settings or individuals of interest for the researcher, and provides a transparent framework from which to derive a sample (Cormack, Gerrish & Lacey, 2010). The sample frame in this study comprised all Sport and Recreation Facility Managers in the City of Tshwane’s Department of Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture (part-time and full-time). The City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is divided into seven regions. The areas that formed part of this research ranged from the North West region (Soshanguve - Falala Gymnasium), Mabopane, Pretoria North & the Akasia region (Club Rendezvous), the Hammanskraal region (Themba Stadium), the Central West area (Atteridgeville), the Eersterust, South Region (Laudium Stadium & Heuweloord Community Hall) to Centurion. The total number of facilities managed by the Sport and Recreation Facility Managers is 306 including sport and recreation facilities, community and sports halls (sports halls are specifically designated for sports use) and Scheme B-F facilities.

Scheme A facilities are classified under stadia. Scheme B facilities are self-maintained facilities with a full subsidy. Scheme C and D facilities are ones where the community or users use it for annual and seasonal rental. Scheme F facilities are self-maintained facilities that do not receive any subsidy. There are also Pay-for-Play
(Annual tariffs and occasional use facilities). Pay-for-play: annual use facilities that cater for individuals, clubs and schools wishing to use facilities on a regular basis, not willing to enter into a lease agreement for a specific facility as the latter is not being considered conducive to granting a lease. This ensures the maximum use of the facilities while still maintaining control over the facilities by sport and recreation officials in the area. All coordination of the use of the facilities by these groups or individuals is the responsibility of the sport and recreation officer with inputs from the local sport council. It caters for clubs and schools wishing to use facilities for training purposes as well as for individuals who would like to use the facilities on an ad-hoc basis. Pay-for-play: occasional use facilities are ones where a number of sporting codes are not suited to a full-time lease agreement, and in some cases the circumstances make allocation of specific facilities to one user group impractical (Government gazette 2012/2013).

4.2.5 Research sample

The total population of Sport and Recreation Managers in the Department Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture is 25. A non-probability purposive research sample was used in the study and the selected respondents’ management responsibilities include managing the facility; opening and closing, bookings and general administration; supervision of other workers; working with the facility’s budget; maintenance of facilities; daily operation; providing professional sport and recreation service provision and assisting in sport and recreation development programmes.

In this investigation, the following inclusive criteria were used to select the purposive research sample:

- Full-time employees of the City of Tshwane’s Department of Sports, Recreation, Arts and Culture; and
- Sport and Recreation Officers, as well as Area Managers managing sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

The purposive research sample comprised eight respondents. One of which is an Acting Executive Director who represents the upper management level, one who is a Deputy Director who represents the middle management level and five Sports and
Recreation Officers who represent the lower management level of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers.

4.2.6 Sampling procedure and sampling size

A purposive sample is one where people from a specified group are purposefully sought out and sampled (Cormack, Gerrish & Lacy, 2010). According to Kumar (2008), a purposive or non-probability sampling method involves purposive or deliberate selection of particular units of the universe constituting a sample which represents the universe. The research sample used in this study is representative of the larger population of Sport and Recreation Facility Manager as the respondents in this study manage more than one facility. These facilities range from stadia, to leased facilities; community and sports halls as well as recreation centres. For this research investigation, a purposive sample was used to select eight respondents. Only eight respondents were used in this research. Due to this fact, the results gathered cannot be generalised and emphasis would therefore be placed on exploration and description of the results.

4.2.7 Research instrument

A quantitative research method was used to collect the data. For this research, the quantitative Capacity Analysis Tool survey was utilised using a combination of both open-ended and closed-ended questions, which were done in the form of a 4-point Likert scale, with 1= strongly disagree and 4= strongly agree. Section A was used to collect demographical information. Sections B to I constituted the standardised ‘Capacity Analysis Survey’ (CAT, 2007) developed to measure management capacity of service organisations.

Section A of the questionnaire was used to gather general information about the facility and its workers. This information includes the name and area in which the facility is located; who manages the facility; how many workers work at the facility (both permanent and contract, even volunteer workers) and the workers’ duties at the specific sport and recreation facility. In addition, Section A of the questionnaire gathered information on the activities the facilities carry out and the number of people these activities reach; its key achievements and challenges; the facilities source of funding; future plans and the type of resources the facility has access to.
Section B gathered information on leadership, governance and strategy. It measured the principles that guide the operation of the sport and recreation facility, including its constitution, governing committee and its mission and values.

Section C analysed the administration and human resources within each sport and recreation facility. This included both permanent and contract staff and volunteers that work at each facility. It determined each worker’s area of responsibility at the facility, gender and gender equality; skills and the resources to assist employees carry out the assigned responsibilities.

Section D of the questionnaire gathered information on the sport and recreation facility’s finances and the management thereof. This included its budget, its accounts and records; the supporting documents such as receipts and contracts and its report on the facility’s finances and expenditure.

Section E focused on the sport and recreation facility’s projects. Specific information was sought on how projects were developed, managed and evaluated. It determined the type of projects the facility develops and the people it tries to reach with these activities, who manages these projects and the way in which these projects are monitored and evaluated.

Section F gathered information on the technical capacity at each sport and recreation facility. This entailed and included the skills of each worker; their level of experience; their knowledge on social issues such as HIV/AIDS, disabilities, trauma and psychological support.

Section G gathered information relating to the sport and recreation facility’s relationships with other local, national and international role players in sport and development and the influence on others through working together. It determined the level of influence the Facility Managers may have on policy changes; networking and partnerships with other stakeholders and industry role players.
Section H of the questionnaire measured the role community members play in the facility and how the facility staffs communicates with the community. It determined whether all members of the broader community participate equally and fully in activities, work and major decisions of the facility.

Section I gathered information concerning fundraising at the sport and recreation facilities for both projects at the facility and its overall structure. It helped determine whether the facilities conduct fundraising, its list of donors and its income generating activities.

4.2.8 Piloting the questionnaires

The purpose of a pilot study is to identify any faults or weaknesses in the methods before they are used on a larger scale. It gives pointers that help the researcher to avoid problems and improve their intended data collection methods (Walsh & Wigens, 2003). A pilot study was conducted with five managers who managed sport and recreation facilities that were similar to those that were managed by Sport and Recreation Facility Managers in the City of Tshwane. Nevertheless, results and feedback obtained from the pilot study did not form part of the study. The pilot study was conducted over a period of two weeks. The pilot questionnaires were distributed personally to each respondent, and collected immediately thereafter. The objectives and aims of the study were explained to the participants. The length of time it took for the respondents to complete the questionnaire was noted by each of them. Each respondent was then asked to make comments regarding clarification of terms and concepts which they did not fully understand. Those comments were considered and all the necessary changes were made before the final questionnaire was distributed to the eight purposively selected Sport and Recreation Managers in the City of Tshwane’s Metropolitan Municipality that constitute the research sample.

4.2.8.1 Data collection

Data were collected by means of a self-administered questionnaire. Respondents were contacted by means of e-mails and telephone to schedule appointments in order to complete the self-administered questionnaire. In addition, the questionnaires were delivered personally by the researcher to the purposively selected respondents. A cover letter with a detailed explanation of the research emphasising the importance of
the respondent’s participation to the study and what the questionnaire consists of, as well as an informed consent letter and research questionnaire (Capacity Analysis Tool) was distributed in person to the respondents and completed on site. The completed questionnaires were collected from the respective Sport and Recreation Facility Managers upon completion. This ensured a high response rate as the researcher was available in person to answer any questions and clarify issues. Eight (n=8) respondents completed the questionnaires representing seven areas and 25 sport and recreation facilities in the Tshwane Metropolitan Council. This included one Deputy Manager and seven Sport and Recreation Officers. Anonymity was emphasised and guaranteed by assigning codes to each completed questionnaire.

The researcher left the room to give respondents a chance to complete the questionnaire, so as to allow them to not feel intimidated or feel as though their answers would be coerced. Once the questionnaires were completed respondents handed them back to the researcher. Some respondents had some information that they wanted to share with the researcher but made it clear that they did not want that information to form part of the research in any way. But this gave the researcher a better understanding of some aspects of the managers’ day-to-day management of the sports and recreation facilities they were managing.

4.2.9 Data analysis
The first stage of analysing the results involved descriptive statistics to interpret data. It incorporates the use of numbers (n); means (\( \bar{x} \)); and standard deviation (SD) values. The interpretation of the data was linked to the literature review and the aims and objectives of the study. The results obtained are presented and discussed in Chapter Five.

Data from Section A of the questionnaire was analysed by making use of bar graphs and pie charts to represent percentage values of respondent’s responses. Data that could not be analysed by means of graphs and charts were grouped according to responses of respondents and a descriptive analysis of the data was given. Data from Section B-I of the questionnaire were interpreted by means of a table that gave nominal and percentage values with regards to respondent’s responses to perception values on the Likert-scale type questions.
4.3 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the research methodology used was discussed in detail in terms of the research design used, sampling, data collection and data analysis. In the next chapter the research data is presented and results are discussed and interpreted.
CHAPTER FIVE
RESEARCH FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of the study was to determine a management capacity profile of sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Collection of data was done by use of the Capacity Analysis Tool (CAT) as a self-administered questionnaire. The CAT was developed to assess the capacity of Sport and Recreation Managers to manage sport and recreation facilities effectively and to pro-actively identify potential risk areas (CAT, 2007). The CAT consists of 88 questions analysing nine dimensions of management capacity namely; general information; leadership, governance and strategy; administration and human resources; finances and budget of the facility; project design, management and evaluation; technical capacity; advocacy and networking; community ownership and accountability; and fundraising. The CAT has a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0.79.

5.2 RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.2.1 Section A: General Information

The purpose of this section of the Capacity Analysis research instrument was to gather general information on the sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This included the type of facility; where the sport and recreation facility was situated; who managed the facility; how many full-time, part-time and voluntary staff worked at the facility; the role of each staff member; the internal and external stakeholders that worked with the Department of Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture; activities that are carried out at the facility and how many people the different activities reached within the community; the key highlights and challenges the sport and recreation facility had been faced with in the past three years; the sources of funding; future plans of the sport and recreation facility and the resources the facility had. In the paragraphs below results on each of the above mentioned variables are presented.
5.2.1.1 Types of sport and recreation facilities

This question was used to gather information on the scope and nature of the sport and recreation facility that Sport and Recreation Facility Managers managed within the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

Table 5.1: Types of sport and recreation facilities managed by Sport and Recreation Facility Managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of facility</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stadiums</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community and recreational centres</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gymnasium</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport complex</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70 facilities including stadia, community hall, recreational centres, sport complexes, formal and informal sport grounds, scraped fields and gymnasiums</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>n=8</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results depicted in Table 5.1 represent the scope of facilities managed by seven of the respondents within the department of Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. One respondent managed facilities on a middle management level and therefore supervises sport and recreation facilities within the research area. The scope of sport and recreation facilities managed by the purposive sample of respondents includes community recreation centres, sport stadia, formal and informal sport grounds, sport complexes, gymnasiums and community halls.

It is assumed that the scope of sport and recreation facilities managed by respondents requires a broad scope of management skills and roles. Results of specific dimensions of management capacity to be discussed later in this chapter should confirm this assumption.
5.2.1.2 Geographic location of sport and recreation facilities

This question was used to gather information on the geographic areas where the sports and recreation facilities rendered their service were located. The results indicate that the sport and recreation facilities are located in five different regions within the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality namely, 1) the North West region; 2) the North East region; 3) the Central West region; 4) the East region, and 5) the South region. The results show that the sport and recreation facilities that formed part of this study are decentralised and not concentrated in one area of the City. This will allow for a general overview of management capacity in the areas in which services are rendered by sport and recreation managers in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

Table 5.2: City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality regions and average population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Average population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central West region</td>
<td>327,853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern region</td>
<td>748,669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Eastern Region</td>
<td>373,752</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Western Region</td>
<td>622,993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Region</td>
<td>354,819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2,428,185</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2 shows the average population of each of the five regions in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. A large number of citizens reside in the East region. These five regions are all demarcated into different areas and wards, which are shown below in Table 5.3 to Table 5.8.

Table 5.3: City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality Central West region wards and areas of demarcation (suburbs)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Central West</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ward</td>
<td>Areas of demarcation (suburb)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Capital Park, Daspoort, Hermanstad, Mountain View, Park Town Estate, Pretoria Gardens, Roseville</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Central West region in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is divided into 14 wards and 48 suburbs as shown in Table 5.3.

**Table 5.4: City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality South region wards and areas of demarcation (suburbs)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>South Areas of demarcation (suburb)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Celtisdal, Kosmosdal, Monavoni, Olievenhoutbos, Peach Tree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>Lyttelton Manor, Monument Park, Doringkloof</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>Claudius, Erasmia, Laudium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>Highveld, Irene, Louwlardia, Rooihuiskraal, The Reeds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>Pierre van Rynoverd, Cornwall Hill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>Glen Lauriston, Valhalla</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69</td>
<td>Clubview, Hennopspark, Zwartkop, Centurion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>Eldoraigne, Rooihuiskraal Noord, Sunderland Ridge, Wierda Park</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The South region in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is divided into 8 wards and 28 suburbs as shown in Table 5.4.
### Table 5.5: City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality North East region wards and areas of demarcation (suburbs)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>North East</th>
<th>Areas of demarcation (suburb)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ward</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>Doornpoort, Montana, Montana Park, Montana Tuine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td>Dilopye (Temba), Suurman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td>New Eersterust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>Stinkwater, Tswaing Village, Zoutpan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
<td>Onderstepoort AH, Wolmer, Mont Lorraine AH, Bon Accord AH, Pyramid / Pyramid Estate AH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td>Annlin, Annlin-wes, Magalieskuin, Sinoville, Wonderboom AH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73</td>
<td></td>
<td>Hammanskraal (1,2), Marokolong, Ramotse, Mandela Village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74</td>
<td></td>
<td>Hammanskraal West</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75</td>
<td></td>
<td>Babelegi, Kudube Unit 1,2,3,6,7,10,11, D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76</td>
<td></td>
<td>Majaneng, Mashemong</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The North East region in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is divided into 10 wards and 36 suburbs as shown in Table 5.5.

### Table 5.6: City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality North West region wards and areas of demarcation (suburbs)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>North West</th>
<th>Areas of demarcation (suburb)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ward</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>Dorandia, Florauna, Nina park, Pretoria North, Theresa park, Tileba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>Amandasig, Chantelle, Clarina, Karenpark, Rosslyn, The Orchards, Heatherview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td>Winterveld</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>Soshanguve (FF, GG, HH, JJ, LL)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td>Soshanguve (AA, BB, EE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td>Mabopane (A,E,N,S)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td>Kopanong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
<td>Mabopane (A,B,X)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
<td>Mabopane (R,T,U,V) (Nooitgedacht Dam)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The North West region in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is divided into 23 wards and 98 suburbs as shown in Table 5.6.

**Table 5.7: City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality East region wards and areas of demarcation (suburbs)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>East</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ward</td>
<td>Areas of demarcation (suburb)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Mamelodi (15) (east)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Mamelodi (8,11,12,20,22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Mamelodi (4,5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Mamelodi (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Mahube Valley, Mamelodi (7,10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Mamelodi (1,2,3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Mamelodi (14) (Moretele View) (South)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Mamelodi (26) (South)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>Mamelodi (24) (West)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Die Wilgers, Equestria, La Montagne, Nellmapius, Samcor Park, Willow Park Manor, Meyers park</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The East region in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is divided into 21 wards and 82 suburbs as shown in Table 5.7.

### 5.2.1.3 Management designation and staff profile at the sport and recreation facilities

This section of the Capacity Analysis Tool was used to gather data on the staff profile and facility management designation at each sport and recreation facility that formed part of this study.

#### 5.2.1.3.1 Management designation at sport and recreation facilities

Respondents were asked to indicate the designation of the person in the Department of Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture who managed the sport and recreation facilities that formed part of this study. All of the respondents (n=8) indicated that a Sport and Recreation Officer managed the different sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

According to the job description of a “Sport and Recreation Officer” in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the purpose of the job is to manage, oversee, coordinate, control and plan all sport and recreation services and facilities within the region in which they are stationed. The key performance areas of the designation are
service delivery, liaison and communication, and management and communication. Under these key performance areas are duties that need to be performed by the Sport and Recreation Officer which are outlined below in Table 5.8.

**Table 5.8: Duties of a sport and recreation officer in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Performance Area (KPA)</th>
<th>DUTIES/TASKS (What, How, and Why.)</th>
<th>FREQUENCY (Daily, weekly, monthly.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Service delivery          | 1. Planning for development and maintenance of service delivery.  
2. Management and coordination with regards to the maintenance of sport and recreation facilities in the area.  
3. Management, co-ordination and planning with regards to the establishment of new sport and recreation facilities in the area.  
4. Management and coordination of the planning and implementation of service delivery activities.  
5. Management and coordination of sport and recreation programmes and projects in the area.  
6. Oversee, manage and control all sport and recreation development processes.  
7. Provide practical inputs on service delivery contracts in the section. | Daily  
Daily  
Annually  
Daily  
Daily  
Daily  
Daily |
| Liaison and Communication | 1. Liaison and coordinator of communication with internal stakeholders such as municipal clubs, ward councillors and other relevant departments.  
2. Liaison and coordinator of communication with external stakeholders such as local, provincial and national sporting federations. | Continuous  
Continuous |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management and Supervision</th>
<th>1 Responsibility for the development, maintenance and implementation of a business plan for section.</th>
<th>Annually</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 Responsibility for the development and implementation of policies and procedures for the section.</td>
<td>Continuously</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 Responsibility for the planning, co-ordination and control of work and functions in the section.</td>
<td>Continuously</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 Advise management and personnel and plan and control functions according to work procedures.</td>
<td>Continuously</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 Identify shortcomings and problems within the section and find suitable alternatives.</td>
<td>Continuously</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6 Responsible for healthy labour</td>
<td>Continuously</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 3. Liaison and coordinator of communication with colleagues from corresponding departments within provincial and national government. | Continuous |
| 4. Communication with the relevant departments within council to control expenditure for the maintenance of facilities. | Continuous |
| 5. Liaison and communicator with recognised community structures relevant to the operations of the sub division. | Continuous |
| 6. Establishment of communication lines by assistance with the development of local sport councils. | Monthly |
| 7. Regular feedback provision to management on operations and programmes within the relevant area of control. | Continuous |
| 8. Assist with the establishment and operation of Project Steering Committees for the development of new facilities. | Continuous |
| 9. Liaison and communicator with relevant council departments on maintenance, legal, safety and security and other aspects. | Continuous |
relations in the geographical area of responsibility.

7  Responsible for the control of financial and budget processes for the section.

8  Management, control and supervision of subordinates.

9  Performance management of subordinates and control of lower level performance management.

10 Implementation of Municipal policies, procedures and ordinances within the section.

A minimum three year relevant tertiary qualification is needed in order to perform the job of a sport and recreation officer. According to the job description this is essential because sport and recreation is an expert field that requires specialised competencies such as interpretation of policies and guidelines, system design as well as compliance with legislation. Operations and financial management requires decisions by trained professionals. Moreover, specific in-house training is also required in order to perform this job which includes Systems Applications Products (SAP) training in terms of role mapping; project management training; middle management; general computer proficiency and other relevant programmes as provided by the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. A drivers licence, own transport and computer literacy are also essential requirements.

In addition the following individual competencies are required to perform effectively in this position namely, negotiating skills; business acumen; leadership skills; project management skills; communication skills; analytical skills; organisational skills; advanced linguistic proficiency; ability to do presentations and technical skills. These skills are gained through formal education, training and experience.

Based on the above discussion it is anticipated that respondents should not experience challenges in managing the sport and recreation facilities as the job description of Sport and Recreation Officers requires multi-dimensional management capacity.
5.2.1.3.2 Profile of staff working at sport and recreation facilities

Respondents were asked how many full-time, part-time and volunteer staff worked at the sport and recreation facilities they managed. The results are indicated in Figure 5.1 below.

![Staff profile at sport and recreation facilities](image)

**Figure 5.1: Staff profile at sport and recreation facilities**

The results show that there are more full-time staff stationed at the sport and recreation facilities than part-time and volunteer staff. This could be attributed to the fact that these sport and recreation facilities are operational daily and, therefore, needed fulltime employees working at each facility. Part-time staff that work at the sport and recreation facilities were however employed on a full-time basis in other departments within the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality but occasionally assisted with services such as maintenance of sport and recreation facilities on a bi-weekly basis.

Respondent 1 managed a stadium and had two full-time employees and three part-time employees working at the facility. Respondent 2 only had ten full-time employees whom he/she supervised, five of which were stationed at the stadium and five of which were stationed at the community hall. Respondent 3 had three full-time employees and five volunteers stationed at the gymnasium which he/she managed. Respondent 4 had one Sport and Recreation Officer, one Administrative Officer and three general workers stationed at the recreation centre under his/her management, all
of whom were full-time employees. Respondent 5 had three full time employees under his/her supervision. Respondent 6 supervised ninety full-time employees all stationed at different sport and recreation facilities while Respondent 7 supervised three full-time employees and two part-time employees stationed at a stadium. Respondent 8 had six full-time employees stationed at the stadium under his/her supervision.

Results also showed that full-time workers working at each facility included Sport and Recreation Officers, administrative officers and general workers. The ratio of workers is shown in Figure 5.2 below.

![Figure 5.2: Ratio of sport and recreation officers to general workers.](image)

For every Sport and Recreation Officer, there are two or more general workers. These full-time workers fulfil different roles and responsibilities at their respective facilities as outlined in Table 5.9 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Staff</th>
<th>Roles and responsibilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full-time</td>
<td><strong>Sport and recreation officers</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- supervision of subordinates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- facility management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- bookings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- daily operations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- general administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- implementation of sport development programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- budgeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- facility maintenance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the above Table 5.9 it can be concluded that the role of Sport and Recreation Officers involved general management of facilities which requires management capacity to perform the assigned roles and responsibilities efficiently. These roles include management elements such as human resources, leadership (supervision) and budgeting that are discussed in detail under sections to follow.

**5.2.1.3.3 Internal and external stakeholders**

The City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality deals with internal and external stakeholders. Respondents were asked to list the different internal and external stakeholders that co-operate with the Department of Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture at the respective sport and recreation facilities under their management. Results showed that internal stakeholders included national governments such as political parties for example the African National Congress; provincial government such as the Gauteng Department of Education, the Gauteng Department of Health and the Gauteng Department of Sport, Arts, Culture and Recreation. Internal co-operations include internal council departments within the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, for example the Department of Electricity, Department of Building Maintenance and the Department of Environmental Management: Division of Parks and Horticulture. External stakeholders included sport councils such as the Tshwane Sport Council and South African Football Association Tshwane; NGO’s; the community; ward councillors such as elected ward council members, federations such as Tennis South Africa, clubs such as soccer, cricket, tennis, netball, bowling and aerobics clubs and associations such as the local football association and Gauteng Cricket Association, national and provincial government departments; schools such as local schools located in each area, professional teams such as Professional Soccer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part-time</th>
<th>General worker (Horticulture)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-general outside maintenance of facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-removing weeds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-irrigation of fields</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Voluntary | -assist activity groups |
League teams, for example Super Sport United and Mamelodi Sundowns and amateur teams such as Castle and Vodacom league teams and individual athletes and residents.

From the above scope of internal and external stakeholders Sport and Recreation Officers liaise with, it could be deduced that considerable management ability and capacity are inherent to their jobs.

5.2.1.3.4. Activity profile and number of people served

Sport and recreation facilities offer diverse activities to their clientele. Respondents were requested to indicate which activities take place at their respective sport and recreation facilities and also provide an estimation of the number of people these activities reach. Results show that a wide spectrum of activities takes place at sport and recreation facilities. These activities included weddings; funerals; aerobics; church services; community meetings; social gatherings; birthday parties; youth and senior activities and political activities at community and recreational centres and halls. Sport activities such as soccer, netball, basketball, cricket, karate, tennis, bowling, softball, tournaments and league games take place at sports grounds, stadiums and sports complexes. Activities offered at sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality are dependent on the nature of the facility, for example, sports activities such as soccer would take place at a soccer ground or sport complex while community activities such as weddings or political rallies and meetings take place at community halls or recreation centres.

The wide array of activities offered at sport and recreation facilities indicates that both sport-related and non-sport related activities were offered. This finding suggests a well-developed scope of management skills and capacity required from Sport and Recreation Officers as these diverse types of activities differ in terms of goals and management outcomes.
Figure 5.3: Estimation of people activities reach annually

Figure 5.3 shows the average number of people each respondent reaches through their different activities. One of the respondents indicated that he/she could not estimate the number of people their respective sport and recreation facilities reaches as the number differs monthly. The average number of people activities reaches as indicated by the respondents (n=7) amounts to 13,846 people annually.

5.2.1.3.5 Key achievements and main challenges

Respondents were asked to indicate the key challenges and achievements they had experienced at their facilities over the past three years. These results are discussed below.

5.2.1.3.5.1 Key achievements over the past three years

Achievements noted by respondents encountered at their sport and recreation facilities included, 1) meeting the needs of clients with regards to service provision which resulted in increased bookings that took place at facilities, which in turn lead to an increase in the facility income; 2) facility upgrades and building of additional sport and recreation facilities in the community; 3) hosting of national and international events; 4) an increase in youth and community participation in sport and recreation activities and programmes and; 5) critical maintenance needs at the sport and recreation facilities were attended to.
As in any organisation and working environment, Sport and Recreation Officers however, were also faced with challenges. Challenges faced by the Sport and Recreation Officers who formed parts of the study are presented below.

5.2.1.3.5.2 Main challenges faced over the past three years

Respondents indicated that they faced challenges at the sport and recreation facilities they managed. Responses from the respondents detailed that the main challenges centred on maintenance issues that their facilities experienced. An analysis of the results suggests that these challenges can be grouped under six main topics:

1) **A lack of community ownership**, resulting in vandalism and clients’ unwillingness to pay to use the facility. This poses a challenge to the sport and recreation officer as it implies constant replacement of vandalised and stolen items at the facility.

2) **Limited operational and maintenance budget**, which lead to a lack of and decreased levels of maintenance at facilities. This challenge also has an impact on the first challenge mentioned above.

3) **Low qualifications and experience of supervisors**, which in turn lead to demoralisation of subordinates. This could imply a decrease in effective management of employees and the sport and recreation facility.

4) **A lack of equipment that is in working order**. As facilities are rented out to clients, especially community halls and recreational centres, this could lead to clients not utilising these facilities as they feel that they are not getting their monies worth. This in turn, could lead to a decrease in revenue generated from bookings.

5) **A change in community sport and recreation club management structures and executive committees**. When there is a constant change in sport management structures it poses a challenge to the Sport and Recreation Officers as it makes it difficult to know who to communicate with directly regarding sporting codes and clubs utilising the facility and this also leads to a decrease in being able to hold clubs accountable for what happens at facilities.
6) **Poor workmanship and work ethic of contractors.** This could be ascribed to the fact that contractors contracted to do maintenance work or facility upgrades at sport and recreation facilities are not properly managed and monitored. Contractors also tended to buy cheaper material for jobs and not the most durable or what has been specified for the job. Once the job is incorrectly done the first time, new contractors have to be paid to redo and correct the previous contractor’s job which resulted in a waste of money and budget funds.

From the above results it is clear that lack of maintenance and insufficient budgets are major concerns and have negative impacts on the management of sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Another issue of concern emerging from the results seems to be that contractors are not monitored and therefore money is spent on poor service. It has also become clear that preventative maintenance is not a priority. Maintenance is done as and when there is a maintenance problem instead of having regular maintenance done to curb frequent spending in the long run on a limited budget. This is a clear indication of lack of capacity to manage finances and leadership capacity. There seems to be a lack of planning, organising and controlling with regards to finance management and this could lead to decreased capacity to manage sport and recreation facilities effectively and efficiently.

### 5.2.1.3.5.3 Sources of funding

Respondents were asked to indicate the percentage of funding received from the following sources: local government; within the community; outside the community and from institutional donors. Results are indicated in Figure 5.4 below.
Figure 5.4: Sources of funding

The results show that the majority (81%) of funding for sport and recreation facilities that formed part of this study came from local government. With some of the challenges experienced at sport and recreation facilities such as inadequate and proper maintenance of facilities, it could be concluded that funding from local government is insufficient to effectively and efficiently manage sport and recreation facilities. Facilities cannot function without money needed to plan, build, operate and maintain facilities (Fried, 2005). Therefore as a dimension of management capacity, it is imperative that Sport and Recreation Facility Managers have financial management skills and abilities in order to effectively and efficiently manage a sport and recreation facility. As most public facilities have tighter budgets than private facilities (Fried, 2005), it is important for sports and recreation facilities to have a budget in place to assist with financial planning and guide the financial decisions of a facility. Without competent financial management capacity, poor budgeting could lead to loss of money or budget overrun (Shim, 2000) as was confirmed by respondents as being a major challenge.

5.2.1.3.5.4 Future plans for the sport and recreation facilities

Respondents were asked to reflect on their future plans for the sport and recreation facility under their management. These are reported on below.
5.2.1.3.5.4.1 Immediate needs and priorities of sport and recreation facilities
The Sport and Recreation Facility Managers in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality have future plans for the facilities they manage. Some of the immediate plans for the sport and recreation facilities included maintenance and upgrades of existing sport and recreation facilities; sports development; purchasing of more equipment at the facilities to be used by clients during bookings; and implementing effective preventative maintenance programs. Once again results show that maintenance is of great concern and this again can be attributed to the lack of insufficient funds to properly maintain facilities. These results can also be linked to financial management as a dimension of management capacity. According to Shim (2000) budgeting is a control device used to measure a department or organisation’s performance against the organisational plan so that future performance may be improved. Successful controlling of finances and targeting them to attain the objectives of the organisation are attributes of a skilled administrator or Sport and Recreation Facility Manager. Poor budgeting and a lack of financial management could lead to ineffective and inefficient management and a decrease in the capacity to manage sport and recreation facilities appropriately (Shim, 2000).

5.2.1.3.5.4.2 Future plans to upgrade at sport and recreation facilities
Results for this question show that five (n=5) of the respondents had no plans to upgrade their sport and recreation facilities. This could be due to a lack of available funds to upgrade existing facilities or to build new facilities. One (n=1) respondent’s plans involved building and upgrading of a new sport and recreation facility. Another respondent (n=1) indicated that there are capital projects currently underway in the region in which they work. These capital projects include upgrading of seven existing sport and recreation facilities and building of four new sport and recreation facilities. It could, therefore, be concluded that areas need to be prioritised in terms of new development. Not all areas can be done at once due to budget constraints. Therefore, upgrading and constructing new facilities should be done on a rotational basis once a needs analysis is conducted in the area and funds are available.

5.2.1.3.5.4.3 Use of more funding at sport and recreation facilities
Respondents were asked what they would do at their sport and recreation facilities if they received more funding. Respondents’ responses included renovations to existing
facilities such as extension of buildings and upgrades to facilities to comply with national and international standards; placement of security personnel at facilities; building of new sports facilities such as soccer grounds, netball courts and indoor and outdoor facility maintenance.

5.2.1.3.5.4.4 Equipment and facility resources

Respondents were asked to indicate the resources and equipment they had at their respective facilities that aid them in performing their roles and responsibilities. The results are reflected in Figure 5.5 below.

![Figure 5.5: Resources Sport and Recreation Facility Managers have access to.](image)

The results in Figure 5.5 indicate that the majority (62.8%) of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers in the Department of Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality have access to resources which enable them to perform their daily tasks and duties. Equipment includes access to email facilities; internet access; a computer or a laptop; telephone line and postal mail facilities.
The results, however, also show that there is a significant amount (37.2%) of respondents who do not have access to these resources which could in turn lead to challenges in performing their daily duties and which could lead to ineffective and inefficient management of sport and recreation facilities under their management. This could be as a result of a lack of available funds and budget to procure appropriate resources. For 37.2% of respondents who do not have resources, this means that there are cost implications in terms of traveling to another facility where there are resources. This could also lead to a decrease in service delivery to the public for Sport and Recreation Facility Managers that deal with facility bookings and daily walk-ins in the community, as clients cannot be assisted when they are not in the office.

5.2.2 SUMMARY OF SECTIONS RESULTS

Results from Section A suggest that sports and recreation facilities managed by sport and recreation officers in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality that formed part of this study, included stadiums, sports complexes, recreation centres, community halls and gymnasiums. These sport and recreation facilities are geographically decentralised over the five regions in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, namely the South region, the North West region, the North East region, the Central West region and the East region. Part-time, full-time and voluntary staff work at these sport and recreation facilities, all of whom perform different roles and responsibilities. Each sport and recreation facility services a number of people through its different activities. The key highlights experienced at the facilities include meeting the needs of clients, facility upgrades and building of additional sport and recreation facilities in the communities, hosting of national and international events, an increase in youth and community participation in sport and recreation activities and programmes and critical maintenance needs were attended to at sport and recreation facilities. There were six main challenges experienced, namely 1) a lack of community ownership; 2) limited operational and maintenance budget; 3) low qualifications and experience of supervisors; 4) a lack of equipment that is in working order; 5) a change in community sport and recreation club management structures and executive committees and 6) poor workmanship and work ethic of contractors. The main source of funding for sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane
Metropolitan Municipality is from local government. Immediate and future plans of sport and recreation facilities centred on maintenance issues, building new facilities and upgrading of existing sport and recreation facilities. The results also show the necessary resources and equipment needed by Sport and Recreation Officers to perform their daily tasks and duties, are available.

5.2.3 SECTION B TO SECTION I OF THE CAPACITY ANALYSIS TOOL

In Section B to I of the CAT, respondents were asked to express their opinion on statements on a 4-point Likert scale where a response of 1 indicates strong disagreement with the statement; 2 indicates disagreement with the statement, 3 indicates agreement with the statement and 4 indicates strong agreement with the statement. Discussions of results for each section are presented below. Data were reported on by means of tables representing mean scores (\(\bar{x}\)) and standard deviation (SD). According to Li, Pitts and Quarterman (2008) a mean (\(\bar{x}\)) can be defined as the most familiar and useful measure used to describe the central tendency or average of a distribution of scores for any set of data. It is calculated by adding the value of all scores in a dataset then dividing that sum by the number of scores in the set. The mean therefore provides the average score of all the data. Standard deviation (SD) indicates the average by which scores deviate from the mean.

For this research study, a mean score of 2.5 indicates an average performance. A mean score below 2.5 (\(\bar{x} < 2.5\)) represents below average performance while a mean score above 2.5 (\(\bar{x} > 2.5\)) represents above average performance.

5.2.3.1 Section B: Leadership, governance and strategy as dimensions of management capacity

This section of the Capacity Analysis Tool comprise of three elements namely, 1) the facility constitution, its existence and whether it has been agreed upon by all staff employed at the facility; 2) governing committee or board and 3) mission and values. These elements were used to gather information on leadership, governance and strategy as dimensions of management capacity.
Table 5.10: Leadership, governance and strategy dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>( \bar{x} )</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Constitution</td>
<td>The facility has a written constitution accepted and approved by all the members of the facility.</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Governing Committee/Board</td>
<td>The facility has a Committee / Board that meets and makes decisions that guide the facility’s development.</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Mission and values</td>
<td>The facility has a mission and set of values which are clearly understood, agreed upon and approved by all the stakeholders of the facility.</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.3.1.1 Constitution

A mean score of 2.29 with a standard deviation of 1.25 was recorded for this element of the management capacity dimension. Only three (37.5%) of the respondents agreed that their facility has a facility constitution where some rules and principles of operation are written down. The remainder of the respondents (n=5) recorded disagreement with the statement resulting in a mean score of 2.29. This mean score of 2.29, however, suggests a slightly below average performance in this element.

5.2.3.1.2 Governing Committee/Board

Twenty five percent (n=2) of respondents had no committee that hosts meetings to make decisions that guide the facility’s development while twenty five percent (n=2) had regular meetings with useful guidance and decisions made for facilities. The \( \bar{x} = 2.57 \) does, however, suggest an average management capacity in this element.

5.2.3.1.3 Mission and values

Corporate governance is important to capacity building in an organisation in that it governs the way an organisation, its employees and all its resources are managed (Hoye et al., 2006). The Department of Sport, Recreation, Arts, and Culture in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality has a vision and mission statement that governs employees towards achieving the set out goals and objectives of the Department. Mission and values of an organisation are important in guiding an organisation towards its goals and objectives. It is imperative for all employees in an organisation to work towards a common goal. This was supported by Fayol, in one of his 14 management principles, namely the principle of unity of direction which explores one channel that directs related operations within an organisation.
(Rodrigues, 2001). This element of Section B was used to determine whether sport and recreation facilities had a vision and mission statement agreed upon and approved by all stakeholders at each sport and recreation facility. The mean score, $\bar{x} = 2.80$, for this element suggests an above average performance and management capacity.

The overall results for this section show that employees are informed on the constitution, however, there is a need for more training and giving of information to employees on the facility constitution as the score was below average. Employees were well informed on the mission and values for the Department Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture and the City of Tshwane in general. A governing committee/board is also present and functions slightly above average. For this section respondents identified project management courses as a need to improve capacity in the three principle areas of management namely, leadership; governance and strategy. Respondents believed that this would assist them in continuous improvement which would in turn lead to rendering better service to the community.

5.2.3.2 Section C: Administration and human resources as dimension of management capacity

Section C comprises of four elements: 1) staff/volunteer organisation; 2) staff and volunteer development; 3) office and equipment and 4) gender, and these elements were used to gather information on administration and human resources as dimensions of management capacity.

Table 5.11: Administration and human resources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>$\bar{x}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Staff / Volunteer organisation</td>
<td>The facility involves a number of salaried staff and volunteers who have different areas of responsibility.</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff and volunteer development</td>
<td>The facility ensures that staff and volunteers learn and share their experiences, support and motivate each other and have sufficient skills.</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office &amp; equipment</td>
<td>The facility has its own office, meeting space and equipment for handling administration and writing reports.</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.2.3.2.1 Staff and volunteer organisation

It is imperative to an organisation to have appropriate and a well-managed human resources. Human resources are a central feature of an organisation’s planning system (Hoye et al., 2006). For this element the $\bar{x} = 4.00$ suggests that capacity to manage staff and volunteers are well above average. These results could be due to sport and recreation facilities being operational on a daily basis. Personnel are tasked with ensuring that the goals of a municipality are achieved through effective and efficient performance of their duties (Shafritz & Russell, 2005). Employees include sport and recreation officers who manage the facilities, perform daily operational tasks and supervise the general workers. The general workers open and close the facilities for bookings and do general cleaning at these sport and recreation facilities.

5.2.3.2.2 Staff and volunteer development

Table 5.11 shows that a mean value of 3.00 which is above the normal performance average of $\bar{x} = 2.50$ suggests that there is an above average level of capacity with regards to staff skills development and training and therefore corroborates Rodrigues’ (2001) postulation on the value of trained personnel. Skills development and training of staff are imperative to building capacity. Training staff for the positions in which they are employed could lead to increased capacity, which will in turn lead to increased organisational capacity to manage an organisation. Rodrigues (2001) supported Fayol’s concept of continuous training of personnel. Rodrigues believed that training is important because it not only improves employees’ skills, knowledge and competencies, but it also enhances organisational capacity, capability and performance which are essential ingredients of organisational effectiveness and are the foundation of an organisation (Rodrigues, 2001).

5.2.3.2.3 Office and equipment

For any sport and recreation facility or organisation to be managed effectively and efficiently, resources such as infrastructure and equipment are needed (Barrett, Donaldson, Kiwiet and Pearson, 2009). The results show a mean score of 2.88 for
this element. This score suggests an above average management capacity and performance. Figure 5.5, however, in Section A indicated the type of equipment which Sport and Recreation Facility Managers have access to. The results for this element and results in Figure 5.5 show that there are still some sport and recreation officers who do not have resources that are necessary to perform their daily duties. Management and operation of sport and recreation facilities are directly dependent on the availability of resources and infrastructure to operate efficiently and effectively in order to provide services to the community.

5.2.3.2.4 Gender
Gender equality is very important in the work place. Equal and fair treatment of all employees is imperative to any organisation (Lewis-Enright, Crafford & Crous, 2009). In this element a mean score of 2.86 was recorded. This score suggests that the management capacity in this element is above average. Respondents indicated that the sport and recreation facilities they manage develop and use gender sensitive approaches in the work place. Equal respect and rights for male, female and transgender identities are also implemented (Lewis & Giullari, 2005; Kumra & Manfredi, 2012).

The overall results of Section C show that there were adequate numbers of salaried staff placed at sport and recreation facilities, even though volunteers were not used in most facilities. The minimal use of volunteers at sport and recreation facilities is of great concern as community members can be used as volunteers to assist at facilities and form part of programmes and activities at sport and recreation facilities. However remuneration of these volunteers is a concern as volunteers do not want to only gain experience but also want to be remunerated. With no budget for volunteer services, this is not possible.

5.2.3.3 Section D: Finances as dimension of management capacity
Section D was used to gather information on finances and comprises of six elements. The elements included finances, bank accounts, supporting documents, internal control, budget management and reporting requirements. The results are presented in Table 5.12 below.
5.2.3.3.1 Finances

Finances are the ingredients that drive an organisation. A mean score of 2.15 was recorded for this element. This mean score suggests that there is a below average capacity of management of finances at sport and recreation facilities. This result also show that even though sport and recreation officers have the same job description, they do not all perform the same tasks, as some of the respondents did not keep accounts of money that their sport and recreation facilities held and could therefore, not present these documents on demand while others kept the accounts of their sport and recreation facilities up to date, and balances and statements were prepared at the end of the year. Facilities cannot function without money. Money is needed to plan, build, open, operate and maintain facilities (Fried, 2005). Financial management is one of the most important duties of a Sport and Recreation Facility Manager and skilled administrator (Brigham & Ehrhardt, 2007).

5.2.3.3.2 Bank Account

With regard to bank accounts, a mean score of 2.20 was recorded. This mean score suggests a below average performance and management capacity for this element. This could also indicate that the sport and recreation officers have a below average

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>$\bar{x}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finances</td>
<td>The facility keeps accounts of money that it holds and can be presented on demand.</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank Account</td>
<td>The facility has a bank account to hold its funds.</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting Documents</td>
<td>The facility maintains supporting receipts and invoices of every expenditure from the grant.</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Control</td>
<td>The facility implements an internal control system. E.g. A book-keeper is not authorised to approve expenditure of funds</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Budget Management</td>
<td>The facility prepares; monitors and reviews the budget.</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reporting Requirement</td>
<td>The facility provides financial reports with accuracy and submits on time to donors.</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.12: Finances
financial capacity to manage their facilities as they do not have any funds. Facilities cannot function without money. Money is needed to plan, build, open, operate and maintain facilities (Fried, 2005). Results could also be due to the fact that Sport and Recreation Facility Managers are not trained in financial management as it is not a pre-requisite for the specific designation of a sport and recreation officer (Table 5.8), however in-house training and skills development are essential.

5.2.3.3 Supporting Documents
The mean score of =2.40 suggests a slightly below average management capacity for this element. This implies that records of expenditure of the budget are not always tracked. This could lead to over or underspending of the allocated funds. A slightly below average management capacity could lead to incorrect management of the budget and allocated funds. A budget is essential to an organisation. It is a blueprint of planning and controlling. It enables an organisation to see its role and set goals accordingly (Shim, 2005).

5.2.3.3.4 Internal control
A mean score of 2.80 was recorded for this element which suggests a slightly above average performance and management capacity. This result, when compared to the above mean score (\( \bar{x} =2.40 \)), it can be concluded that because sport and recreation officers are the ones that keep supporting documents and seeing as they perform slightly below average in that element, it is good practice that bookkeeper not be authorised to approve expenditure as they do not always keep records of expenditure of the allocated budget.

5.2.3.3.5 Budget management
The results in Table 5.12 show that \( \bar{x} =2.20 \) suggesting that sport and recreation officers are performing slightly below average in this element and they have the management capacity to manage the allocated budget. Budget management and control is an important part of management of finances in an organisation. It is therefore, imperative for Sport and Recreation Facility Managers to have the necessary skills and training to manage finances through budgeting. Without competent financial management capacity, poor budgeting could lead to loss of money or budget overrun (Shim, 2000).
5.2.3.3.6 Reporting requirements
A mean score of 2.50 was recorded for this element. This score suggests that Sport and Recreation Facility Managers in the City of Tshwane have an average management capacity to manage the finances of sport and recreation facilities. According to Brigham and Ehrhardt (2007), financial management is the pro-active and ongoing financial focus in terms of planning and prioritising; resource sourcing and allocation; performance monitoring against revenue collected, expenditure and finance obtained, and debt reduction and result measuring; and control and accountability.

The overall mean score of 2.38 ($\bar{x}$ =2.38) is recorded for the management capacity dimension of finances. This implies a slightly below average performance in this particular dimension.

5.2.3.4 Section E: Project design, management and evaluation as dimension of management capacity
This section of the Capacity Analysis Tool was used to gather information on project design, management and evaluation. It comprised of five elements namely, activity development and planning; project and proposal development; targeting; project management and project management and evaluation. The results are shown in the Table 5.13 below.

Table 5.13: Project Design, Management and Evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>$\bar{x}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Activity development &amp; planning</td>
<td>The facility plans the development of its activities, involving all people concerned.</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project &amp; proposal development</td>
<td>The facility is satisfied with the quality of the projects it develops.</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Targeting</td>
<td>The facility tries to reach diverse people with its activities</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project Management</td>
<td>The facility is satisfied with the management of its project portfolio.</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project Management &amp; Evaluation</td>
<td>The facility has a functioning management and evaluation system.</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>1.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.2.3.4.1 Activity development and planning
When developing activities at sport and recreation facilities it is important to involve all stakeholders and people concerned and those you intend to reach with those activities. The \( \bar{x} = 2.71 \) does suggest an above average management capacity in this element. This implies that when projects are developed, the relevant stakeholders are involved in the process. This will ensure that activities are effectively planned, developed, implemented and will therefore fulfil their intended purpose.

5.2.3.4.2 Project and proposal development
Capacity building and learning form an important part in new product development projects as it allows new products to be adapted to new knowledge about changing environmental factors such as technological developments. The mean score of 2.29 suggests that the management capacity for this element is slightly below average that could hamper meaningful budgeting to execute planned projects.

5.2.3.4.3 Targeting
As a local government department, the Department of Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality’s key mandate is to deliver efficient and effective service to the community. Sport and recreation facilities managed by the Sport and Recreation Facility Managers that formed part of the respondents in this study therefore always strive to reach the entire community with its activities. A mean score of 1.00, however, was recorded for this element which suggests a below average management capacity. This implies that the mandate of delivering services to the entire community is not achieved.

5.2.3.4.4 Project management
A mean score of 2.33 was recorded for this element. This mean score suggest a slightly below average management capacity and performance. Results suggest that projects are developed and managed by Sport and Recreation Facility Managers; however, there still could be a need for training of these project managers. This could lead to increased capacity to manage projects and activities at sport and recreation facilities.
5.2.3.4.5 Project management and evaluation
At every step of the management process, monitoring and evaluating capacity is imperative. For this element a mean score of 2.17 was recorded. This mean score suggests that Sport and Recreation Facility Managers have a below average management capacity to manage and evaluate projects.

An overall mean score of 2.10 is recorded for this management capacity dimension which indicates below average management capacity.

5.2.3.5 Section F: Technical capacity as dimension of management capacity
This section of the Capacity Analysis Tool was used to gather information on technical capacity at sport and recreation facilities. The results are presented in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14: Technical Capacity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>$\bar{x}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Staff knowledge and skills</td>
<td>The facility trains all its staff &amp; volunteers in the knowledge and the technical skills necessary to do their duties well.</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV/AIDS knowledge and skills</td>
<td>The facility trains all its staff &amp; volunteers in general HIV/AIDS knowledge and the technical skills necessary to do their duties well.</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disability Inclusion knowledge and skills</td>
<td>The facility trains all its staff &amp; volunteers in general knowledge of inclusion of people with disabilities in activities.</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trauma &amp; Psychosocial Support knowledge and skills</td>
<td>The facility trains all its staff &amp; volunteers in general knowledge to provide trauma or psychosocial support to program participants.</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income generation knowledge and skills</td>
<td>The facility uses sport or related activities to generate income.</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender knowledge and skills</td>
<td>The facility trains all its staff &amp; volunteers in general knowledge of gender equity.</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.2.3.5.1 Staff knowledge and skills
A mean score of 2.50 was recorded for this element which suggests an average performance and management capacity. Failure to provide regular training for employees regarding knowledge and development of technical skills to perform their duties well could, however, lead to a decrease in capacity to manage sport and recreation facilities efficiently and effectively. This particular mean score of 2.50 does however corroborate with the $\bar{x} = 3.00$ in Table 5.1 recorded on staff and volunteer development.

5.2.3.5.2 HIV/AIDS knowledge and skills
The $\bar{x} = 2.50$ suggests an average management capacity and performance for this element. It was concluded that there is limited capacity to deal with incidences

| Sport for development knowledge and skills | The facility trains all its staff & volunteers in methods of using sport as a tool to impart knowledge and skills in non-sport areas (life-skills). | 1.75 | 0.71 |
| Marketing competence | The facility plans whom it want to reach and what messages and activities to reach them with when educating people or raising their awareness through sport based programming. | 2.63 | 1.19 |
| Gender and HIV/AIDS | The facility understands the relationship between gender and HIV/AIDS. | 2.67 | 0.52 |
| Human rights and HIV/AIDS | The facility understands the relationship between people’s rights, legal protection and HIV/AIDS. | 2.63 | 0.92 |
| Integrating responses to HIV/AIDS with core activities (for non-AIDS service organizations) | The facility identifies and responds to the challenges of HIV/AIDS in its core activities (or non-HIV specific work). | 1.50 | 0.84 |
| Access to new sport and development information | The facility encourages and enables members to learn and develop their knowledge about sport and development. | 2.00 | 1.20 |
relating to the transmission of HIV/AIDS, to prevention and care support for employees and community who take part in activities at sport and recreation facilities.

5.2.3.5.3 Disability inclusion knowledge and skills
A mean score of 1.86 was recorded for this element which suggests a below average management capacity for this element for the management capacity dimension. This result correlates with the very low ($\bar{x} = 1.00$) score recorded for the element targeting (Table 5.13).

5.2.3.5.4 Trauma and psychosocial support, knowledge and skills
A mean score of 1.25 was recorded for this element which suggests a below average management capacity and performance. This result indicates low capacity to deal with trauma and psychosocial incidents at the workplace that can be provided to program participants and again correlates with previous results recorded in 5.2.3.5.2 and 5.2.3.5.3.

5.2.3.5.5 Income generation knowledge and skills
The result for this element show a mean score of 3.50 which suggests an above average management capacity and performance. With this result it can be concluded that there is a high capacity regarding management of income generating activities at sport and recreation facilities and that facility managers should have the capacity to utilise the potential of the facility under their management to generate income for optimal use of all stakeholders and users.

5.2.3.5.6 Gender knowledge and skills
The $\bar{x} = 2.25$ that was recorded for this element suggests a slightly below average management capacity for this element. This result correlates again with the below average capacity recorded for diversity elements (training and psychological support, and disability inclusion).

5.2.3.5.7 Sport for development knowledge and skills
A mean score of 1.75 was recorded for this element which suggests a below average management capacity. This result seems to indicate a lack of training for staff and volunteers in methods of using sport as a tool to impart knowledge and skills in non-
sport areas such as life skills for example the role sport and recreation may play in HIV/AIDS awareness.

5.2.3.5.8 Marketing competencies
The $\bar{x} = 2.63$ that was recorded for this element suggests an above average performance and management capacity for this element for the management capacity dimension. When this result is linked to the $\bar{x} = 3.50$ recorded for the element of income generation knowledge and skills, it establishes a sound foundation for potential additional income generation through the use of facilities in the particular area.

5.2.3.5.9 Gender and HIV/AIDS
A mean score of 2.67 was recorded for this element which suggest an above average management capacity for this element. This result correlates with the mean score of 2.50 recorded for HIV/AIDS knowledge and skills.

5.2.3.5.10 Human rights and HIV/AIDS
A mean score of 2.63 was recorded for this element of the management capacity dimension. The mean score suggests an above average management capacity for this element and correlates with other mean scores recorded for HIV/AIDS related elements in this section of the capacity analysis.

5.2.3.5.11 Integrating responses to HIV/AIDS with core activities
The $\bar{x} = 1.50$ suggests a below average management capacity for this element. When this result is compared to the above average mean score recorded for elements related to HIV/AIDS in this section, it seems to suggest that although Sport and Recreation Facility Managers have the theoretical knowledge pertaining to HIV/AIDS, they lack the capacity to translate knowledge into practical action. This deduction is supported by the results recorded for the element sport for development knowledge and skills.

5.2.3.5.12 Access to new sport and development information
A mean of 2.00 was recorded for this element which suggests that Sport and Recreation Facility Managers perform below average with regards to access to new
sport and development information, therefore showing a below average management capacity. This result was anticipated given the below average score recorded in 5.2.3.5.7.

5.2.3.6 Section G: Advocacy and Networking as dimension of management capacity

This section of the questionnaire was used to gather information on advocacy and networking. The results are presented in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15: Advocacy and Networking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>$\bar{x}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advocacy</td>
<td>The facility carries out advocacy activities to influence those in power to change conditions or policies that form barriers to their work.</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broader context and potential partnerships</td>
<td>The facility works with local government, private and community organizations.</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Conferences</td>
<td>The facility sends at least one participant to sport and development conferences.</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>The facility maintains contact with others in the field.</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Network contact</td>
<td>The facility maintains contact with others in the field with use of different resources.</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.3.6.1 Advocacy

A mean score of 2.40 for this element suggests a slightly below average management capacity. This score can be attributed to below average scores recorded for the first three elements in Table 5.16 and the below mean score of 1.00 recorded for the element of targeting (Table 5.13). According to Henderson and Pochin (2001), advocacy can be described as the process of identifying with and representing a person's views and concerns in order to ensure enhanced rights and entitlements, undertaken by someone who has little or no conflict of interest. The above results therefore imply that not many advocacy activities are carried out at sport and...
recreation facilities to influence those in power to change conditions or policies that form barriers to the work of all stakeholders at the facilities.

5.2.3.6.2 Potential Partnerships
The \( \bar{x} = 3.43 \) for this element suggest an above average management capacity and performance. This result supports the findings obtained in Section A of the Capacity Analysis Tool where respondents indicated a wide base of stakeholders that establishes potential for partnerships.

5.2.3.6.3 International conferences
A below average management capacity and performance with a mean of 1.25 was recorded for this element. International conferences are opportunities to network and obtain new knowledge and skills. The below average scores recorded for the elements of sport for development knowledge and skills (\( \bar{x} = 1.25 \)) and integrating knowledge into programmes (\( \bar{x} = 1.50 \)) could be contributed to the lack of attending international conferences.

5.2.3.6.4 Networking
A mean score of 3.25 was recorded for this element. The mean suggests an above average management capacity. These results show that there is a high level of networking done by the Sport and Recreation Facility Managers. Therefore, with reference to Hylton, Bramham, Jackson and Nesti’s (2001) definition of networking, it can be concluded that the Sport and Recreation Facility Managers and other organisations come together to further the mission and vision of sport and recreation facilities as, they have unity of direction according to one of Fayol’s 14 principles of management (Brunsson, 2008). This result is supported by the above average mean score of \( \bar{x} = 3.43 \) obtained for potential partnerships.

5.2.3.6.5 Network contact
A mean of 3.13 was recorded for this element as indicated in Table 5.15 and suggests an above average management capacity. This result indicates that Sport and Recreation Facility Managers deem it important to maintain contact and networking with others in the field and to develop new networks. The broad scope of stakeholders
as indicated in Section A requires sound networking. This particular result confirms that Sport and Recreation Facility Managers have the required capacity in this regard.

5.2.3.7 Section H: Community Ownership and Accountability as dimension of management capacity

This section of the Capacity Analysis Tool was used to gather information on community ownership and accountability. It comprises of four elements and results are presented in Table 5.16 below:

Table 5.16: Community Ownership and Accountability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>$\bar{x}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Involvement of people living with HIV/AIDS in the activities, work and major decisions of the facility</td>
<td>People living with HIV/AIDS participate fully in the activities, work and major decisions of the facility.</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement of vulnerable people in the activities, work and major decisions of the facility</td>
<td>Vulnerable people like the youth, child headed households and women participate fully in the activities, work and major decisions of the facility.</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement of people with disabilities in the activities, work and major decisions of the facility</td>
<td>People with disabilities participate fully in the activities, work and major decisions of the facility.</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>The facility respects, encourages and promotes equal participation from people of all genders.</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.3.7.1 Involvement of people living with HIV/AIDS in activities

Results in Table 5.16 show that a mean score of 1.20 was recorded for this element. This result could be attributed to the fact that HIV/AIDS is not openly talked about in the workplace due to the stigma attached to it, therefore leading to employees and clients (including community members) not disclosing their statuses openly to others.
in fear of being ostracised. Again this result correlates with corresponding findings reported in Table 5.14.

5.2.3.7.2 Involvement of vulnerable people in activities
In the second element of this management capacity dimension a mean score of 1.67 was recorded which suggests a below average management capacity and performance. These results could lead to community members feeling left out from being part of making decisions within the communities they live in. In turn this could lead to feelings of social exclusion and community members, especially the youth and young children, who could turn their attention to social ills such as drug abuse and crime.

5.2.3.7.3 Involvement of people with disabilities in activities
A $\bar{x}=1.43$ was recorded for this element which suggests a below average management capacity and performance. This finding corroborates the relevant result recorded in Table 5.14.

5.2.3.7.4 Gender
A mean score of 2.5 was recoded for this element which suggests an average management capacity. Work practices are flexible in order to ensure gender equality and fairness, such as female workers being given the opportunity to start families whilst working full-time and are given maternity leave without discrimination or fear of losing their jobs. Sport and Recreation Facility Managers seem to promote equal respect and encourage the rights of all employees at their respective facilities.

In the context of the above results it can be concluded that there is a below average performance and management capacity in the first three elements of this management capacity dimension. Vulnerable people such as those with HIV/AIDS and disabilities are still marginalised in terms of participating in activities and programmes at sport and recreation facilities. The above mentioned people did, however, receive basic services rendered to the public at sport and recreation facilities. Results also show that there seems to be a clear lack of community ownership, as the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality did not succeed in instilling a sense of ownership of facilities in the hands of its communities. Therefore communities do not assist the Department of Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture to manage sport and recreation
facilities in their respective communities. This tendency is visible in the high levels of vandalism and maintenance recorded in Section A.

5.2.3.8 Section I: Fundraising as dimension of management capacity

This section comprises six elements. These elements were used to gather information on fundraising and income generation at sport and recreation facilities. Results are reported in Table 5.17 below.

**Table 5.17: Fundraising**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>$\bar{x}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fundraising</td>
<td>The facility conducts fundraising.</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fundraising</td>
<td>The facility has a web page.</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fundraising</td>
<td>The facility maintains a list of donors.</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fundraising</td>
<td>The facility has access to a digital camera or video camera.</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income generation</td>
<td>The facility currently runs an income-generating activity.</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.3.8.1 Fundraising

Table 5.17 shows results regarding fundraising at facilities for overall facility structure and projects. The mean score of 1.00 suggests a below average management capacity and performance for this element. All eight of the respondents indicated that there is no fundraising conducted at their sport and recreation facilities and that all financial support comes from the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

5.2.3.8.2 Fundraising: webpage

Results show a mean score of 1.43 for this element which suggests a below average management capacity and performance. The City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality has an official webpage which is used by all departments within the City. Maintenance and upkeep of this webpage is the responsibility of the Marketing
and Communication Division within the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, and not that of the sport and recreation officers.

5.2.3.8.3 Fundraising: donor list
A mean score of 1.17 was recorded for this element which suggests a below average management capacity. Sport and recreation facilities did not maintain a donor list. This result was anticipated in the context of the previous two results.

5.2.3.8.4 Fundraising: digital and video cameras
A mean score of 2.12 was recorded for this element. Respondents indicated that these cameras were used to take evidence pictures of maintenance and upgrades done at facilities including events, which are also included in their monthly reports of the facility every month end. It seems that Sport and Recreation Facility Managers indirectly use these media to solicit maintenance funds from the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality rather than generate outside funds.

5.2.3.8.5 Income generation
The $\bar{x} = 3.14$ was recorded for this element and suggests an above average management capacity. The mean score could be attributed mainly to booking payments done by clients and the community for the use of the sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

The overall results show that there is very little income generation through fundraising activities at the sport and recreation facilities apart from income generated from facility bookings made by clients. This means that the sports and recreation facility managers are solely dependent on money allocated on their yearly budget for their facility needs which is provided by the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore it can be concluded that there is low management capacity with regards to income generation and fundraising capacity at sport and recreation facilities.
5.2.3.9 CONCLUSION

Chapter five provided an analysis of data collected from the respondents that formed part of this research study by means of the self-administered Capacity Analysis Tool. Results were discussed by means of tables and figures, bar graphs and pie charts. Results were grouped, analysed, interpreted and presented collectively.

Sport and Recreation Facility Managers at the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality are responsible for managing a wide spectrum of facilities where they are required to perform diverse management tasks. Results obtained in the different sections of the Capacity Analysis Tool indicate that these managers preform their tasks on different levels of management competency.

A collective overview of mean scores for the eight management dimensions of leadership, governance and strategy; administration and human resources; finances; project design, management and evaluation; technical capacity; advocacy and networking; community ownership and accountability and fundraising are presented in Table 5.18 below.

### Table 5.18: Collective overview of mean scores in all eight management dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Mean score ((\bar{x}))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership, governance and strategy</td>
<td>2.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration and human resources</td>
<td>3.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finances</td>
<td>2.38*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project design, management and evaluation</td>
<td>2.10*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical capacity</td>
<td>2.25*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advocacy and networking</td>
<td>2.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community ownership and accountability</td>
<td>1.70*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fundraising</td>
<td>1.77*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Management capacity below average performance \((\bar{x} < 2.50)\)

A further analysis of the results presented in Table 5.18 yielded a final cumulative management capacity score of \(\bar{x}=2.11\). The latter score indicates a below average management capacity at the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This is a
significant result in that it suggests that sport and recreation facilities are most likely not managed optimally to the benefit of all stakeholders.

In the final chapter conclusions and recommendations will be presented.
CHAPTER SIX
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

It has been hypothesised in Chapter One that Sport and Recreation Facility Managers in the City of Tshwane’s Department of Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture have a low capacity to manage sport and recreation facilities on local government level. Sport and Recreation South Africa has three main pillars which are their main focus, namely 1) an active nation; 2) a winning nation and 3) an enabling environment. For the mandate of Sport and Recreation South Africa to be met, these three pillars need to be implemented, with the most the key pillar being provision of an enabling environment by local government through the provision of sport and recreation facilities. Sport and recreation facilities have to be built, upgraded, maintained and well managed to improve the quality of community life. Yet, despite the responsibility of local government being outlined in the Sport and Recreation South Africa White Paper on Sport and Recreation (SRSA, 2012), and documented benefits of sport and recreation participation, there seems to be a lack of capacity to manage these sport and recreation facilities optimally.

The research question for this study was therefore formulated as:

“What is the management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality?”

Based on this particular research question, it was hypothesised that:

H₀: The management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers employed in the City of Tshwane is satisfactory/high.

H₁: The management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers employed in the City of Tshwane is unsatisfactory/low.

In Chapter One it was noted that to date no encompassing capacity analysis of the sport and recreation facility management portfolio of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality had been undertaken. Based on this and the above hypotheses, the overall aim of the study was, therefore, to determine a management capacity profile of sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.
Specific objectives of the study were to:

- Explore and analyse the existing management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers according to the dimensions of the Capacity Analysis Tool;

- Identify potential problem areas in the operations of sport and recreation facilities related to management capacity; and

- Formulate recommendations to the appropriate decision makers in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality in order to create enabling environments for sport and recreation facilities of the local authority under study.

Conclusions and recommendations will subsequently be presented according to the above research aim under each of the dimensions of management capacity which are leadership, governance and strategy; administration and human resources; finances; project design, management and evaluation; technical capacity; advocacy and networking; community ownership and accountability; and fundraising.

6.2 CONCLUSION
6.2.1 Overall conclusion on management capacity
An overall collective mean score of $\bar{x}=2.11$ (SD=1.34) was recorded for all eight management dimensions as evaluated by the Capacity Analysis Tool. This result, therefore, confirms the stated $H_1$ for this study.

6.2.2 Dimension specific conclusions on management capacity
6.2.2.1 Leadership, governance and strategy management capacity
- As this dimension recorded an overall mean score of 2.55, it can be concluded that management performance of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers are slightly above the average of $\bar{x}=2.50$.
- The specific element of constitutional governance, however, ($\bar{x}=2.29$) reflects a slightly below average management performance.
- The specific element of mission and values ($\bar{x}=2.80$) indicates an above average management performance. It can therefore be concluded that Sport
and Recreation Facility Managers have the capacity to operate from a sound base for efficient corporate governance of sport and recreation facilities.

- The City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality’s Department of Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture have developed policies which are used to govern the work of employees. This will ensure that all employees work towards achieving a common objective and towards the department’s vision and mission.

### 6.2.2.2 Administration and human resources management capacity

- This dimension of management capacity recorded an overall mean score of $\bar{x} = 3.19$. It can therefore be concluded that Sport and Recreation Facility Managers have an above average capacity to satisfactorily perform all four elements of this management dimension.

### 6.2.2.3 Finance management capacity

- This dimension of management capacity recorded an overall mean score of $\bar{x} = 2.38$. It is therefore concluded that Sport and Recreation Facility Managers have a below average capacity to manage five of the six elements of this management dimension.

- The Sport and Recreation Facility Managers do however; have average performance levels regarding submission of financial reports accurately and timely.

- Results show that there was a slightly below average management capacity in the elements of finances, bank account, supporting documents and budget management in the finance dimension of management capacity which needed to be improved.

### 6.2.2.4 Project design, management and evaluation management capacity

- Based upon an overall mean score of $\bar{x} = 2.10$ recorded for the five elements of this management dimension, it can be concluded that Sport and Recreation Facility Managers demonstrate a below average management capacity.

- Management capacity to address diversity of constituents and to target the needs of diverse populations is exceptionally low ($\bar{x} = 1.00$).
The mean score of $\bar{x}=2.71$ recorded for involving all stakeholders when planning activities at sport and recreation facilities contradicts the low mean score of $\bar{x}=1.00$ recorded for targeting diverse populations.

Projects were not developed on an ad-hoc basis. They were only developed occasionally through short-term planning, such as planning of major events or monthly activities. Planning for on-going activities was done in advance.

Projects and activities always reach the entire community.

Each project was managed by one or two people. This meant that project managers were overloaded with projects. Projects were not equitably shared amongst different project managers.

Results show that management capacity of Sport and Recreation Officers pertaining to targeting and project management and evaluation at sport and recreation facilities was below average and needed to be improved.

Other elements that need improvement included project and proposal development and project management portfolio even though these areas performed slightly below average.

### 6.2.2.5 Technical management capacity

An overall mean score of 2.25 was recorded for the twelve elements in this dimension. It can thus be concluded that Sport and Recreation Facility Managers demonstrate a below average management capacity.

A clear lack of adequate management capacity in the elements related to servicing constituents with diverse abilities, responding to challenges of HIV/AIDS and psychosocial support to programme participants became eminent.

Employees at sport and recreation facilities had basic knowledge and technical skills of their duties but did not receive regular training and skills development to perform their duties adequately. The lack of training and skills development also meant that employees only had basic understanding of HIV/AIDS, people living with disabilities and psychosocial trauma and, therefore, did not have knowledge of how to include them in activities presented in sport and recreation activities or how to deal with a situation that required knowledge to deal effectively with trauma.
Sport and Recreation Facility Managers have adequate knowledge and skills to develop sport-related income-generating activities.

Training of employees in gender equality and methods to use sport to impart knowledge and skills ranked below average.

Results show that there was a below average management capacity pertaining to following elements of the technical capacity dimension of management capacity namely, disability inclusion and knowledge skills, trauma and psychosocial knowledge and support, sport and development knowledge and skills and integrating responses to HIV/AIDS with core activities at sport and recreation facilities and therefore needed to be improved.

The lack of knowledge and capacity meant that Sport and Recreation Facility Managers did not effectively use sport and recreation activities to educate employees and the community on issues and topics that affected the whole community.

Elements such as gender knowledge and skills and access to new sport and development information also need improvement even though results show a slightly below average management capacity in those areas.

6.2.2.6 Advocacy and networking management capacity

Based upon the overall mean score of $\bar{x} = 2.69$, it can be concluded that Sport and Recreation Facility Managers have an above average management capacity in this dimension.

The below average score of $\bar{x} = 1.25$ recorded for attending international conferences, could have negative consequences for acquiring and maintaining appropriate skills and networks.

Sport and Recreation Facility Managers maintained a high level of networking with local government, private and community organisations and others within the field and used regular contact through use of e-mails, internet, telephones and faxes.

Results show that there was a high level of management capacity pertaining to networking.

The area of advocacy recorded a slightly below average management capacity and needed improvement. Another area which needed improvement in this
management capacity dimension is international conferences as the management capacity in this element was below average.

6.2.2.7 **Community ownership and accountability management capacity**

- The below average mean score of $\bar{x} = 1.70$ reflects a lack of management capacity in this dimension.
- It is concluded that this below average management capacity is the result of a lack of management capacity recorded in the dimension of Technical capacity.
- There is a clear lack of community ownership and involvement in the administration and management of sport and recreation.
- People with HIV/AIDS, those living with disabilities and others who are vulnerable do not participate in activities, work and major decision making at sport and recreation facilities.
- Results show that there was a lack of management capacity pertaining to community ownership and accountability and areas that needed improvements were involvement of people living with HIV/AIDS, vulnerable people and people living with disabilities in the activities, work and major decisions of the sport and recreation facility.

6.2.2.8 **Fundraising management capacity**

- It is concluded that fundraising capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers is below average based on the mean score of $\bar{x} = 1.77$.
- It is further concluded that this result is due to the financial model implemented by the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality where all funds are allocated to sport and recreation facility by the City of Tshwane.
- No fundraising activities have been conducted at sport and recreation facilities which meant that financial support came solely from the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.
- Sport and Recreation Facility Managers did not have resources that could be used to raise funds at sport and recreation facilities.
- Results show that there was a below average management capacity with regards to fundraising.
6.2.2.9 Overall conclusion regarding management capacity performance

It is concluded that Sport and Recreation Facility Managers at the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality perform below average in the majority of elements over the eight management dimensions as indicated in Table 6.1 below.

**Table 6.1: Management capacity in elements of the eight management dimensions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Below average management capacity</th>
<th>Above average management capacity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Element</td>
<td>$\bar{x}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constitution</td>
<td>2.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finances</td>
<td>2.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank account</td>
<td>2.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Budget management</td>
<td>2.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project and proposal development</td>
<td>2.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Targeting</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project evaluation</td>
<td>2.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disability inclusion</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trauma and psychosocial support</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender knowledge and skills</td>
<td>2.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport for development skills</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integration</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to new sport development information</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advocacy</td>
<td>2.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International conferences</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement of people with HIV/AIDS</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement of vulnerable people</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement of people with disabilities</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fundraising</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Webpage</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of donors</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are proposed based on the results of the study. They are in line with the aim of the study to improve and increase management capacity in management of sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. It is recommended that:

- Duties and responsibilities of employees have to be guided by clearly defined policies and departmental constitution that is agreed upon by all members of the department, sport and recreation facility and community. This recommendation is in line with Weber’s third element of the theory of bureaucracy which is written guidelines prescribing performance criteria (Montemurro, 2001).

- Human resources are an important asset to any organisation. This can be seen in the results as they show that there are adequate staff members at sport and recreation facilities, although more employees at sport and recreation facilities would serve as an advantage. Therefore, adequate personnel should be hired at sport and recreation facilities. More general workers, administrative officers and volunteers from the community should be hired.

- Vacancies and available positions should be filled immediately.

- Job descriptions need to be revisited. It is recommended that Sport and Recreation Officers implement sport and recreation programmes and activities within the communities in which they render a service whereas, sport and recreation facilities be managed by a Sport and Recreation Facility Managers who will be responsible for general management of sport and recreation facilities, subordinates and daily facility operations. Administrative
Officers will be responsible for facility bookings and general administrative functions. This recommendation is in line with Weber’s first element of the theory of bureaucracy which is *clearly defined division of labour and authority* (Montemurro, 2001).

- Personnel should be chosen for their positions based on their qualifications and their duties should be attached to their position and not to them as people. These recommendations are in line with Weber’s fourth and sixth elements of the theory of bureaucracy which are *recruitment to offices and based on specification and expertise and duties and authority attached to positions and not persons* (Montemurro, 2001). Managers should also have adequate knowledge of Fayol’s four basic foundations of administrative management theory as a prerequisite for a management position (Adetule, 2001). This will lead to increase capacity to manage sport and recreation facilities.

- In order to increase management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers, meetings need to be held regularly. Employees need to be trained on the process of change and how to manage change in the workplace. Decisions need to be taken and implemented effectively.

- Employees and Sport and Recreation Facility Managers should be given regular and continuous training in their respective positions (Rodrigues, 2001). Induction of incumbents to their new positions is also very imperative. This will ensure skills development and effective and efficient performance of their duties and responsibilities, that will in turn lead to increased capacity to manage sport and recreation facilities.

- Employees should be given the appropriate tools and resources necessary to perform their duties and responsibilities effectively and efficiently. This can be done through procurement of equipment needed for the job.

- Most Sport and Recreation Facility Managers have offices, equipment and resources to perform their duties and responsibilities. This, however, should be awarded to all Sport and Recreation Facility Managers. Therefore, the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality should procure resources and equipment
for all Sport and Recreation Facility Managers equitably to aid them in performing their task efficiently and effectively.

- Results show that management capacity pertaining to human resources and administration were above average, but could be improved in the elements of office and equipment, and gender.

- More female workers are needed at sport and recreation facilities.

- Sport and Recreation Facility Managers should be given more responsibilities, such as being able to control the facility’s budget and resources and be able to give recommendations and input where sport and recreation facilities they manage are concerned. Sport and Recreation Facility Managers should be more involved in managerial decisions pertaining to the respective facilities they manage.

- Filling of higher positions should be done internally through the right processes. This will allow for growth and development within the department. It will also motivate employees to perform efficiently and effectively in the positions they occupy hence increasing management capacity and organisational effectiveness.

- Regular maintenance of sport and recreation facilities should be prioritised. A preventative maintenance plan and schedule must be draw up to reduce spending on facility maintenance and to better manage finances and facility budget that can be used in other areas of the sport and recreation facility that require more attention.

- The right contractors have to be hired for maintenance jobs at sport and recreation facilities and constant monitoring of contractors is essential to prevent reckless spending on unsatisfactory maintenance work and poor workmanship.

- Networking should be encouraged and regularly maintained. This will assist in broadening the skills and knowledge of Sport and Recreation Facility
Managers through sharing of ideas with others within the field. Sport and Recreation Facility Managers should also attend local and international conferences to gain knowledge, strengthen partnerships and increase networking.

- Employees should be given a platform to raise concerns and advocate needs of the employees and community members as partnerships are built with local clubs and sport councils and other stakeholders.

6.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The findings of this investigation raised several questions regarding the management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers and of sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The following additional research opportunities are presented below.

- A three year review of the status of management of sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality could be conducted to determine the management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers to manage sport and recreation facilities.
- Investigate the community’s perception of sport and recreation facilities with regard to service delivery and meeting the community’s overall needs for sport and recreation participation and quality of life enhancement.
- Investigate the management capacity of middle and higher management level employees to determine their management capacity with regard to sport and recreation facility management in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.
- Conduct a comparative study of the management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers in different municipalities across Gauteng.
- Conduct a needs analysis in communities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to gather information of what communities need with regard to development of new sport and recreation facilities.
6.5 FINAL STUDY CONCLUSION

This study investigated the capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers to manage sport and recreation facilities in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality while also trying to determine a management capacity profile of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers employed by the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. It should be reiterated that this study on management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers is limited to the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality’s Department of Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture. It is also limited to its sport and recreation facilities and not any other facilities that provide service to the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality constituents. The results of the study cannot, therefore, be generalised and are only applicable to the situation of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Continuous training in below average scoring dimensions and regular monitoring is needed for the management capacity of Sport and Recreation Facility Managers in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to improve capacities to manage sport and recreation facilities.
REFERENCES


City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality. 2010. *City of Johannesburg Integrated Development Plan (IDP) 2012/16: “Committing to a promising future”*. Viewed on 20/09/2012 from:

City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality. 2013. *The Sport and Recreation Directorate*. Viewed on 22/06/2014 from:


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Appendix A

Capacity Analysis Tool
RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE:

Capacity Analysis of Sport and Recreation Facilities in the Tshwane Metropolitan Council

This questionnaire forms part of the requirements for the Masters Study programme in the Department of Biokinetics, Sport and Leisure Science at the University of Pretoria.

This questionnaire deals with the Capacity Analysis of Sports and Recreation Facilities in the Tshwane Metropolitan Council.

The aims of this questionnaire are to assess the capacity of the sport and recreation facility with regards to its provision of services and its management of risk.

Please do not write your name anywhere, this will guarantee your anonymity.

Please answer all questions to the best of your ability.

Indicate your answer by making an X in the appropriate block or by writing the required information in the space provided.

Your willingness to complete this questionnaire is sincerely appreciated.
SECTION A: GENERAL INFORMATION

1. Name of Sport and Recreation facility.

2. Area where the facility provides its services.

3. Staff and structure of the facility.

3.1 Who manages the facility?

3.2 How many full-time, part-time and volunteer staff does the facility have?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Staff</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full-time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part-time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voluntary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 What are their roles?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Staff</th>
<th>Roles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full-time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part-time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voluntary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Overview of the facility’s work.

4.1 Who does the facility work with?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal Stakeholders</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>External Stakeholders</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2 What activities does it carry out?

________________________________________________________________________.

________________________________________________________________________.

________________________________________________________________________.

________________________________________________________________________.

4.3 Estimate how many people it reaches with different activities.

________________________________________________________________________.

5. Key achievement & main challenges.

5.1 Key highlights/ successes of the facility’s work over the past 3 years?

________________________________________________________________________.

________________________________________________________________________.

________________________________________________________________________.

________________________________________________________________________.

5.2 Main problems/ issues it faces over the past 3 years?

________________________________________________________________________.

________________________________________________________________________.

________________________________________________________________________.

________________________________________________________________________.

6. Sources of funding.

Please indicate the percentages of funding received from the following sources:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of Funding</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local Government</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within the community</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside the community</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional Donors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7. **Future plans.**

7.1 What are the immediate needs/ priorities of the facility?

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

7.2 Does the facility have any plans to scale up, if so, how?

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

7.3 If the facility received more funding, how would it be utilized?

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

8. Does the facility have access to:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a. E-mail</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b. WWW</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. CD-ROM</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Telephone</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Postal Mail</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### B. Leadership, Governance & Strategy (3 element)

Do you have principles that guide the operation of the facility? If so, what do these principles say about the selection of leaders, decision making and resolving conflict within the facility?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Capacity Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Constitution</strong></td>
<td>Do you have a written constitution accepted and approved by all the members of the facility?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Governing Committee / Board</strong></td>
<td>Do you have a Committee / Board that meets and makes decisions that guide your facility's development?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Mission &amp; values</strong></td>
<td>Do you have a mission and set of values which are clearly understood, agreed and approved by all the members of the facility? If so how are they used?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Identified capacity building needs

Plans for action or change

Suggestions for technical support
## C. Administration & Human Resources (4 elements)

### How do you organise your work?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Capacity Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Staff / Volunteer organization</strong></td>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does your facility involve a number of salaried staff and volunteers who have different areas of responsibility?</td>
<td>Less than 5 volunteers run the entire facility, some with more time and interest than others</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **2. Staff and volunteer development** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** |
| How do you ensure that staff and volunteers learn and share their experiences, support and motivate each other and have sufficient skills? | No meetings or trainings. Low skill levels, as volunteers only do basic work | Few meetings. Volunteers sent for training only occasionally | Occasional meetings. Skills needed by staff and volunteers understood & on-going training provided informally & externally | Regular meetings (monthly), training & team-building activities run to keep staff and volunteers motivated |

| **3. Office & equipment** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** |
| Does the facility have its own office, meeting space and equipment for handling administration and writing reports? What equipment does the facility have? | No office, no equipment | Access to occasionally use another office & equipment | Office & equipment (computer + printer) shared with another facility or individual | Own office & equipment (computer + printer) |

| **4. Gender** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** |
| How does your facility respect, encourage, and promote equal participation from people of all genders? | Facility has never actively considered this – more than 70% of members are from one gender | While gender balance exists at some levels, over 70% of people at management and decision-making levels from one gender | No more than 70% of one gender at all levels. Work practices are flexible to ensure childbirth and childcare are no obstacle to involvement | Facility develops and uses gender sensitive approaches in its work and promotes equal respect and rights for male, female, and transgender identities |

Identified capacity building needs

Plans for action or change

Suggestions for technical support
## D. Finance (6 elements)

How does the facility plan and manage its finances and budget?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Capacity Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Finances</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Does your facility keep accounts of money that it holds and can be presented on demand? | No accounts kept  
Records kept of money received & spent, but difficult to know how much money is held at any one time  
Accounts kept up-to-date and balances and statements are prepared at the end of the year  
Balances & statements prepared quarterly. At year end, presented to external stakeholders for approval |
| **2. Bank Account**                                                      |                                                                                                                                             |
| Does your facility have a bank account to hold its funds?               | Facility has no funds  
The organization has funds in cash but no bank account  
Uses someone’s personal account  
Has its own bank account |
| **3. Supporting Documents**                                             |                                                                                                                                             |
| Do you maintain supporting receipts and invoices for every expenditure from the grant? | No receipts / invoices are asked for when claiming or using money to justify expenses  
Receipts / invoices are asked for sometimes, but rarely kept on file  
Receipts / invoices are needed to justify any use of grant money and these are kept on file, but rarely reviewed by anyone  
All receipts / invoices and other supporting documents filed for 3 years, and regularly reviewed by authorized person |
| **4. Internal Control**                                                  |                                                                                                                                             |
| Do you implement an internal control system? E.g. A book-keeper is not authorized to approve expenditure of funds | No internal control system and policy exist  
Some rules exist (e.g. who is allowed to do what) but are not documented  
Internal controls are documented but not always followed and need improvement  
Internal controls are documented, always followed and regularly reviewed |
| **5. Budget Management**                                                |                                                                                                                                             |
| Does your facility prepare, monitor and review the budget?              | No budget prepared  
Budgets are prepared with estimated expenses for a proposal but not used for anything else  
Budgets are used to manage how much to spend on activities & ensure there is enough money for all future planned work  
Actual expenses are also reviewed against budgets monthly and major differences investigated |
6. Reporting Requirement

Do you provide financial reports with accuracy and submit on time to donors?

- No experience of having to submit donor reports
- Reports are submitted, but always late and with incomplete information
- Some reports submitted on time but often low quality
- Reports always submitted on time & always meet donor requirements

Identified capacity building needs

Plans for action or change

Suggestions for technical support

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E. Project Design, Management & Evaluation (5 elements)

How do you develop, manage and evaluate your projects?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Capacity Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Activity development &amp; planning</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does the facility manager plan the development of its activities, involving all people concerned?</td>
<td>Facility manager mainly responds to immediate needs, with little planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Project &amp; proposal development</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are you satisfied with the quality of the projects you develop?</td>
<td>Facility responds to immediate needs with no project framework or funded proposals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Targeting</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What type of people do you try to reach with your activities?</td>
<td>Always tries to reach the entire community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Project Management</td>
<td>Are you satisfied with the management of your project portfolio?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Project M&amp;E (Monitoring and Evaluation)</td>
<td>Does your facility have a functioning M&amp;E system?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Identified capacity building needs

Plans for action or change

Suggestions for technical support

---

### F. Technical Capacity (12 elements)

What experience does the facility manager already have in sport and development work?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Capacity Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Staff knowledge and skills</strong></td>
<td>Does the department train all its staff &amp; volunteers in the knowledge and the technical skills necessary to do their duties well?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Issues well understood, staff &amp; volunteers trained in providing services and often provide training to others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. HIV/AIDS knowledge and skills</strong></td>
<td>Does the department train all its staff &amp; volunteers in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HIV/AIDS issues well understood, staff &amp; volunteers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Disability Inclusion knowledge and skills</td>
<td>Does the department train all its staff &amp; volunteers in general knowledge of inclusion of people with disabilities in activities?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Trauma &amp; Psychosocial Support knowledge and skills</td>
<td>Does the department train all its staff &amp; volunteers in general knowledge to provide trauma or psychosocial support to program participants?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Income generation knowledge and skills</td>
<td>Does the facility use sport or related activities to generate income?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Gender knowledge and skills</td>
<td>Does the department train all its staff &amp; volunteers in general knowledge of gender equity?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Sport for development knowledge and skills</td>
<td>Does the department train all its staff &amp; volunteers in methods of using sport as a tool to impart knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>and skills in non-sport areas (life-skills)?</strong></td>
<td>When educating people or raising their awareness through sport based programming, how do you plan whom you want to reach and what messages and activities to reach them with?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marketing competence</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender and HIV/AIDS</strong></td>
<td>What do you understand about the relationship between gender and HIV/AIDS?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marketing competence</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender and HIV/AIDS</strong></td>
<td>What do you understand about the relationship between people’s rights, legal protection and HIV/AIDS?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Human rights and HIV/AIDS</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Human rights and HIV/AIDS</strong></td>
<td>What do you understand about the relationship between gender and HIV/AIDS?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Integrating responses to HIV/AIDS with core activities (for non-AIDS service organizations)</strong></td>
<td>How do you identify and respond to the challenges of HIV/AIDS in your core activities (or non-HIV specific work)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Integrating responses to HIV/AIDS with core activities (for non-AIDS service organizations)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Access to new sport and development information</strong></td>
<td>How do you encourage and enable members to learn and develop their knowledge?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Access to new sport and development information</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identified capacity building needs</td>
<td>Plans for action or change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### G. Advocacy & Networking (5 elements)

What relationship does your facility have with other local, national and international players in sport and development and how do you work together to influence others?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Capacity Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Advocacy: Do you carry out advocacy activities to influence those in</td>
<td>1. Haven’t thought about local policies or conditions. Little or no targeted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>power to change conditions or policies that form barriers to your work?</td>
<td>advocacy work done in the past.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Have tried to mobilise public for support but nothing targeted at key</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>people or institutions in power.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Have developed targeted activities towards certain groups or policies but</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>have lacked evidence, community voice, or strength of numbers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Have done convincing evidence or consultation - based advocacy, mobilising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>allies and using many different communication methods.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 2. Broader context and potential partnerships: Does your facility work | 1. Work in isolation. No knowledge of local policies, strategies or work of  |
| with local government, private or community organisations?            | others.                                                                        |
|                                                                           | 2. Some knowledge of local government policies & of other local organisations  |
|                                                                           | who are perceived mainly as ‘competitors’.                                     |
|                                                                           | 3. Understand national & local policy and strategies of other facilities; Have |
|                                                                           | personal contacts with a few other relevant people / facilities.              |
|                                                                           | 4. Have effective partnerships working together, sharing resources or referring|
|                                                                           | clients with local government, private or community organisations.            |
3. International Conferences

Does your facility send at least one participant to sport and development conferences?

Only attend if participant receives travel scholarship

1-2 per year

4-5 per year

More than 7 per year

4. Networking

How often does your facility maintain contact with others in the field?

Almost never (1-2 times per year)

Infrequently (1-2 times per month)

Regularly (1-7 times per month)

Frequently (daily)

5. Network contact

By what means does your facility maintain contact with others in the field?

Face to face at meetings and conferences only

Phone, fax only

E-mail, WWW, phone, fax

E-mail, WWW, phone, fax (own computer)

Identified capacity building needs

Plans for action or change

Suggestions for technical support

H. Community Ownership & Accountability (4 elements)

What roles do members of the community play in the facility and how does the facility communicate with the community?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Capacity Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Involvement of people living with HIV/AIDS in the activities, work and major decisions of the facility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do people living with HIV/AIDS participate fully in the activities, work and major decisions of the facility?</td>
<td>No positive people involved, except to receive services</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| 2. Involvement of vulnerable people in the activities, work and | | | | |
| Do vulnerable people that you work with (e.g. youth, child headed households, | Don’t identify particular vulnerable people | Work with particular vulnerable people as volunteers but none are in | People from specific vulnerable groups are involved throughout | Vulnerable people are fully involved throughout organization; vulnerable groups of people are involved in |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>major decisions of the facility</strong></th>
<th>women) participate fully in the activities, work and major decisions of the facility?</th>
<th>paid / decision making roles</th>
<th>the facility as paid staff and on the governing board / committee</th>
<th>designing projects and are widely consulted on major decisions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. <strong>Involvement of people with disabilities in the activities, work and major decisions of the facility</strong></td>
<td>Do people with disabilities participate fully in the activities, work and major decisions of the facility?</td>
<td>No people with disabilities are involved, except to receive services</td>
<td>People with disabilities act as volunteers but in no paid / decision making roles</td>
<td>People with disabilities are fully represented as paid staff and on the governing board / committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Facility has never actively considered this – more than 70% of members are from one gender</td>
<td>While gender balance exists at some levels, over 70% of people at management and decision-making levels from one gender</td>
<td>No more than 70% of one gender at all levels. Work practices are flexible to ensure childbirth &amp; childcare are no obstacle to involvement</td>
<td>Training &amp; policies exist to protect rights &amp; confidentiality, prevent stigma &amp; discrimination and provide support &amp; benefits for people with disabilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td>How does your facility respect, encourage and promote equal participation from people of all genders?</td>
<td>Facility develops &amp; uses gender sensitive approaches in its work &amp; promotes equal respect &amp; rights for male, female &amp; transgender identities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Identified capacity building needs**

**Plans for action or change**

**Suggestions for technical support**
## I. Fundraising (6 elements)

How does your facility conduct fundraising for projects and overall structure?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Capacity Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Fundraising</strong></td>
<td>How does your facility conduct fundraising?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No web page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Fundraising</strong></td>
<td>Does your facility have a web page?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No access to digital camera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Income generation</strong></td>
<td>Do you currently run an income-generating activity?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Identified capacity building needs

### Plans for action or change

### Suggestions for technical support

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**Thank You for your input**

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Appendix B

Letter of informed consent
Ms G. O. Sere
P. O. Box 13235
Hatfield
Pretoria
0028

Dear Ms Sere

LETTER OF CONSENT

I hereby agree to participate in the investigation entitled **Capacity Analysis of Sport and Recreation Facility in the Tshwane Metropolitan Council** conducted by the Researcher through the Department of Biokinetics, Sport and Leisure Sciences at the University of Pretoria, South Africa and consent to the researcher approaching our organisation through its leadership.

I understand that the purpose of this research for the MA (HMS) degree is to determine the capacity analysis of the Sport and Recreation Facilities in the Tshwane Metropolitan Council.

I have read and retained a copy of the Letter of Information to respondents, and the purpose and benefits of the study is explained to my satisfaction and that there are no risks involved to me personally or my organisation.

I have had any questions answered to my satisfaction.

I understand that, upon request, I may have a full description of the result of the study after its completion.

I understand that the Researcher intends to publish the findings of the study and results will only be reported on collectively and my anonymity is guaranteed. I also understand that data will be stored electronically for 15 years.
I understand that participation is voluntary, and that I am free to withdraw from this study at any time without negative consequences.

I HAVE READ AND UNDERSTOOD THE LETTER AND WHAT IS REQUIRED OF ME.

Name and Surname (Please Print): ________________________________.

Signature: ______________________.

Date: ________________  Telephone: ________________.

E-mail address: ______________________.
Appendix C

Letter to respondents
Dear Respondent

RESEARCH PROJECT: CAPACITY ANALYSIS OF SPORT AND RECREATION FACILITIES IN THE TSHWANE METROPOLITAN COUNCIL.

Sport and recreation organisations need facilities to run their day-to-day operations. Management of such facilities is critical in keeping any organisation operating smoothly and efficiently. Facilities that are well maintained and managed are some of the best public, private and consumer relations tool in any organisation. The success and growth of any facility is determined by the way it is managed.

It is postulated that a lack of management could lead to an increase of risk that could be experienced by the sports and recreation facilities. The aim of this research is therefore to analyse the current capacity profile of sport and recreation facilities in the Tshwane Metropolitan area to determine the effectiveness of a given facility’s operations. It is also to identify potential problem areas in facility’s operations as well as of sport and recreation facilities in the area in order to proactively prevent risks and, to explore recommendations to the appropriate authorities to ensure the smooth operation of these facilities by eliminating any risk factors that could lead to a decrease in revenue loss.
As you manage a sport or recreation facility that renders a service to the public you can assist in providing important information on the management capacity of sports and recreation facilities in the Tshwane Metropolitan area. Attached please find an informed consent form to be signed by the managers and area managers within your facility.

Your co-operation in this regard will be appreciated.

Kind regards

Prof Dr A. E. Goslin
Supervisor for Masters Candidate

Ms G. O. Sere
Researcher
Appendix D

Letter of permission to conduct the research
DEPARTMENT OF SPORT, RECREATION ARTS AND CULTURE: SPORT AND RECREATION

Tel: (012) 358 8847 Fax: (012) 358 8899
E-mail: milker@tshwane.gov.za
Office: First Floor, Room 1023, Es’kia Mphahlele Library, Sammy Marks Building, Pretoria

CITY OF TSHWANE
"we are the same"

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

PERMISSION TO INTERVIEW STAFF FOR RESEARCH PURPOSES

It is hereby confirmed that Ms Gointsone Olebogeng Sere has been granted permission to interact with and interview staff members of the Sport and Recreation Division of the City of Tshwane for the purpose of completing her Masters Degree research study entitled: Capacity analysis of sport and recreation facilities in the Tshwane Metropolitan Council area.

For any enquiries please contact Mike Rethman at (012) 358 8847.

Yours sincerely

R P Chauke
Acting Head of Department: Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture.