

Strategic Management of Campus Recreation at the University of Pretoria

by

Ingrid Elisabeth Windisch

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Supervisor: Professor A.E. Goslin

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DECLARATION

I, Ingrid Elisabeth Windisch, hereby declare that this research study was composed solely by myself and is not a copy of any other existing work.

Further, I declare that the language of this research report has been edited by Miss Thandi Meets.

Ingrid Elisabeth Windisch

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Summary

Title: Strategic Management of Campus Recreation at the University of Pretoria
Candidate: Ingrid Elisabeth Windisch
Degree: Magister Artium (Human Movement Science)
Department: Department of Biokinetics, Sport- and Leisure Sciences
Supervisor: Professor A.E. Goslin

Campus recreation is an essential part of any tertiary educational institution, and contributes to the development of students. Recreation activities not only enhance the quality of student life, but also help combating perceived academic stress. Research has suggested that campus recreation has a positive influence on tertiary university's organisational climate, culture, and reputation, and can contribute to the loyalty of important constituencies (e.g. students, alumni, and legislators). This implies that recreation programmes could contribute to the competitive advantage of tertiary educational institutions in general and the University of Pretoria specifically, and can therefore enhance the attainment of its mission in the areas of teaching, research, and service. In order to unlock the full potential of recreation on tertiary educational level the sport or recreation manager has to continuously craft a strategic plan concerning campus recreation. Modern sport and recreation function on business principles and any sport or recreation programme should meet the needs of the users, be cost effective or risk the possibility of being phased out. To achieve this the sport or recreation manager must plan a specific pattern of action to achieve organisational goals (strategy) to take advantage of the planning process.

Strategic management involves broad environmental scanning (strategic planning) to generate applicable strategies (strategy formulation) to obtain and maintain competitive advantage (strategic control). If TuksSport (as the business unit responsible for sport and recreation at the University of Pretoria) wants to achieve organisational success, it has to analyse its environment, assess its strengths and weaknesses and identify opportunities where it could gain a competitive advantage.

The following hypothesis was formulated for this study: “Campus recreation at the University of Pretoria lacks strategy and structure and does not satisfy the needs and preferences of all enrolled students”. In the study, relevant strategic facets of TuksSport service delivery were analysed and discussed in attempt to test the above hypothesis and answer the research questions posed in Chapter 1. The primary goal of this study was to provide strategic guidelines for efficient strategic management of campus recreation at the University of Pretoria. Based on the strategic management process the secondary aims are therefore to:

- to determine the role and place of campus recreation in tertiary institutions (external environment analysis);
- to analyse the existing campus recreation product and service supply and structure at the University of Pretoria (internal environmental analysis / supply analysis);
- to determine the client (enrolled students) preferences and needs pertaining to campus recreation at the University of Pretoria (demand analysis);
- to synchronise the demand and supply regarding campus recreation at the University of Pretoria in a strategic management plan.

The gathered and collected data in this study was processed by means of qualitative research. Research methods include an external environmental analysis (literature review analysis), an internal environmental analysis (literature study, interviews) and a research questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered to a 10% sample of undergraduate students at the University of Pretoria from the men residences, the women residences, and the daily student’s house Zeus. The following dimensions of campus recreation were focused on in the questionnaire:

Section A: Demographic information: questions in this section included personal information and the social environment of the students. Section B: Current sport and recreation participation patterns: this section focused on identifying the students’

demonstrated preferences towards sport and recreation participation, as well as identifying the problem areas that inhibit the students to participate in sport and recreation activities. Section C: Latent sport and recreation participation: this section focused on identifying the needs and the interests of students concerning sport and recreation participation. Section D: Evaluation of sport and recreation facilities and services at the University of Pretoria: questions in this section dealt with identifying possible problems concerning the current sport-, and recreation facilities and services, and aimed to identify means and ways to improve and upgrade the sport, and recreation facilities and services at the University of Pretoria.

The results indicated the following:

- Lack of a formal strategic plan for campus recreation
- Lack of relevant management information
- Incongruity of mission statement and product/service mix
- Misunderstanding of the concept of “recreation”
- Emphasis on elite sport.

The following recommendations were concluded: TuksSport needs to give attention to their strategic management plan, mission statement, external business environment, internal business environment, strategies, strategic objectives, and their functional plans.

In order to deploy the full potential of recreation at tertiary educational institutions, the following issues are suggested for further research:

- Longitudinal research on tendencies of campus recreation at South African tertiary educational institutions.
- Comparative research on campus recreation in SADEC and other African universities.

Keywords: Tertiary educational institutions, campus recreation, strategic management, recreation, recreation preferences.

Samevatting

Titel: Strategiese Bestuur van Kampusrekreasie aan die Universiteit van Pretoria

Kandidaat: Ingrid Elisabeth Windisch

Graad: Magister Artium (Menslike Bewegingskunde)

Departement: Department van Biokinetika, Sport- and Vryetydswetenskappe

Studieleier: Professor A.E. Goslin

Kampusrekreasie vorm 'n essensiële deel van die dienste van tersiêre opvoedkundige inrigtings en dra by tot die ontwikkeling van die student. Rekreasieaktiwiteite bevorder nie alleen die lewenskwaliteit van die student nie maar dra ook by tot vermindering van akademiese stres. Navorsing suggereer dat kampusrekreasie 'n positiewe invloed het op die tersiêre opvoedkundige instelling se organisatoriese klimaat, kultuur en reputasie en dra ongetwyfeld by tot die lojaliteit van studente, alumni en besluitnemers teenoor 'n betrokke instansie. Dit impliseer dat tersiêre opvoedkundige inrigtings oor die algemeen, en die Universiteit van Pretoria in die besonder, 'n mededingende voordeel deur middel van sinvolle kampusrekreasieprogramme mag verkry.

Ten einde die volle potensiaal van rekreasieaktiwiteite op tersiêre opvoedkundige vlak te verkry moet die sport- of rekreasie bestuurder egter 'n rollende strategiese plan vir kampusrekreasie formuleer. Moderne sport en rekreasie funksioneer volgens besigheidspraktyke en –beginsels en rekreasieprogramme moet aan die behoeftes en voorkeure van die kliënt voldoen om lewensvatbaar en koste-effektief te bly. Die sport- of rekreasiebestuurder moet dus 'n spesifieke patroon van aksie bepaal ten einde die organisatoriese doelstellings (strategie) te bereik.

Strategiese bestuur omvat eksterne omgewingsanalise (strategiese beplanning) om toepaslike strategieë (strategieformulering) te identifiseer en sodoende kompeterende voordeel (strategiese beheer) te behou. Indien TuksSport (as die besigheidseenheid verantwoordelik vir sport- en rekreasievoorsiening aan die Universiteit van Pretoria)

sukses ten opsigte van kampus rekreasie wil behaal, sal omvattende omgewingsanalises onder neem moet word om die sterk- en swakpunte te bepaal en geleenthede en bedreigings te identifiseer om sodoende 'n kompeterende voordeel te verkry.

Die volgende hipotese is vir die onderhawige studie gestel: “ Kampusrekreasie aan die Universiteit van Pretoria kort struktuur en strategie en bevredig nie die behoeftes en voorkeure van ingeskrewe studente nie”. In hierdie studie is die relevante strategiese fasette van TuksSport se kampusrekreasiedienslewering ontleed en bespreek in 'n poging om die gestelde hipotese en navorsingsvrae te beantwoord. Die primêre doelstelling van die studie was om strategieseriglyne vir effektiewe strategiese bestuur van kampusrekreasie aan die Universiteit van Pretoria te voorsien.

Literatuurstudie, onderhoude en 'n navorsingsvraelys is as navorsingsmetodes in hierdie kwalitatiewe studie gebruik. Die ekstrene besigheidsomgewing is deur middel van 'n literatuurstudie ontleed, die interne besigheidsomgewing deur middel van onderhoude en relevante dokumente en die mark omgewing deur middel van 'n navorsingsvraelys. Die navorsingsvraelys is aan 'n ewekansige 10% steekproef van ingeskrewe studente in mans- en dameskoshuise van die Universiteit van Pretoria asook die dagstudentehuis Zeus, geadministreer. Die navorsingsvraelys het op die volgende dimensies van kampusrekreasie gefokus:

Afdeling A: Demografiese inligting: vrae in hierdie afdeling het die demografiese inligting sowel as inligting rakende die sosiale omgewing van die studente ingesluit. Afdeling B: Bestaande sport- en rekreasiedeelnamepatrone: hierdie afdeling het die studente se sport en rekreasiedeelnamevoorkeur geïdentifiseer, ook was die inheerders geïdentifiseer wat studente se deelname aan sport en rekreasie ingeperk het. Afdeling C: Latente sport- en rekreasiedeelname: hierdie afdeling het die behoeftes en belangstellings van studente aangaande sport en rekreasie deelname bepaal. Afdeling D: Evaluering van sport en rekreasiefasiliteite en dienste aan die Universiteit van Pretoria: vrae in hierdie afdeling het beoog om inheerders en probleemareas ten opsigte van die bestaande sport- en rekreasiefasiliteite asook dienste onder die soeklig

te bring. Namate hierdie aspekte geïdentifiseer was, was metodes aangewys om die sport- en rekreasie fasiliteite aan die Universiteit van Pretoria te verbeter, te opgradeer en ook te korrigeer.

Die vernaamste resultate het die volgende getoon:

- Tekort aan formele strategieseplan vir kampusrekreasie
- Tekort aan relevante bestuursinligting
- Ongepastheid van die missie en produkte en dienste
- Wanpersepsie aangaande die term “rekreasie”
- Beklemtoning van elite sport.

Die volgende aanbevelings was geformuleer: TuksSport moet aandag gee aan die strategiese bestuursplan, missie, eksterne besigheidsomgewing, interne besigheidsomgewing, strategieë, strategiese doelwitte en ook funksionele planne.

Indien die volle potensiaal van rekreasie aan tersiêre opvoedkundige instansies bewerkstellig wil word, word die volgende voortgesette navorsing voorgestel:

- Longitudinale navorsing aangaande die tendense van kampusrekreasie aan Suid-Afrikaanse tersiêre opvoedkundige instansie.
- Vergelykende navorsing van kampusrekreasie aan die Suid-Afrikaanse Demokratiese Opvoedkundige Raad en ander Afrika universiteite. **(SADEC)**

Sleuteltermes: Tersiêre opvoedkundige instansies, Kampusrekreasie, Strategiese bestuur, Rekreasie, Rekreasie voorkeure.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT, AIM AND METHODOLOGY

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Contemporary sport and recreation are well established as areas of considerable social, economic, health and political significance. Although the perceived benefits of sport and recreation participation have been documented, there is limited reference to its place in higher education (Harris in McMahon-Beattie and Yeoman, 2004). Both South African sport and recreation and higher education have undergone changes during the past decade. February 2001 saw the implementation of a National Plan for Higher Education, which, together with the Higher Education Act of 1997, focused on the establishment of a single co-ordinated higher education system that responds to the changed needs of South African society (Waghid, 2000). The apartheid regime seriously affected the nature and opportunities of higher education available to South Africans. The basic aim of the National Plan for Higher Education was hence to recognise the strengths and weaknesses of the previous system and replace it with a system that responds to the equity and developmental challenges critical to the improvement of the quality of life of all South Africans. Waghid (2000) proposes that the process of transformation of the higher education system fundamentally calls for an ongoing change in the way students and educators approach the acquisition of knowledge and competencies and transfer them to a broader societal context. Problem solving skills and visionary leadership are of the essence in the transformed higher education system. An essential performance benchmark is the producing of skilled individuals who can contribute towards maintaining the values of a democratic society.

Favish (2003) identifies three primary areas of transformation in a knowledge-driven South Africa namely, human resource development, high level skills training and acquisition and application of new knowledge. Human Resource development

emphasises the mobilisation of human talent and potential through continued education to facilitate social, economic and intellectual upliftment of the changing South African environment. Van Wyk (2004) states the key policy goals and strategic objectives necessary to achieve the transformation of the higher education system as:

- increased access to higher education and graduates with the skills and competencies needed to meet the human resource needs of South Africans;
- increased equity of access and outcomes and restore past inequalities by ensuring that student and staff profiles reflect the demographic composition of the South African society;
- establish diversity in the higher education system through programme differentiation based on skills and knowledge needs;
- high-level research capacity to link research outputs with national development needs;
- South African higher education institutions become consistent with the vision and values of a non-racial, non-sexist and democratic society.

The transformed South African Higher Education System does not only emphasise the acquisition of technical and academic knowledge but also the acquisition and transfer of social skills and the provision of community services. Harris (in McMahon-Beattie and Yeoman, 2003) agrees and suggests that Higher Education is no longer an environment where only educational development takes place but also an environment where social and personal development through sport and recreation programmes is evident. Students should be capacitated to adopt healthy lifestyles and higher education institutions should concern themselves with providing a supportive environment to enable students to gain knowledge and understanding, explore possibilities, experiment safely, make informed choices and discover their potential (Dooris, 2001). These

objectives will only be achieved within a holistic framework where all programmes, departments or business units are perceived as an organisational whole. Sport and Recreation departments within the organisational whole of higher educational institutions obviously have a significant part to play.

The South African sport landscape has also transformed dramatically since 1994, not only from a macro perspective but also from a micro perspective. The business environment of South African sport and recreation seem to resemble a white-water-business environment as depicted by Robbins & De Cenzo (1998). Van Wyk (2004) recorded (amongst others) the following changes in the sport and recreation business environment of South African higher educational institutions:

- changed demographic profile due to increased accessibility created by the National Plan for Higher Education of 2001;
- changes in the student market due to mergers of tertiary institutions;
- social and political changes in the form of quota systems, transformation regulations and implementation requirements of specific Acts such as the Employment Equity and Affirmative Action;
- changed expectations and preferences of students attending higher educational institutions.

The contribution of regular physical activity and positive spending of leisure time to physical, psychological and emotional well-being are well-debated realities and will not be elaborated on as it falls outside the ambit of this study. Sport and recreation do have an important role to play in the contemporary transformation of the South African student community, and sport and recreation departments should develop their role as facilitators and enablers of planned change and adopt a pro-active approach to obtain optimal competitiveness.

1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Change and transformation are realities in South African sport and higher education. Effective management of this inevitable change is essential to the success of all sport and recreation organisations in contemporary South Africa. Sport and recreation bureaux are integral business units of most South African higher education institutions and they too must anticipate change and meet the needs of their market (enrolled students). A strategic approach is therefore essential to pro-actively manage this change.

Strategic thought and action are getting increasingly important to sustainable competitiveness in the future. Kriemadis (1997) postulates that many educational institutions today are faced with a multitude of changes relating to factors such as ageing facilities, changing technology, increasing competition, changing demographics, rising costs and funding cuts. Although there seems to be an affluence of literature focusing on strategic management (Thompson, 1990; Certo & Peter, 1995; Thompson & Strickland, 2003; Hunger & Wheelen, 2003; Griffin, 2005) and texts focusing on sport and recreation management have increased (Lussier and Kimball, 2004; McMahon-Beattie and Yeoman, 2004; Torkildsen, 1999), studies focusing on the strategic development of sport and recreation at higher educational institutions are rare. Harris (1999; 1999; 1993) seems to be the major advocate of strategic management of sport and recreation in these settings. Harris (1993; 1999) highlighted the need for a strategic approach to the development of sport and recreation at two higher education institutions. His research (1993) revealed extensive dissatisfaction with the provision of sport and recreation opportunities at the institutions and indicated a dominance of particular user-groups (males, elite performers). Both the institutions lacked a strategic plan for sport and recreation at that particular time. Harris (1999) recorded considerable evidence of dissatisfaction with equality issues in higher education sport and recreation. From a strategic perspective, McMahon-Beattie & Yeoman (2004) emphasised the fine balance between revenue-generating activities and social and participation objectives.

As sport and recreation departments constitute integral business units of higher education institutions, the sport and recreation strategy needs to be aligned to the vision, mission and strategic aims of the specific education institution. In this regard, the University of Pretoria states unequivocally in its strategic plan for 2002 to 2005 that sport and recreation form an essential element of their service mix. The University of Pretoria envisions that it wants to enable students to become well-rounded, creative persons, responsible, productive citizens and future leaders by encouraging them to participate in and excel in sport, cultural activities and the arts. In the University of Pretoria's strategic plan for 2002 – 2005 (2002:23) it is therefore stated that:

- “The University of Pretoria has a proud tradition of excellence in sport. Sport forms an important component of student life at the University of Pretoria – it is becoming the new sport address in South Africa. Not only is sport an important element of recreation, but it also contributes to the personal development of students. In addition to the recreational and competitive elements of sport, the University also has a very strong academic involvement in sport. Given the important role of sport in the development of people, be it on the recreational or competitive side, it is the University's strategic intent to improve, extend and enhance its involvement and participation in sport. This will include facilities, organisational structures as well as participation rates”.

Neluvhalani (2003) in addition states that TuksSport, as a responsible business unit, strives to provide students, staff and club members with optimal opportunities to participate in sport and recreation within their means; contribute to the positive marketing of the University of Pretoria by way of the performance of the participants in sport and the presentation of outstanding programmes; and ensure an involvement in the community through programmes and services.

David (2001) justifies the importance of strategic management in the pro-active positioning of organizations. Strategic management involves the planning, directing, organising, and the controlling of the strategy-related decisions and actions of any

organisation. According to David (2001), strategic management can be defined as, the art and science of formulating, implementing, and evaluating cross-functional decisions that enable an organisation to achieve its objectives. This implies that in order to achieve holistic organisational success, strategic management should exist in all business units focusing on integrating management, marketing, finance, production, research and development.

Although campus recreation services are recognized as an essential element of the University of Pretoria's mission statement, it became very lucid after several interviews with TuksSport officials (Neluvhalani, 2003; Van der Walt, 2004) that problems do exist regarding campus recreation participation rates as well as the management thereof. The following factors have been identified which may give reason to this problem:

- the absence of a written strategic management process plan for recreational sport;
- low sport and recreation participation rates of all enrolled students;
- most students participating in sport or recreation live in either women or men residences, and very few daily students participate;
- most of the resources are focused on competitive sport and not on recreational sport.

Interviews held with TuksSport officials (Neluvhalani, 2003; Van der Walt, 2004), thus clearly revealed that there is an absence of a structure and commitment for campus recreation at the University of Pretoria. Thus far, competitive sport has been the main focus of TuksSport even though recreation has always been part of the University of Pretoria services to students. It therefore seems that TuksSport does not meet all the needs of its clients, probably not because of a poor needs analysis or a lack of interest in the needs, but because of a lack of long-term strategy, specifically concerning campus recreation.

1.3. HYPOTHESIS

Based on the above discussion the following hypothesis has been formulated for this study:

Campus recreation at the University of Pretoria lacks strategy and structure and does not satisfy the needs and preferences of all enrolled students.

In order to test the formulated hypothesis, certain research questions ought to be answered satisfactorily:

- What are the clients' (enrolled students) needs and preferences pertaining to campus recreation at the University of Pretoria?
- What are the current and existing sport and recreation patterns of the clients (enrolled students) at the University of Pretoria?
- Do the sport and recreation facilities of the University of Pretoria satisfy the needs and preferences of the clients (enrolled students)?
- At what level are the quality and the standard of the services delivered from TuksSport to its clients (enrolled students)?
- How good or at what level are the quality and the standard of the sport and recreation facilities at the University of Pretoria, which are available to all enrolled students?

1.4. AIMS OF THE STUDY

The primary aim of the study is to provide strategic guidelines for efficient strategic management of campus recreation at the University of Pretoria. Based on the strategic management process the secondary aims are therefore to:

- to determine the role and place of campus recreation in tertiary institutions (external environment analysis);
- to analyse the existing campus recreation product and service supply and structure at the University of Pretoria (internal environmental analysis / supply analysis);
- to determine the client (enrolled students) preferences and needs pertaining to campus recreation at the University of Pretoria (demand analysis);
- to synchronise the demand and supply regarding campus recreation at the University of Pretoria in a strategic management plan.

1.5. TERMINOLOGY

In order to establish a baseline of interpretation for terms used in this study, the following terms are clarified:

1.5.1. Leisure

The term leisure is derived from the Latin word *licere* meaning *to be free*, which refers to activities engaged in an informal atmosphere, as well as time which is free from any obligations, implying that there are no internal or external pressures or coercions when participating in leisure activities. Edgington, Hanson & Edgington (1992: 4) therefore suggest that leisure is "...freedom to pursue those things of interest to an individual". Du

Plessis (1996) states that the old and the modern definitions of the term leisure have three characteristics in common, namely:

- leisure is time free from obligations;
- leisure is pursued out of own free will and choice;
- the motivation for pursuing leisure activities is mostly for intrinsic rewards.

1.5.2. Recreation

The terms leisure and recreation are often used interchangeably in the sport and recreation context, but it is important to note that these two terms are in fact not synonyms. The term recreation comes from the Latin word *recreatio* or *recreare* meaning *restoration, recovery* or *to refresh*, thus implying the recreation of energy or the restoration of the ability to function. Recreation is an activity pursued during leisure time and aims at gaining personal and social advantages. Goslin (1983) identifies several essential characteristics of recreation, namely:

- Recreation is a universal phenomenon.
- Recreation implies those activities engaged in during leisure time.
- Recreation implies those activities that are enjoyable and meaningful to the individual as well as morally and socially acceptable to a specific community.
- Recreation is a freely chosen activity.
- Recreation is not universal in form. Recreation to one person may be work to another.

For the purpose of this study, recreation will be defined as voluntary participation in leisure activities that are meaningful and enjoyable to the person involved. The term braces both indoor and outdoor activities and refers to sports and exercises as well as to less physically active pursuits.

Cordes & Ibrahim (2003) suggest that recreation is one aspect of the broader term “leisure”, which encompasses not only vigorous activities such as softball and hiking, but also sedentary hobbies such as coin and stamp collecting, as well as more passive pastimes, such as dozing in a hammock or sunbathing.

1.5.3. Sport

In general sport implies having fun, but it can also be work (professional athlete), a means of employment (sport tourism), or a business (sport management agency). Parks, Zanger & Quaterman (1998) also mention the fact that sport is any competitive human physical activity that is governed by institutional rule. For the aim of this study it is important to be aware of several characteristics; sport is a form of physical activity and also a form of physical skills, it is either for recreation purposes or competitive advantages, it is play-like by nature and it involves elements of skill, strategy and chance. Taking all the above-mentioned characteristics of sport into consideration, Pitts, Fielding & Miller (1994) stated that sport is any activity, experience, or business enterprise focused on fitness, recreation, athletics or leisure. In their view, sport does not have to be competitive, nor does it always require specialised equipment or rules.

1.5.4. Campus recreation

Campus recreation was traditionally known as intramural recreation. The word “intramural” is a combination of the Latin word *intra*, meaning “within” and *muralis* meaning, “wall”. When using this in terms of sport, it refers to sport events for members confined within walls or jurisdiction of a setting (Mull, Bayless, Ross & Jamieson, 1997).

Campus recreation is programmed sport and recreation activities for the sake of participation and fun. Programmes offered within campus recreation departments vary dramatically. According to Parks *et al.* (1998) campus recreation can be categorised into four different scopes:

- Informal sport – it involves the process of self-directed participation. It is an individualised approach pursued for the sake of fun and fitness. Mostly there are no predetermined goals except that of participation.
- Extramural sport – it is structured participation between different universities / campus settings. This means that two or more universities compete against each other at different university grounds every time.
- Intramural sport – structured contests, tournaments, leagues or other events in which participation is limited to the setting where the recreational sport system is located. Only individuals “belonging” to that specific university may participate.
- Sport clubs – a group of people with a common interest in a specific sport.

1.5.5. Strategic Management

Robbins and Mukerji (1994: 140) define strategic management as to:

“... develop a systematic means of analysing the environment, assessing their organisations strengths and weaknesses, and identifying opportunities where the organisation could have a competitive advantage”. According to Collins (1995: 475), strategic management refers to the long-range organisation plan identifying what the organisation wants to achieve and how it is going to achieve it.

1.5.6. Strategic management process

The strategic management process is a continuous process encompassing strategic planning, implementation and evaluation.

1.6. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.6.1. Type of research

The gathered and collected data in this study will be processed by means of qualitative research. According to Thomas and Nelson (1996), some basic characteristics of qualitative research include the following:

- Intensive, long-time observation and extensive interviewing in a natural setting;
- Precise and detailed recording of what happens in a setting through the use of field notes, audiotapes, videotapes and other types of documentary evidence (questionnaire);
- Data interpretation and analysis using rich descriptions, interpretive narratives, direct quotes, charts, tables, and sometimes statistics (usually descriptive).

Qualitative research hardly ever establishes hypotheses in the beginning of a study, and therefore follows the scientific method of problem solving only to a certain degree. It is also seen as a systematic method of inquiry (Thomas & Nelson, 1996). The researcher tries to develop hypotheses from observations, by means of inductive reasoning, and theories are based on the gathered and collected data.

1.6.2. Demarcation of study area

The study is limited to the area of jurisdiction of TuksSport (the strategic business unit responsible for delivering sport and recreation at the University of Pretoria in South Africa). The study will further be primarily limited to residential students enrolled at the University of Pretoria as primary clients at the University of Pretoria and will not include other clients (staff, alumni).

1.6.3. Data collection

The research topic necessitates the use of the following research methods to collect data:

1.6.3.1. External environmental analysis

A literature review analyses the external environmental dimensions relevant to campus recreation internationally and nationally.

1.6.3.2. Internal environmental analysis

A literature study (internal policies, programmes, and business plans), interviews and a research questionnaire will be used to collect data on the internal business environment of campus recreation at the University of Pretoria.

1.6.3.2.1. Research questionnaire

A research questionnaire was designed to determine the campus recreation preferences and needs of enrolled students as the primary clients of the proposed product (campus recreation) at the University of Pretoria. The questionnaire design focused on the following dimensions of campus recreation:

Section A: Demographic information

Questions in this section primarily deal with the demographic information of the students. This includes personal information and the social environment of the students. Research shows that factors such as gender, age, language, environmental upbringing, residential accommodation, enrolled courses, income and the amount of classes a week have an influence on the amount of time spent on the utilisation of sport and recreation.

Section B: Current sport and recreation participation patterns

Questions in this section primarily deal with the students' current sport and recreation participation. The questions are not only directed towards the participation of sport and recreation at the University of Pretoria, but also towards participation in other sport and recreation clubs outside the University of Pretoria. This section focuses on identifying the students' demonstrated preferences towards sport and recreation participation, as well as identifying the problem areas that inhibit the students to participate in sport and recreation activities.

Section C: Latent sport and recreation participation

Questions in this section primarily deal with identifying other sport and recreation activities the students would like to participate in. This section focuses on identifying the needs and the interests of students concerning sport and recreation participation.

In order to strategically plan future sport and recreation facilities, programmes and services at the University of Pretoria, it is of vital importance to identify the additional needs and interests of the students concerning their sport and recreation participation.

Section D: Evaluation of sport and recreation facilities and services at the University of Pretoria

Questions in this section deal with the quality and the standard of the University of Pretoria's sport and recreation facilities as well as the professionalism of the personnel at TuksSport being the responsible business unit.

Section D deals with identifying possible problems concerning the current sport-, and recreation facilities and services, and aims to identify means and ways to improve and upgrade the sport, and recreation facilities and services at the University of Pretoria.

1.6.3.3. Research Sample

The questionnaire was administered to a 10 % probability sample (n=500) of undergraduate students at the University of Pretoria from:

➤ All women's residences (hostels):

- Asterhof
- Erika
- Jasmyn
- Katjiepiering
- Klaradyn
- Madelief
- Magrietjie
- Nerina

➤ All men's residences (hostels):

- Boekenhout
- Kollege
- Maroela
- Mopanie
- Olienhout
- Sonop
- Taaibos

➤ The Daily student's house:

- Zeus

(The questionnaires will not only be handed out to daily students that are part of the Daily's house, but also to daily students that are not part of Zeus.)

1.6.3.4. Administering the questionnaire

The research questionnaire was delivered by hand to House Committees of the respective University of Pretoria's residences. The research questionnaire was distributed to the primaria of women residences and to the chairpersons of the student committee in men residences, who obtained permission from Sport Representative Committee member and co-ordinated the internal distribution and collection.

1.6.3.5. Statistical interpretation

Obtained data was statistically interpreted by means of the arithmetic average, or also called the mean (\bar{x}). The mean is the most widely used measure of tendency (Neuman, 1997). Means can only be produced for numerical data. Means cannot be used for

coded variables where the codes represent qualitative categories and not quantities (Veal, 1997).

Five hundred questionnaires were administered to undergraduate students of the University of Pretoria. In response to the request, 115 questionnaires were returned. A response rate of 23.0% was thus obtained ($n = 115$) therefore making the result valid (Thomas & Nelson, 1996). Unresponsive undergraduate students were reminded but produced no further completed questionnaires. Means were used for the analysis when using the “Likert” type scale.

1.7. OUTLINE OF THE PROPOSED STUDY

This study comprises six chapters that are set out as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction, problem statement, aim and methodology

In this chapter the rationale for the study is presented, followed by the formulation of the problem statement and descriptions of the study’s aims, importance and its research methodology are presented.

Chapter 2: Recreation provision in university settings

Recreation in the context of educational settings, especially tertiary institutions, is critically examined in this chapter. Attention is given to the explanation of the various terms: sport, recreation and tertiary educational institutions. The work of previous researchers in this context will be analysed by means of a literature study. The chapter is concluded by thoroughly examining the relevance and importance of recreation in tertiary institutions.

Chapter 3: Strategic management of recreation in educational settings

This chapter focuses mainly on the theoretical background of strategic management. A closer look is taken at the concept “strategic management” and its relevance in tertiary educational settings. The strategic management process in a tertiary recreational provision context is analysed.

Chapter 4: Service provision of recreation at the University of Pretoria

This chapter critically examines the provision of recreation at the University of Pretoria. The primary focus of this chapter is to analyse the development of recreation provision at the University of Pretoria from a strategic management perspective.

Chapter 5: Research results and interpretation

In this chapter, the findings and results of the study obtained from the use of the research questionnaires are analysed and interpreted.

Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations

In this final chapter, a summary is made of all the previous chapters. From here on, conclusions are then drawn and recommendations are made on how the University of Pretoria can optimally approach the strategic management of recreation provision.

CHAPTER 2

RECREATION PROVISION IN UNIVERSITY SETTINGS

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The primary reason for the existence of sport and recreation at schools and universities is the educational value it imparts to the students (Coakley, 2001).

With this point of view, it seems that recreation and sport have a definite place at a university. Yet, not everyone will agree with Coakley's statement but rather consider a university as a place of academic excellence and that recreation and sport be considered as an activity outside the environment of an institution of higher learning. Personal and direct requests for information on campus recreation policies at South African universities yielded limited results. This created the impression that there are no formal written policies in this regard. However, Internet searches provided access to the South African universities. These searches also reflected broad guidelines that identified various Universities in America, in Europe and in Australia as the international leaders concerning campus recreation.

Before any attempt can be made to ascertain whether recreation and sport in fact, have a place on the university campus, it is essential to first analyse development and main function of a university as such.

2.2. A BRIEF HISTORICAL SURVEY OF THE ORIGIN AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF UNIVERSITIES

2.2.1. The Classical university

The term *university* is derived from the term used in the Middle Ages *universitas magistrorum atque scholarium*, which means a unity of students and mentors. The term

studium is often added in this context, which means that the unity was established with the aim to study the science (Verster, van Heerden & van Zyl, 1994). Two types, namely:

- *Studium generale* where the mentors were in the arts, biblical law and the civil law, and was developed by means of a decree put up by a pope or by a king; and
- *Studium particulare* where the mentors teach students on a personal level, which was developed by a spiritual, a council or by a city.

The concept university originated during the period of the Middle Ages, and more specifically, during the twelfth and the thirteenth century (Verster *et al.*, 1994). However, in classical times, certain schools showed tendencies similar to university functioning and they in fact, served as the foundation stones for the later developed university. In this regard, examples were the Academy of Plato established in 386 B.C., the Lyceum of Aristotle (335 B.C.), the Stoic schools of Zeno (308 B.C.) and the school of Epicurus, which first saw light in 306 B.C. These philosophic and rhetoric schools were then united into one institution, the University of Athens that was established in about 200 A.D. and existed until about 529 A.D. when Justinian disbanded it. Towards the end of the first century A.D., a start was made in introducing higher education in Rome, which came about when Vespuccius shipped a consignment of stolen loot which included books, to the Roman capital. In this way, Rome became a centre of learning about 75 A.D.

2.2.2. The Middle Ages university

During the early Christian period very little was done to promote higher education. The exception was the Catechism schools where clergymen were prepared for their professions. However, it was only during the Middle Ages that institutions of higher learning really came to the fore. No exact date can be given for the beginning of these universities since they developed gradually. With certainty, however, it was clear that during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries they took on a definite structure akin to what constitutes a university, as is known today. According to Verster *et al.* (1994), there is no

doubt that their existence too must be ascribed to the rise of the great cities where intellectuals were often to be found. The most important of these institutions were the 'schools' of Salerno, Bologna, Paris, and Oxford. It must be noted that these institutions were specialised. Bologna was known as an excellent school for Law studies and Salerno was renowned for its Medical studies. The many students that came to study at the institutions soon formed themselves into 'corporations' (or universities) as a means of protection from extortion and violence, which was rife at the time. The corporations of students constituted the beginning of the Middle Age University.

Oxford University grew out of schools centred on a nunnery and an abbey, and after 1168, allusions to Oxford as a place of study became more frequent. No doubt, educational activities were being carried out at this time in the neighbourhood of Cambridge and they were strengthened by a migration of students from Oxford in 1209. In both cases, a unique and permanent feature of English universities was established through the halls of residence, later known as colleges, which have retained a considerable measure of autonomy. The number of universities in Europe grew rapidly during the fourteenth century. Charters to start such institutions were granted to Prague, Cracow, Vienna, Heidelberg and Cologne.

During the Middle Ages, the university saw itself as an institution where students could acquire knowledge of the sciences. This was its main function. With the advent of the Renaissance period and the resulting emphasis on humanism, the emphasis shifted. The university saw its main function then as that of the broadening of knowledge through self-analysis (Verster *et al.*, 1994).

2.2.3. The South African universities

During the period of the Dutch East Indian Company's occupation in South Africa, no provision was made for any form of higher education. During the first half of the nineteenth century, a start was made to prepare young men for higher education in Europe. It was, however, during the second half of the century that the first step towards

the introduction of university education in Southern Africa was taken in Cape Town in 1858 with the creation of a board of public examiners under the name of “Board of Public Examiners in Literature and Science”. This led to the founding of new colleges such as the well-known South African College established as early as 1859 (Verster *et al.*, 1994).

By the end of the nineteenth century, the South African College and the Victoria College could be considered true university colleges. In the Eastern Province of the Cape Colony, higher education was concentrated in 1904 in a new institution in Grahamstown namely Rhodes University College. After the Anglo-Boer War, the Orange River Colony and the Transvaal secured representation on the Council of the University of the Cape of Good Hope in 1906. Degree courses were offered in Bloemfontein, and Grey University College was established in 1910. In the Transvaal, emphasis fell on technological needs. In 1904, the Transvaal Technical Institute in Johannesburg took over the work formerly undertaken by the Kimberley School of Mines, and in 1906, it became Transvaal University College. In 1908 a branch of the university college was established in Pretoria, and on the eve of the Union this branch became the Transvaal University College, while the original Johannesburg institution, restricted in its activities, was renamed the South African School of Mines and Technology. In Natal, a university college was opened in Pietermaritzburg in 1920 (Verster *et al.*, 1994).

In 1916 the basic patterns of universities in South Africa was laid down by legislation. The Victoria College became the University of Stellenbosch, the South African College was incorporated in the University of Cape Town; the examining university (the University of the Cape of Good Hope) together with the existing smaller colleges became the federal University of South Africa in Pretoria, the colleges being – Grey university College (later the University College of the Orange Free State), the Natal University College, Rhodes University College, the South African School of Mines and Technology, the Transvaal University College (Verster *et al.*, 1994).

In 1919, the Arts Department of the Theological School of the Gereformeerde Kerk became the “Potchefstroomse Universiteitskollege vir Christlike Hoër Onderwys”. In

1922, the University of the Witwatersrand was established as the fourth university in South Africa. Eight years later the Transvaal University College became the University of Pretoria.

The Brooks Commission of 1947 recommended that the constituent colleges of the University of South Africa should gradually move towards independence and this duly happened. The twin-campus, Natal University College became the University of Natal in 1949 with branches in Pietermaritzburg and Durban. In 1950, the University of the Orange Free State was established followed the next year by Rhodes University and the “Potchefstroomse Universiteit vir Christelike Hoër Onderwys”. In 1961, Rhodes University opened a branch in Port Elizabeth but in 1964 a separate university was established there, viz. the University of Port Elizabeth. After a fruitless attempt to expand the University of South Africa to include a residential university in Johannesburg, the Rand Afrikaans University was established in 1967 (Verster *et al.*, 1994).

After forty-five years of Apartheid rule, Nelson Mandela was appointed the new President of South Africa in 1994. In February 1995, President Nelson Mandela appointed a National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE), which submitted its Report, *A Framework for Transformation*, in August 1996. The National Commission of Higher Education believed that even though the previous higher education system had considerable capacity, was internationally recognised, and had acknowledged areas of excellence, it was also fundamentally flawed by inequities, imbalances and distortions deriving from its apartheid history and present structure (Bengu, 1996).

Several changes to the higher education structure were subsequently made. In the preceding apartheid years, South Africa constituted of thirty-six higher educational institutions. This number of higher educational institutions was dramatically reduced to twenty-one higher educational institutions. Of these twenty-one higher educational institutions, eleven are Universities, six are Technikons, four are Comprehensive Institutions and two are National Institutes for Higher Education (South African Government, 1996).

At the beginning of 2003, the higher educational landscape in South Africa transformed to the following:

Eastern Cape

- Port Elizabeth Technikon and The University of Port Elizabeth were merged, with the Port Elizabeth campus of Vista University incorporated into the merged institution.
- Border Technikon and Eastern Technikon were merged, sited in East London and Umtata. The infrastructure of The University of Transkei formed the core of the academic activities in Umtata of the new technikon.
- The University of Fort Hare was retained as a separate institution, incorporating the East London campus of Rhodes University and The Medical School of the University of Transkei remained in Umtata.
- Rhodes University was retained as a separate institution.

Free State

- Technikon Free State was retained as a separate institution, incorporating the Welkom campus of Vista University.
- The University of the Free State was retained as a separate institution, incorporating the Bloemfontein campus of Vista University and the Qwa Qwa campus of the University of the North.

Gauteng

- The Rand Afrikaans University and Technikon Witwatersrand were merged to form a comprehensive institution, incorporating the East Rand and Soweto campuses of Vista University.
- The University of Witwatersrand was retained as a separate institution.
- The University of Pretoria was retained as a separate institution, incorporating the Mamelodi campus of Vista University.
- Technikon Northern Gauteng, Technikon North-West and Technikon Pretoria were merged.
- The Vaal Triangle Technikon was retained as a separate institution, incorporating the infrastructure and facilities of the Sebokeng campus of Vista University.
- The students and staff of the Sebokeng campus of Vista University will be incorporated into the Vaal Triangle campus of the merged Potchefstroom University for Higher Christian Education and the University of the North-West.

KwaZulu-Natal

- Mangosuthu Technikon was merged with the new Durban Institute of Technology.
- The Umlazi campus of the University of Zululand was transferred to the merged technikon.
- The University of Durban-Westville and the University of Natal (including the Pietermaritzburg campus) were merged.

Northern Province

- The University of the North, University of Venda and Medical University of Southern Africa were merged.
- The Potchefstroom University for Higher Education and the University of the North-West were merged.
- The Vaal Triangle campus of Potchefstroom University was retained as part of the merged institution, incorporating the student and staff (but not the facilities of the Sebokeng campus of Vista University).

Western Province

- The University of the Western Cape was retained as a separate institution.
- The University of Cape Town was retained as a separate institution.
- The University of Stellenbosch was retained as a separate institution.
- The dentistry schools of the University of Western Cape and Stellenbosch were merged into a single school, and were relocated to the University of the Western Cape.
- The Cape Technikon and Peninsula Technikon were merged.

National Institutes for Higher Education in Mpumalanga and the Northern Cape

- National Institutes for Higher Education were established in Mpumalanga and the Northern Cape to serve as the administrative and governance hub for ensuring the coherent provision of higher educational programmes.

After the announced mergers, it became evident that historical names of some institutions of higher education will have to be changed to get rid of historical political baggage. Consultations on name changes took place during 2003 and further changes to the higher educational landscape in South Africa were announced:

- Technicons changed to “University of Technology” with new names;
- Merged institutions adopted new names such as:
 - University of Johannesburg (RAU and TWR)
 - Nelson Mandela University (UPE and PE Technikon)
 - University of North-West (PU for CHE and North-West University)

2.3. THE FUNCTION OF THE UNIVERSITY

“The victory over the apartheid state in 1994 set policy makers in all spheres of public life the mammoth task of overhauling the social, political, economic and cultural institutions of South Africa to bring them in line with the imperatives of a new democratic order. The vision for the transformation of the higher educational system was articulated in Education White Paper 3: A Programme for the Transformation of Higher Education (1997). Central to this vision was the establishment of a single, national co-ordinated system, that would meet the learning needs of our citizens and the reconstruction and development needs of our society and economy”, Asmal (2001: 2).

According to the Green Paper of Higher Education (Bengu, 1996), there are several main purposes of a university:

- To meet the learning needs and aspirations of individuals through the development of their intellectual abilities and aptitudes. Higher education equips individuals to make

the best use of their talents and of the opportunities offered by society for self-fulfilment. Higher education is thus a key allocator of life chances.

- Higher education provides the labour market, in a knowledge-driven and knowledge-dependent society, with the high-level competencies and expertise as necessary for the growth and prosperity of a modern economy. It teaches and trains people to fulfil specialised social functions, enter the learned professions, or pursue vocations in administration, trade, industry and the arts.
- Higher education is responsible for the socialisation of enlightened, responsible and constructive citizens. Citizenship of this nature presupposes a commitment to the common good, but it also implies a reflective capacity and a willingness to review and renew prevailing ideas, policies, and practises.
- Higher education is directly engaged in the creation, transmission and evaluation of knowledge. Its purpose is to ensure the continued pursuit of academic scholarship and intellectual inquiry in all fields of human understanding, through research and teaching.

The transformed South African Higher Education System does not only emphasise the acquisition of technical and academic knowledge but also the acquisition and transfer of social skills and the provision of community services. Harris (in McMahon-Beattie and Yeoman, 2003) agrees and suggests that Higher Education is no longer an environment where only educational development takes place but also an environment where social and personal development through sport and recreation programmes is evident. Students should be capacitated to adopt healthy lifestyles and higher education institutions should concern themselves with providing a supportive environment to enable students to gain knowledge and understanding, explore possibilities, experiment safely, make informed choices and discover their potential (Dooris, 2001). These objectives will only be achieved within a holistic framework where all programmes, departments or business units are perceived as an organisational whole. Sport and

Recreation departments within the organisational whole of higher educational institutions obviously have a significant part to play.

Thus far, the development and the function of a university have been analysed. Some historical aspects of recreation on the university campus will subsequently be analysed in order to ascertain the role that recreation plays at such an institution.

2.4. THE DEVELOPMENT OF RECREATION AT UNIVERSITIES

In looking at the development of recreation at universities, it is essential that one view several university recreation systems in order to acquire a broad perspective. For this reason, it is essential to view recreation in the medieval university context, followed by the American context, and finally the British situation, before analysing recreation service provision in the South African model.

2.4.1. Recreation in Medieval universities

“Despite much church disapproval, many forms of play continued during the Middle Ages” Kraus (1984: 65). Kraus (1984) continues by stating that the medieval society was marked by rigid class stratification: below the nobility and clergy were the peasants, and that life in the Middle Ages, even for the feudal nobility, was crude and harsh.

The favourite pastimes during the Middle Ages were hunting, hawking, gambling, music and dance, sport and jousting (Kraus, 1984). Mechikoff and Estes (2002) add to this list of favourite pastimes the rugged ball games. “Ball games that were popular during the Roman times continued to be popular during the Middle Ages and often took place on church land if a common area was not available” (Mechikoff & Estes, 2002: 94). As the favourite pastimes continued to be popular, both the ecclesiastical and the royal authority forbade most of these pastimes (Kraus, 1984).

Although the noble, the clergy and the peasants all enjoyed pastimes, it was very clear that no recreation or sport of any nature was catered for at the medieval universities. This was most probably because university regulations prescribed a certain asceticism which prohibited the lawful pleasures, and which by excessive restraint it put upon the craving for amusement which is natural to youth, provoked violent reactions. So for example, members of the universities were forbidden under penalty of expulsion, to dance anywhere except in their own houses (Verster *et al.*, 1994).

Although sport and recreation might not have been catered for at medieval universities, leisure and play are ancient ideas. Play and leisure were given a valuable position in the life of children, according to Plato and Aristotle. For both of these philosophers, play and leisure gave an opportunity to develop.

As life in the middle Ages became somewhat easier, an increasing amount of pastimes emerged. Many modern sports were developed at this time in rudimentary form (Mechikoff & Estes, 2002).

2.4.2. Recreation in American universities

The history of intramural sports in the United States is closely interwoven with the histories of physical education, recreation and varsity sports, and purely intramural history becomes much clearer after the 1850's. "History reveals that intramural sports are the oldest form of sports in the American school system" (Colgate, 1978: 3). Mitchell (1939) agrees with this by saying that the beginning of sport and recreation was of an intramural nature in the colleges in America.

Before 1700, students in American universities and colleges wanted to play, but because of many factors, were not allowed to do so. These so-called factors included the *puritan ethic* decreed that only work was good for the body and for God and that idleness was the devil's work. Early religious dogmas and educational systems were against play or any form of pastime and little free time was available because of the challenges of

nature and the settling of the American frontier (Hyatt, 1977). No provision was made for sport or recreation when the college educational system was first established. Rice (1929) agrees with the fact that during the colonial days the educational spirit and the religious beliefs were hostile to physical education and play. Rice (1929) further states that the chief concern of college students was gaining a liberal education or entry into the elite professions. Although the students began to take up sports and recreation, few thought of them as having any importance or educational value, a point of view that was prevalent until late in the nineteenth century.

A form of intramurals existed in Boston in 1701 when the city banned the playing of football, squibs, and the throwing of snowballs (Colgate, 1978). In 1743 Benjamin Franklin spoke out for the values of healthy living and recommended that schools have a *healthful situation* with gardens and fields, and a provision for students to engage in games, running, leaping, wrestling and swimming (Hyatt, 1977).

Indian wars and the economic status, location, and the religion of the individual affected the recreational pursuits of the early college students. According to Rudolph (1962: 516), students at Princeton in 1787 were forbidden to play shinny, a type of hockey, because the game was “in itself low and unbecoming of gentlemen and scholars, and is attended with greater danger to the health”.

Student life in early American colleges in the early 1800's provided opportunities for sports to develop on campuses, since many schools were founded during the westward movement and many colleges were established in rural areas so that sons could be safe from the sins of the cities or towns (Hyatt, 1977). One of the earliest accounts of unorganised intramural activity is regarded in 1807 when students from Yale University played football on the public greens in New Haven (Colgate, 1978). The first recorded organised intramural competition took place at Princeton University in 1857.

Recreation among students expanded, as higher educational institutions multiplied and the population in these institutions increased. The chaotic nature of these activities gradually gave way to better organised societies. Fraternities, dormitories and classes

started organising these recreation activities at universities, in other words students conducted their activities themselves. “In 1859, the Yale undergraduate body was divided into twelve intramural boating clubs of twenty men each. Baseball was organised as an intramural sport at Princeton in 1864. Field days for track and field activities were conducted on an intramural basis at Yale and Princeton about this time”, Tillman, Voltmer, Esslinger & McCue (1996: 287).

Something that had to be tolerated and at times even restricted, was the fact that student athletic sports was often regarded as a *necessary evil* by most colleges. When the inter-collegiate contests began to flourish, the authorities were compelled to take charge and promote them or to abolish them (Rice, 1929). Intramural activities were more or less shunted into the background when colleges accepted the idea of a programme of varsity sports (Beeman & Humphrey, 1960).

In the late nineteenth century, a new emphasis on the intramural approach began when class organisations and fraternities assumed leadership in conducting games for those students who were not on varsity teams. College teachers of physical education saw that the introduction of a competitive element might increase interest in their work (Brubacher & Rudy, 1958). Coaches of varsity teams also believed that better varsity material could be developed from the intramural teams. Educators were becoming aware that “all students should be given recreational opportunities and that organised competitive activities should not be limited to the skilful few” (Beeman & Humphrey, 1960: 1).

The University of Michigan and The Ohio State University led the way in 1913 by appointing intramural directors to administer the programme (Beeman & Humphrey, 1960). Other schools followed this lead among which were Illinois, Oregon State and Texas in 1916. Kansas started its intramural programme in 1921. Oklahoma University in 1925, and the University of West Virginia in 1928 (Means, 1963).

According to Tillman *et al.* (1996: 287), World War I and World War II exerted a “profound effect on college and university intramural programs. The war clearly demonstrated the value of sports, and a general conviction prevailed that intramurals must be made available to all who were unable to make the institutional varsity teams”. More intramural programmes were provided to more students. Mainly including additional activities expanded the intramural programmes.

Women did not experience the same rapid growth as that of men’s intramural programmes, even though many women supported intramural programmes rather than varsity competition. It was not until the 1960’s that expanded intramural opportunities became available for girls and women of all educational levels (Tillman *et al.*, 1996).

Due to the popular demand of campus recreation / intramural programmes, separate facilities from the university athletics had to be built. It was time to realise that campus recreation and athletics or physical education were entirely different. In the 1950’s, the first National Intramural Association (NIA) was founded in America. Today it is known as the National Intramural Recreation Sports Association (NIRSA) (Parks *et al.*, 1998). Intramurals initially took the form of athletic competition. In the early years of intramurals, the programmes were called intramural athletics. This term is no longer appropriate and the term campus recreation or intramural activities more accurately describe the type of programme that has developed in the American tertiary institutions.

The modern intramural movement has grown from meagre beginnings into a prominent recreational programme in many colleges and universities. From the limited objectives of physical exercise and competition, the intramural philosophy now includes objectives, which contribute to many goals of higher education, and recognises the worth of the individual as a maturing and contributing member of a democratic society (Stewart, 2000).

The intramural recreation programme of today considers and provides for individual differences and interests. It offers facilities, activities, and leadership opportunities for all students in a wide range of activities made available for student selection.

2.4.3. Recreation in British universities

According to Parks *et al.* (1998) it all started with the English in the 19th century who liked participating in sports clubs back then. Students not only organised everything, but also helped financing the development of these recreation programmes. The most common forms of recreation activities existing in England then were class competitions (e.g. first years versus third years) and inter-school competitions. The interest in the recreation programmes grew so dramatically that not only were coaches appointed to allow students specialising in certain sports, but also control began to be exerted in the form of centralised authorities. England followed America's example and founded the first department of intramural athletics in 1913.

In 1918, a Conference of Presidents of University Unions was convened at Manchester to discuss the need for some form of Association to promote the development of sport within Universities. An Association emerged, the "*Inter-Varsity Board of England and Wales*". Nine institutions attended the first event, which was an *Inter-Varsity Athletic meeting* organised by Aberystwyth on 28 July 1919. During these early years, there were no corresponding organisations in Scotland or Ireland (Parks *et al.*, 1998). In 1922 Association Football, Hockey, Rugby Union and Swimming were added to the events programme. In November 1923, the Women's Inter-Varsity Board (WIVAB) was established to cater for the needs of female students.

In 1930 following much discussion, the name of the organisation changed to *The Universities Athletic Union*. In the first few years, universities carried out the administration in rotation, but in 1927, the University of London offered to provide accommodation for the Board's headquarters and this was gratefully accepted. In 1931,

the Union was able to have Headquarters Offices of its own and appointed its first Secretary (British Universities Sport Association, 2003).

Concerning the management of British University sport and recreation today, one finds that the representations of the British Universities Sports Federation have an important voice in the government of sport and recreation in their country. Having been founded in 1962, this Federation is responsible for arranging official British University Championships and to select representative teams for international student matches and the World Student Games.

Despite having several governing bodies, University sport and recreation in Britain is a part-time, all amateur business, at least compared with American University sport and recreation. Even so, there are a number of universities and colleges in Britain, such as the Loughborough College, Oxford and Cambridge University, delivering high quality sport and recreation.

2.4.4. Recreation in South African universities

Recreation, in one form or another, has always traditionally been part of the university set-up, since the establishment of the earliest Universities in South Africa. It has been established that the game of rugby was already played sporadically at the gymnasium (later to be renamed Stellenbosch University) in Stellenbosch in 1866. When the University College of Natal was established in 1910 in Pietermaritzburg, rugby, cricket, athletics, tennis and soccer clubs were entered in the local league (Tempelhoff, 1983).

2.4.4.1. The South African Student Sports Union

The South African Student Sports Union (SASSU) was established on 16 April 1994 in Port Elizabeth. Today the South African Student Sports Union is considered as the official unified national umbrella sports structure for the co-ordination and promotion of all student sport and recreation activities organised at regional, provincial and national

levels in the tertiary educational sector of South Africa (National Department of Sport and Recreation, 1995; National Department of Sport and Recreation 1998). “SASSU was founded within the tertiary educational sector in order to represent and protect the sporting interests of all students at member institutions based on the principles of unity, accountability, non-racialism, non-sexism and democracy. SASSU programmes are aimed at promoting sport and recreation values and encouraging sport and recreation practise in harmony with, and complementary to, the academic character of tertiary educational institutions” (South African Student Sports Union, 2000: 1).

The South African Student Sports Union associates and liaises with the following national sport and recreation structures:

➤ **The South African Sports Commission (SASC)**

The South African Sports Commission (SASC) was formed in 1999 out of the amalgamation of part of the Department of Sport and Recreation (currently Sport and Recreation South Africa) and the National Sports Council, which was subsequently disbanded. It is a legislated body governed by the South African Sports Commission Act of 1998, which sets out its duties, powers and obligations (South African Sports Commission, 2003).

The South African Sports Commission has four strategic thrusts that guide its work:

- Manage, promote, and co-ordinate the provision of sport and recreation.
 - Develop and implement a national sports plan and ensure that accessible facilities, competition and club infrastructure exist, and are professionally managed.
 - Improve the quality of international sports events that are hosted by South Africa.

- Ensure participation in international events
 - Identify talented athletes to ensure that South African teams are fully representative.
 - Provide access to scientific support, training, life-skills development services, coaching as well as ensuring a supportive social environment in order to increase the number of medals and test matches won by South Africa.

- Ensure the provision of resources
 - To provide information, financial and logistical resources for the development of athletes.

- Policy development and implementation

The South African Sports Commission plays a supportive rather than regulatory role in sport in South Africa. Its services and products are geared to make sport and recreation in South Africa available to everyone.

➤ **Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA)**

Sport and Recreation South Africa has set the following objectives for itself, which are manifested in the White Paper. The White Paper of Sport and Recreation South Africa (National Department of Sport and Recreation, 2003) states that the recognised co-ordinating body for the organisation of sport at tertiary educational level is the South African Student Sports Union (SASSU).

The South African Student Sports Union's (SASSU) vision is to provide opportunities for excellence in student sport in order to participate and / or compete at all levels. The South African Student Sports Union's mission is to create an environment, which will encourage student sports persons to strive for excellence on an academic and sports level, while giving participants the opportunity to interact socially and competitively. South African Student Sports Union's core business is to ensure

maximum participation in student sport and recreation. Therefore, the South African Student Sports Union's fundamental goal is the development and promotion of sport and recreation at all tertiary educational institutions. Although SASSU's mission refers to maximum participation in student sport and recreation, little to no evidence on promoting recreation is visible in SASSU's service provision.

SASSU's main functions include the following:

- Implementation of government policy on sport and recreation at tertiary education level.
- Its core business involves sharing of its specialised resources (both human and infrastructural) with the community, maximising participation and co-ordinating intra- and inter- institutional competitions.
- Making representations to macro bodies and relevant government departments with respect to tertiary sport.
- Liaising with national and provincial federations with respect to tertiary sport.
- Liaising with its international parent body, the International University Sport Federation (FISU).
- Facilitating South African's participation at international tertiary educational institution sports events.

Other goals and objectives are the following:

- To uphold and promote its founding principles through organisational structures as may evolve through the continuing interaction of its members;

- To facilitate and co-ordinate the development of sport, physical recreational activities and sports competition amongst its members at all levels;
- To implement government policy on sport and recreation at tertiary level;
- To make representations to the macro sports bodies and relevant government departments, with respect to tertiary sport;
- To liaise with national and provincial federations with respect to tertiary sport;
- To affiliate to the International University Sports Federation (FISU) as well as the appropriate continental and national sports structure(s), and to participate in international and continental sports events, endorsed by the above-mentioned structures;
- To co-operate with FISU in the fulfilment of their objectives and accept to respect the statutes and regulations of FISU;
- To consolidate all student sport associations under one student sport organisation;
- To facilitate the formation of sport associations where these do not exist;
- To raise and administer funds of SASSU in such a manner as SASSU may deem advisable and, in particular, by means of subscription, donations and sponsorships;
- To regulate, facilitate and co-ordinate events and matches of any student teams to and from South Africa;

- To share its specialised resources (both human and infra-structural) with the community, maximise participation and co-ordinate intra- and inter-institutional competitions;
- To establish rules and regulations to ensure that all members abide by the Constitution of SASSU.

➤ **SPORTS OFFICES**

During the course of the past decades, there has been an explosion of sport and recreation clubs on university campuses. While some smaller universities have over twenty clubs, the University of Cape Town boasts forty-two different sport and recreation clubs on its campus. To assist the students in administering their recreation and sports effectively, sport and recreation offices or bureaux staffed by professionally trained officers have been created.

From the above historical survey, sufficient evidence has been supplied to indicate that recreation has a significant place on a university campus. This is no doubt indicative that recreation must have some value in universities. In this regard, it is worthwhile to look at recreation participation in today's universities, internationally and nationally.

2.5. RECREATION IN TODAY'S UNIVERSITIES

In looking at the recreation participation in today's universities, it is essential to view several university sport and recreation systems in order to acquire a broad perspective. Personal and direct requests for information on campus recreation policies at South African universities yielded limited results. This created the impression that there are no formal written policies in this regard. However, Internet searches provided access to the South African universities. These searches also reflected broad guidelines that identified various Universities in America, in Europe and in Australia as the international leaders concerning campus recreation. For this reason it was thought essential to analyse the

recreation provision of selected American universities, followed by European universities, and finally Australian universities, before analysing recreation provision in South African Universities.

2.5.1. Recreation in American universities

The provision structures of three American universities will be discussed.

2.5.1.1. Pennsylvania State University (Pennsylvania State University, 2004)

➤ **Mission statement:**

The recreational sports programme is dedicated to providing the University community, the opportunity to participate in recreation, sports and fitness activities with the emphasis on fair play, healthy living and development of proper social skills.

➤ **Objectives:**

- To make recreational opportunities available to the University population.
- To encourage involvement in Recreational Sports as a supplement to the academic experience.
- To ensure diverse offerings which adapt to the needs of the participants.
- To instil principles of leadership, fair play, sportsmanship and teamwork.
- To promote patterns of behaviour that lead to a healthy lifestyle.
- To ensure the opportunity for self-directed recreation.
- To encourage advanced levels of participation through sports clubs.

- To provide employment opportunities and leadership development for students.
- To provide an environment which fosters acceptance of and respect for all members of a diverse university community.

➤ **Goals:**

It is the goal of the Recreational Sports Programme to provide an all-encompassing campus recreation programme in a modern recreation facility. This programme will include proper professional staffing, graduate assistant staffing and diverse programme offerings, which are supported by a common recreation fee. Additional funding will be through special fees paid by non-students, including faculty and staff user fees and facility rental fees.

➤ **Additional goals include the following:**

- Utilise modern technology in Recreational Sports to encourage involvement as a supplement to the academic experience. This would include on-line registration, facility reservations and league scheduling. This would also include restricted facility access, website enhancement, satellite offices, on-field participation verification, and expanded equipment issue.
- Survey students to provide direction on current and future programme offerings. Appoint a student advocacy group to represent Recreational Sports' concerns.
- Provide students with direction and support in developing leadership skills, through fair play and good sportsmanship.
- Maintain safety standards within recreational facilities, including controlled access buildings, security personnel, proper ventilation, secure and convenient storage locations.

- Modify and expand group exercise programmes and facilities. Develop additional classroom, office and media viewing areas to maintain the highest level of training and development of instructors.
- Co-ordinate scheduling of facilities, which provide opportunities for those participants interested in open recreational activities.
- Utilise students in a work setting that includes scheduling of activities, supervision of events, sports officiating, facility reservation, event management, judicial decisions and instruction.

➤ **Administration:**

- Only students run, organise and administer the recreation programmes of the approximately 50 clubs ranging from swimming, tennis and basketball as well as “punt, pass & kick” and “flag football”.
- An inclusive recreation fee is payable every year by the recreation programme members. Additional funding will be through special fees paid by non-students, including faculty and staff user fees and facility rental.

2.5.1.2. University of Chicago (University of Chicago, 2004)

➤ **Mission statement:**

The Campus Sports and Intramural office is committed to offering sports activities to meet students, faculty, staff, alumni and spouses the required recreational, educational and social needs. The Sport Club programme is designed to serve individuals interest in sport and recreation activities organised and administered by the club members through their elected officers.

➤ **Goals:**

The University of Chicago recognises that the goals of the sport and recreation programmes are:

- To introduce students, faculty, staff, alumni and their spouses to new activities.
- To continue and enhance skills.
- To develop student leadership.
- To provide opportunities for students, faculty, staff, alumni and their spouses to develop positive interpersonal relationships.
- To promote an appreciation for diversity.

➤ **Recreation, Entertainment and Arts offered by the University of Chicago:**

Many recreational facilities are available on the grounds of the Orthogenic School. The University of Chicago and the metropolitan area offer an even broader variety of activities. Recreational activities are designed to suit students' interests and capacities. Supervision, instruction and guidance are provided as necessary. Active and enriching pastimes are preferred to sedentary ones. Numerous after-school activities have been designed and implemented at the Sonia Shankman Orthogenic School. These include a drama programme offered by the Free State Theatre, a dance therapy programme offered through Columbia College, and a horticulture therapy programme offered by the Chicago Botanical Garden. Additionally, the school offers a wide range of activities through its Arts Education Programme. These include a puppetry workshop, ceramics studio, oil painting classes, music and photography workshops. The students have successfully written and presented their own plays and dance performances. During the summer months, students at the school design, plant, and maintain gardens on the grounds of the school and

elsewhere on campus, receiving a number of awards from local gardening associations for their quality and creativity.

➤ **Administration:**

The 38 different recreation and sport clubs ranging from aikido and basketball to drama and photography. These clubs are driven by student members and are supervised by the University for the benefit of these students.

2.5.1.3. Clark University (Clark University, 2004)

➤ **Mission statement:**

To give students the opportunity to compete and have fun without the demands of varsity athletics; and to serve individual interests in different athletic.

➤ **Administration:**

- Recreation and club sport is a student organisation, responsible for their own expenses, hiring of coaches and providing adequate emergency resources. Each of the 38 different recreation and sports programmes are initiated and administered by student officers. These sport and recreation programmes range from ice hockey and snowboarding to lacrosse and outing clubs.

- Intramural Board: consists of students and directors.

2.5.2. Recreation in European universities

Four universities were selected to present an overview on the current sport and recreation system in Europe.

2.5.2.1. Oxford University (Britain) (Oxford University, 2004)

➤ **Facilities:**

Because Oxford is not a typical university with one main campus, but rather an institution with several campuses and colleges, Oxford has a large amount and variety of indoor and outdoor facilities. To cover an extensive range of sport and recreation, Oxford colleges club together to share amenities such as playing fields. About 200 recreation clubs (ranging from frisbee to drama and music) and 30 sport clubs (ranging from athletics to tennis) exist at Oxford University.

➤ **Administration:**

- Sport: a Sports Strategy Committee is responsible for overseeing sport within the university, while a Sports Federation co-ordinates practical support.

- Recreation: The university is hugely responsible for:
 - Several major museums
 - Exhibition rooms
 - The University Parks
 - The Oxford Botanical Garden

2.5.2.2. Loughborough University (Britain) (Loughborough University, 2004)

➤ **Aims and objectives:**

To teach and promote various sport and recreation activities for recreation and at competition level.

➤ **Administration:**

- Loughborough Students' Athletic Union Executive Committee is responsible for the overall sport and recreation programmes. However, all of the 26 different activities (ranging from athletics and water polo to tug-of-war and darts) presented

by the Loughborough University, be it for recreation purposes or for sport purposes, are administered by their own individual club committees.

- The student members of the Loughborough Students' Athletic Union pay an annual subscription fee.

2.5.2.3. Hamburg University (Germany) (University of Hamburg, 2004)

➤ Facilities:

Because Hamburg University is not a typical university with one main campus, but rather an institution with several campuses and colleges, Hamburg University has a large amount and variety of indoor and outdoor facilities. To cover an extensive range of sports and recreation (38 different recreation and sports programmes), Hamburg campuses club together to share amenities such as playing fields.

➤ Administration:

- Sport: "Hamburger Sportbund" is responsible for overseeing sport within the university, while a Sports Federation co-ordinates practical support. These sport clubs range from aerobic-step-mix to volleyball.
- Recreation clubs range from yoga to travelling. The university is hugely responsible for:
 - Several major museums
 - Exhibition rooms
 - The University Parks

2.5.2.4. Heidelberg University (Germany) (University of Heidelberg, 2004)

➤ Facilities:

Because Heidelberg University is not a typical university with one main campus, but rather an institution with several campuses and colleges, Heidelberg University has a

large amount and variety of indoor and outdoor facilities. To cover an extensive range of sport and recreation, Heidelberg campuses club together to share amenities such as playing fields.

➤ **Administration:**

- The student members of the University of Heidelberg pay an annual subscription fee of 5 EURO.

- Sport: “Allgemeiner Hochschulsport“ is responsible for overseeing the 23 different sport and recreation programmes within the university, while a Sports Federation co-ordinates practical support. The sport clubs range from boxing to swimming.

- Recreation clubs range from dancing to photography. The university is hugely responsible for:
 - Several major museums
 - Exhibition rooms
 - The University Parks

2.5.3. Recreation in Australian universities

The recreation provision structure of the Australian National University is presented in the following paragraphs.

2.5.3.1. Australian National University (Australian National University, 2004)

➤ **Objectives:**

The objectives of the Australian National University Sport and Recreation Association Incorporated are:

- To promote amateur sporting and physical recreation among members; and

- For that purpose, to encourage and assist in the formation among members of sporting and physical recreation clubs and to support and co-ordinate the activities of clubs so formed.

➤ **Administration:**

- The management and control of the 32 different recreation and sports programmes (ranging from badminton and soccer to caving and mountaineering) of the Sport and Recreation Association is vested in the Sport and Recreation Council. The financial ordinary (full) members of the Sport and Recreation Association elect nine members each year. Nominations for the Sport and Recreation Council are sought in the early part of each academic year, with elections held in the first term of each academic year. Three positions on the Council are nominated by the Students' Association, the Post Graduate Association and the University Council respectively. The other position (non-voting) is that of the Executive Officer, who is responsible for the day-to-day administration of the affairs of the Sport and Recreation Association.
- A membership fee of A\$4 is payable every year by ordinary members of the Association that are not students, by associate members and by valued club affiliate members.

2.5.4. Recreation in South African universities

The recreation provision structures of six South African universities are presented to provide an overview from a South African perspective.

2.5.4.1. University of the Free State (University of the Free State, 2004)

➤ **Mission:**

Although Koviesport does not state a clear mission, they believe that sport and recreation are one of the cornerstones of the process of shaping the students. To

achieve this, 29 different sport and recreation programmes are available to students. These sport and recreation programmes include cricket and rugby as well as chess and cycling.

➤ **KovsieSport offers:**

- The best coaching
- The best facilities
- Opportunities for competition at the highest level
- Recreational opportunities including a gymnasium

➤ **Motto:**

“Participate, become involved, be part of Kovsieland and experience the fun of being a student. Make use of the opportunities that come your way in order to become a fully balanced person” (University of the Free State, 2004).

2.5.4.2. University of Kwa-Zulu Natal (University of Kwa-Zulu Natal, 2004)

The University of Kwa-Zulu Natal offers students the choice of five campuses: Edgewood Campus, Howard College, Medical School, Pietermaritzburg and Westville. Thirty-five (35) different sport and recreation programmes, ranging from swimming and gymnastics to parachuting and water-skiing, are spread over the five campuses.

➤ **Administration:**

- Sport and Recreation is administered by a Sport Administration / Office in each Centre. The staff consists of a Head of Administration, three sports officers and two secretarial staff members.

- The policy-making bodies are UND-Sport in Durban and the Sports Union in Pietermaritzburg, both of which are student led and controlled.

2.5.4.3. University of Port Elizabeth (University of Port Elizabeth, 2004)

➤ **Mission:**

- To serve the University community (students and staff) in respect of all their sport and recreation needs through 25 different recreation and sport programmes, including squash, basketball and weightlifting.
- To create opportunities for participation in prestige sporting events by sportsmen and sportswomen to reflect the image of the University at regional and national level.
- To promote and become involved in community outreach programmes.

2.5.4.4. University of Stellenbosch (University of Stellenbosch, 2004)

➤ **Mission:**

To meet students and staff needs in respect of sport and recreation through the 32 different recreation and sports programmes at a variety of indoor and outdoor facilities. These recreation and sport programmes range from athletics and tennis to surfing and rock climbing.

2.5.4.5. Rhodes University (Rhodes University, 2004)

➤ **Overview:**

Rhodes University has a large number of active sports club to choose from. The wide range of activities (29 different recreation and sport programmes, ranging from rowing and cricket to sailing and archery) is well supported by excellent, competitive,

and recreational facilities and equipment, and students are able to experience and participate in pursuits not offered at school. Involvement in sport and recreation at Rhodes holds the promise of opportunity, achievement, enjoyment, the establishment of life-long friendships and above all, a well-rounded university experience.

➤ **Administration:**

All students are automatically members of the Sports Council, and as such are entitled to make use of the excellent facilities provided.

2.5.4.6. University of Cape Town (University of Cape Town, 2004)

➤ **Overview:**

The Sports and Recreation Department provides for all levels of competition from purely social and intra-mural programmes through to high performance sport by means of 42 different recreation and sports programmes. These programmes range from athletics and swimming to skydiving and wine tasting.

2.5.5. Comparative analysis

From the preceding broad overview of recreation provision at universities, a number of similarities and differences emerge. A comparison between providing structures is presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1. Comparison of the national and international university sport and recreation systems.

Similarities	Unique differences
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Recreation provision is a recognised part of University's product range offered to students as part of a well-rounded university experience. ➤ Universities offer a wide spectrum of activities. ➤ Universities have a wide spectrum of facilities available. ➤ Students have a strong input in managing recreation and sport structures on campus. ➤ Specific fee charged for the service. ➤ Recreation service provision available to all enrolled students. ➤ Attempts to provide strategic direction to recreation service provision in the form of mission statement, goals and objectives. 	<p>South Africa:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Universities tend to narrow down recreation provision to physical recreation or recreation sport. ➤ Full-time staff members are primarily responsible for managing recreation provision. <p>America:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Universities focus on social skills development and recognition of diversity. ➤ Regular surveys to determine preferences and meet demands are implemented. ➤ Product range is designed around individual interests of students. ➤ Access to facilities and activities is extended to alumni and only enrolled students. ➤ Students are primarily responsible for managing recreation provision.

Universities recognise recreation provision on campus as an essential element in a balanced student life. As such, recreation provision obviously has some value to a university student.

2.6. RECREATION VALUES AND THE UNIVERSITY STUDENT

The programme for the transformation of higher education (South African Government, 2002) acknowledges that universities as institutions of higher learning should not only place emphasis on the acquisition of technological knowledge but also on the acquisition and transfer of social skills and the provision of community services. Community services offered by tertiary institutions include sport and recreation programmes. The place of recreation and sport programmes in the transformation process of the higher

educational system is therefore justified from a perspective of support services through the provision of skills development and knowledge building programmes, as well as the employment opportunities it creates to facilitate these campus recreation programmes as an integral part of the transformation and restructuring of higher education (Le Grange, 2002). In addition to the above argument, Hyde-Clarke Humphries (2000) speculated that as long as the changing South African business environment recognises higher education as an essential building block to the empowerment of human resources, tertiary institutions must provide opportunities for previously disadvantaged groups to have access to social and academic development. Campus recreation as a contributing vehicle for social development therefore has the potential to add value directly to human resources as well as indirectly to the betterment of the South African society at large. Although it becomes clear that campus recreation programmes could add value to student life at a university, there are arguments for and against campus recreation.

Van Wyk (2004) states that sport (as element of campus recreation) forms a significant component of tertiary education. It is imperative to deliver a balanced student to society and that requires more than mere academic training. Campus recreation programmes represent an important instrument in fostering healthy lifestyles as well as building insight and understanding amongst a growing diverse student population – all desired social skills in the current South African society.

According to Wuest & Bucher (1995), educational objectives are classified into three domains or areas of behaviour: cognitive (thinking), affective (feeling), and psychomotor (doing). “The cognitive is concerned with the acquisition of knowledge and its application. The affective domain includes the promotion of values and social and emotional development. The psychomotor domain involves the development of motor skills and physical fitness”, Wuest & Bucher (1995: 67). Participating in recreation programmes can undoubtedly contribute to learning in each of these three domains.

Recreation programmes contribute to the development of critical thinking skills, including both the higher and the lower orders within the taxonomy. “The performance of motor

skills can be viewed as an information processing task”, Wuest & Bucher (1995: 71). For a student to be able to perform a skill involves analysing the movements, comparing and contrasting the performance to a reference model, sequencing the movement correctly, evaluating the effectiveness of the attempt, and integrating the information with other information to modify future movements to enhance success. This means that for a student to perform any skill involves cognitive involvement. Another way of increasing the cognitive involvement is for the student to self-analyse his/her current level of competency, identify areas of improvement, apply the knowledge to design an individualised recreation programme, evaluating and making adjustments when necessary. Wuest & Bucher (1995) are convinced that these cognitive actions in a recreation setting provide students with skills to modify their future adult life programmes as need arises.

In addition, sport and recreation programmes also contribute to the cognitive development of students by increasing the knowledge of the human body, exercise, disease and health; increasing the student's understanding of sport and recreation, a major institution in our society and in many other cultures throughout the world. Sport and recreation clearly affect a country's economy, politics, government, educational systems, newspapers, magazines, radio and television and students should be informed of that. Sport and recreation programmes also help students become wise consumers of goods and services that influence not only their health and fitness, but also their total life.

Wuest & Bucher (1995: 72) define the affective domain as, “the development of values as well as social and emotional outcomes”. Recreation programmes undoubtedly contribute to this domain in many ways: institutionalising values such as respect for others, commitment, loyalty, self-discipline, honesty and responsibility; enhancing of self-esteem, co-operation, leadership and emotional control; developing ethics, aesthetics and morals and contributing to social development, by means of interaction and working together as a team or group.

The psychomotor development of the individual is an important contribution of physical campus recreation programmes. Psychomotor development is concerned with two primary objectives: development of physical fitness and the development of motor skills. The promotion of fitness as well as the skills and knowledge to maintain it throughout one's lifetime are important contributions from recreation programmes as educational goals. Physical recreation programmes also contribute to the students' attainment of educational goals. This implies that students, who are physically fit, have increased vitality and vigour, which will aid them in completing their work.

According to Wuest & Bucher (1995), students participate in sport on a tertiary institutional level, mainly for two reasons: for fun and enjoyment and for competitive reasons. Intercollegiate sport and recreation programmes (sport and recreation activities in any tertiary institution) today are as different as the higher educational institutions of which they are a part. Sports and recreation programmes range from the lowest level to major competitive programmes. On the lowest level of competition, students merely participate in campus recreation activities for fun and enjoyment.

According to Cordes & Ibrahim (2003), students spend about 60% of their time on essential activities such as school, personal care, and employment with the remaining 40% available for discretionary activities.

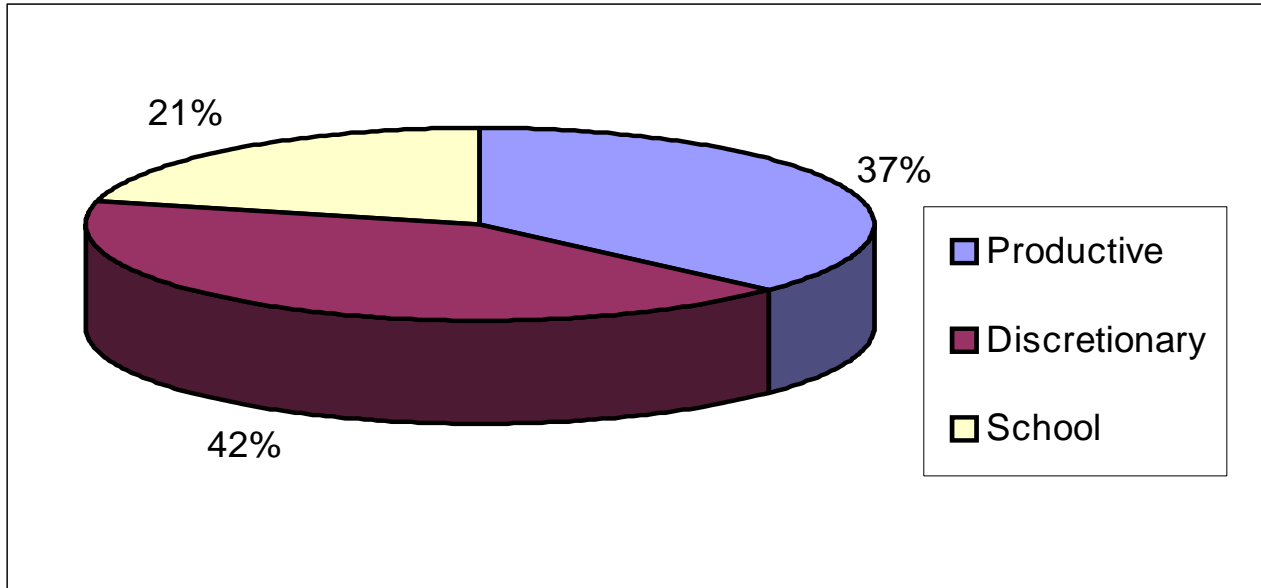


Figure. 2.1. Waking hours of students

(Cordes & Ibrahim, 2003: 86)

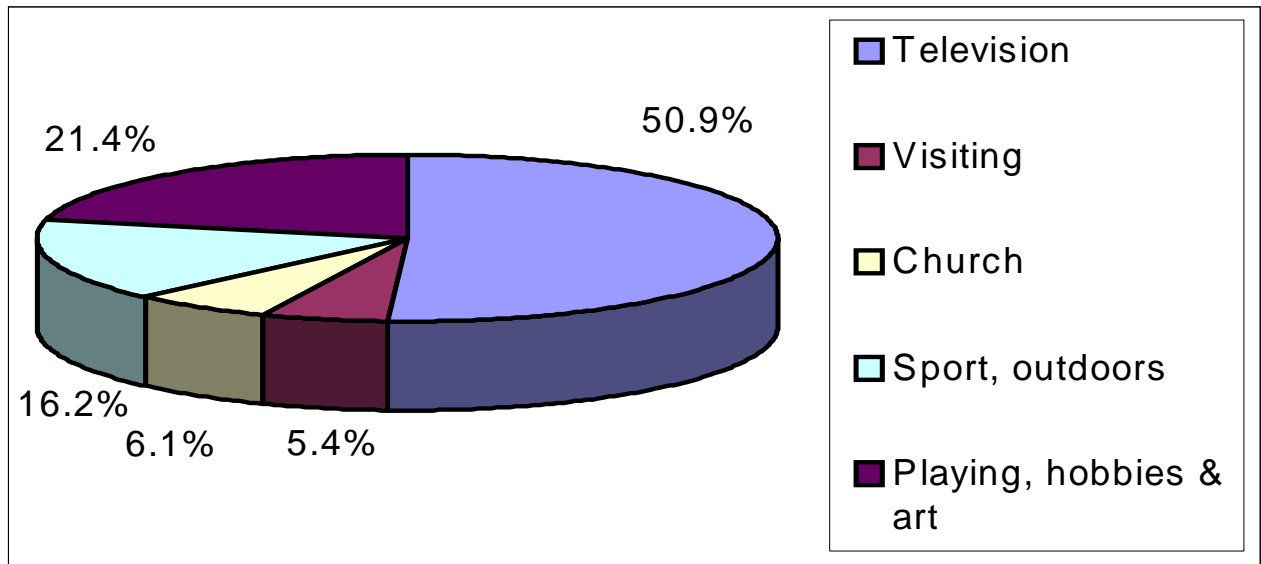


Figure 2.2. Discretionary detail of students

(Cordes & Ibrahim, 2003: 86)

Cordes & Ibrahim (2003) suggest that a way of utilising the discretionary time is by means of recreation programmes. Some form of recreation programmes serving many students in tertiary institutions consists of campus recreation. Campus recreation

includes games and sports, social and creative activities, clubs, outings and cultural programmes sponsored or conducted under the general supervision of college and university administrators. They are of the opinion that these programmes have expanded slowly in the last couple of years, while many departments of student life or campus recreation operating huge student unions, physical recreation centres, and similar facilities.

Coakley (2001) presents several arguments in favour of campus recreation programmes:

- A recreation and sport programme involves students in activities and thereby increases the interest in academic activities.
- Recreation and sport programmes build the student's self-esteem, responsibility, achievement orientation, and teamwork skills, which is required for occupational success.
- Recreation and sport programmes provide fitness training and stimulate interest in physical activities among all students in the school.
- Recreation and sport programmes generate the spirit and unity necessary to maintain the school as a viable organisation.
- Recreation and sport programmes promote parental, alumni, and community support for all school programmes.
- Recreation and sport programmes give students opportunities to develop and display skills in activities valued in the society and to receive rewards for their athletic skills.
- Recreation and sport programmes promote the corporate spirit of the University.

- Universities compete against each other for the students, and reputable sports programmes help to generate applications for admission – therefore, recreation and sport programmes serve as *an advertising vehicle* for universities.

- Recreation and sport programmes positively affect university budgets in the following ways:
 - Increased donations to the university endowment.

 - Increased publicity, which in turn increases students' applications, which in turn raise the academic qualifications of the students' body, which in turn make the university a better academic institution.

Bovaird, Nichols and Taylor, 1997 (in Collins & Kay, 2003) are convinced that campus recreation programmes yield positive social and economic benefits to universities. The intricate relationship between recreation and sport programmes on university campuses are presented in figure 2.3.

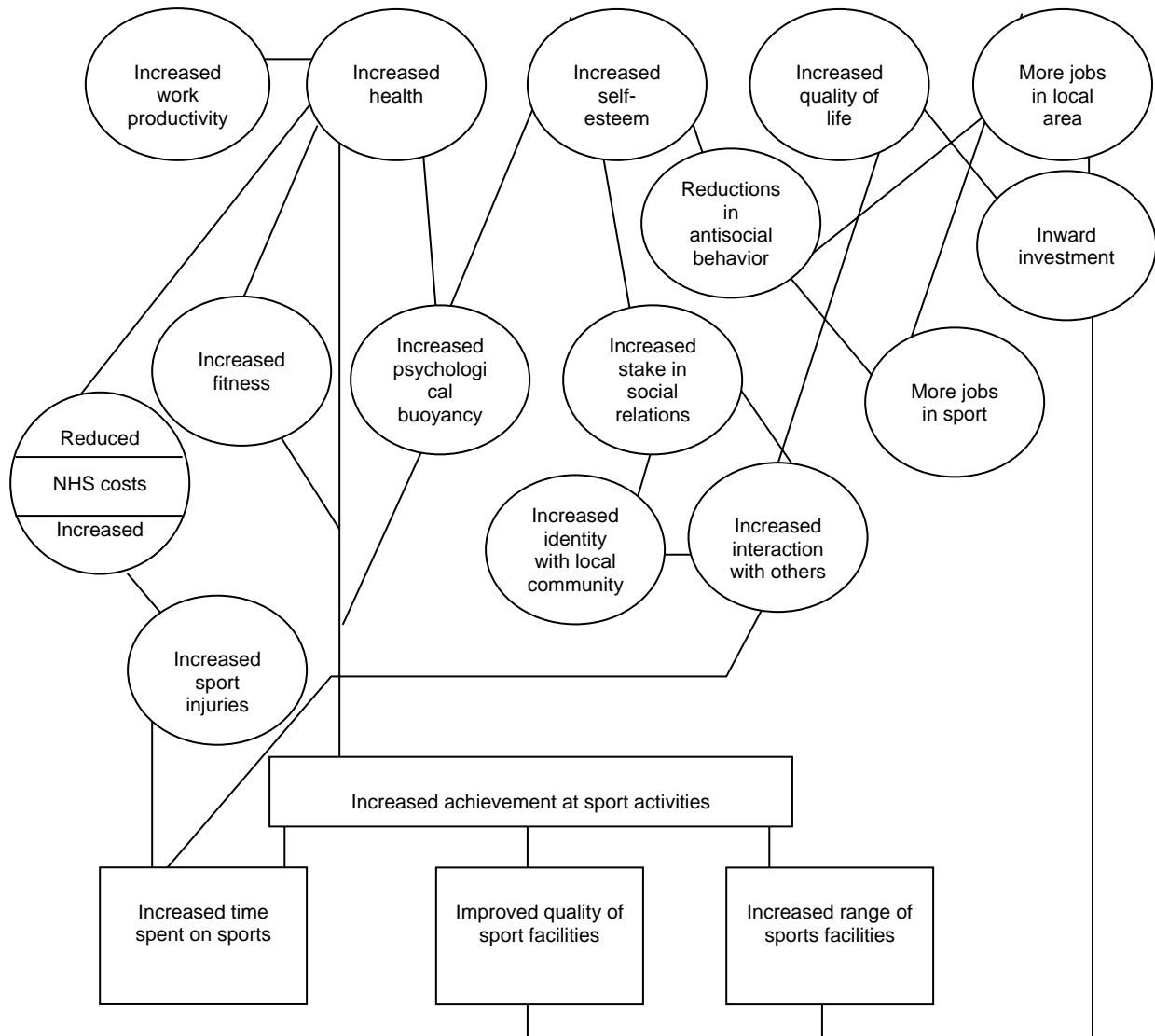


Figure. 2.3. Model of relationships between sport and recreation and the social and economic benefits

(Collins & Kay, 2003: 30)

The relationship of recreation activities (leisure activities) to stress and anxiety in academic settings has been analysed by a number of researchers. Ragheb & Mckinney (1993) postulate that there is evidence that perceived academic stress relates to anxiety and depression of college students. Although leisure participation and satisfaction

showed negative associations with lower levels of anxiety in non-academic settings, there has been little research testing of some of the specific relationships among leisure domains (i.e. motivation, constraints, attitude, locus of control and satisfaction) and perceived academic stress.

Pickens & Kiess (1988) observed that assigning leisure reading to children could reduce academic stress. Ragheb & McKinney (1993) reacted on the research of Pickens & Kiess (1988) and argued that they did not address the relationship between leisure participation and satisfaction directly, as only reading as a single leisure choice was included. Their investigation attempted to fill this gap. Ragheb & McKinney (1993: 8) consequently concluded that the lower the leisure satisfaction and participation, the greater the levels of anxiety in a non-academic situation. Students who reported high stress levels scored low on leisure attitude and reached the overall conclusion that leisure participation and satisfaction were negatively but weakly related to perceived academic stress.

Divergent opinions exist on the effect of recreation participation on academic achievement varying from positive correlation between participation and academic achievement to a position of insignificant correlation. However, nowhere in any particular study, has there been evidence of negative correlation. The fact that there is no scientific evidence that recreation and sport participation negatively affects academic achievement should strengthen the merits of recreation and sport as a university activity.

It seems as if the goals of campus recreation, namely, to provide satisfying and enriching leisure programmes, support and extend the academic function of the University by offering opportunities for a wide range of experiences linked to academic subjects. Beyond this, campus recreation serves to keep the institution's spirit and moral high, and to enhance its image in terms of recruitment appeal to potential students.

Coakley (2001) however also presents arguments against the inclusion of campus recreation in an academic setting:

Arguments against:

- Recreation and sport programmes distract students' attention from academic activities.
- Recreation and sport programmes perpetuate dependence, conformity and a performance orientation that is no longer appropriate in a post-industrial society.
- Recreation and sport programmes turn most students into spectators and cause too many serious injuries to student-athletes.
- Recreation and sport programmes create a superficial, transitory spirit, which has nothing to do with educational goals.
- Recreation and sport programmes deprive educational programmes of resources, facilities, staff and community support.
- Recreation and sport programmes create strong pressure on student-athletes and support a hierarchical status system in which athletes are given excessive privilege, which may be used to assert dominance over other students.
- Maintaining a recreation programme is expensive.
- Recreation programmes are irrelevant to the academic mission of the University
- The opportunity of the student body for recreation participation are restricted
- The destructive public relations that result from a consistently mediocre or losing record
- The destruction of the university's purpose caused by commercialism

2.7. CONCLUSION

Universities as institutions of higher learning developed steadily through time, undergoing changes and functions. During the Middle Ages, the function of a university was to enable students to acquire knowledge mainly of basic sciences. During the Renaissance period, the emphasis was mainly on broadening the knowledge through self-analysis. During the twentieth century, the University saw its role as more than that of just analysing knowledge. The purpose and the functions of universities now included not only the gathering of knowledge and systematising of it, but also included the educating and moulding the character and social skills of the students.

American Universities were the first during the modern era to realise that in educating and moulding the character of the student, sport and recreation had a contribution to make. In South African Universities, sport and recreation have always been associated with and seen as a vital part of campus life. Just like American and British Universities, South African Universities also soon realised the importance of recreation and sport for the student, by giving students full approval by providing various sport and recreation programmes. Not only were sport and recreation programmes provided, but South Africa also implemented a Student Sport and Recreation Union, which is now known as South African Student Sports Union.

In the following chapter, strategic management will be discussed in a broad context to lay the foundation for the evaluation of a campus recreation programme on a specific university campus (University of Pretoria).

CHAPTER 3

THE THEORY OF STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Tertiary educational institutions in South Africa are confronted with accommodating the fast-adapting socio-demographic-, economic-, technological-, and political changes in its business environment. To be able to react in time to these fast changes, tertiary educational institutions often have to take considerable and drastic steps (Van Wyk, 2004). Strydom (1992) is of the opinion that tertiary educational institutions have to be managed strategically to be able to react to the educational needs of the business, industry and the government in order to stay competitive and reflect visionary management practises.

In this chapter, the underlying theory of strategic management will be discussed in a broad context. The last part of the chapter will focus on the application of strategic management theory in a tertiary academic context.

3.2. STRATEGY

3.2.1. Defining the concept strategy

The concept strategy originates from the Antique Greek words *strategos* (Byars, 1992) and *strategia* (Rue and Holland, 1989). Directly translated these Greek words literally mean a general way, in which to be able to control and lead the art and science of military proceedings. Hill & Jones (1992: 7) emphasise the military origin of the word strategy and defines it as “the science of planning and directing military operations”. Hence, it can be deduced that the concept *strategy* implies that in management sciences a manager, like a general, has to apply strategy to be able to provide directive for the organisation in the future. This deduction is also supported by Chandler (in Hill & Jones,

1992: 7) who defines strategy as “the determination of the long-term goals and objectives of an enterprise and the adoption of courses of action for carrying out these goals”.

Certo & Peter (1995: 6) define strategy as “the pattern or plan that integrates an organisation’s major goals, policies, and action sequences into a cohesive whole”. De Wit & Meyer (1998: 32) in turn define the concept of strategy as “a fundamental framework through which an organisation can assert its vital continuity, while at the same time purposefully managing its adaptation to the changing environment to gain competitive advantage. Strategy includes the formal recognition that the recipients of the results of a firm’s actions are the wide constituency of its stakeholders. Therefore, the ultimate objective of strategy is to address the stakeholders’ benefits”.

Both Lusier & Kimball (2004) and Griffin (2005) reiterate that “strategy” refers to a comprehensive plan for pursuing the mission and achieving the goals and objectives of an organisation.

To conclude, by “strategy”, managers imply the large-scale, future-oriented plans for interacting with the competitive business environment to optimise achievement of the organisation’s objectives. Thus, a strategy represents an organisation’s “game plan”. Effective strategies would therefore promote a superior alignment between the organisation and its environment by exploiting opportunities and strengths, neutralising threats, and avoiding weaknesses and subsequently achieve the strategic goals (Griffin, 2005).

3.2.2. Levels and types of strategy

Organisations need strategies (game plans) to achieve objectives and pursue the organisation’s mission. Strategy making is not just a task for senior executives of an organisation, it is a task that involves corporate senior executives, heads of business units and product divisions, heads of major functional areas within a business, plant

managers, product managers, district and regional sales managers and lower-level supervisors. Strategies are initiated at distinct organisational levels.

According to Pearce & Robinson (1988), Thompson (1990), Byars (1992) and Thompson & Strickland (2003) the strategy making hierarchy of an organisation typically contains three levels. At the top is the corporate level, composed principally of members of the board of directors and the chief executive and administrative officers. They are responsible for the financial performance of the organisation as a whole and for achieving the non-financial goals of the organisation. Furthermore, they set objectives and formulate strategies that span the activities of individual businesses in the organisation and the functional areas of these businesses. Corporate level strategic managers attempt to exploit their distinctive competencies within their industries while typically planning over a five-year time horizon.

The second rung of the strategy making hierarchy is the business level, composed principally of business and corporate managers. These managers must translate the general statements of directions and intent generated at the corporate level into concrete, functional objectives and strategies for individual business divisions.

The third rung is the functional level, composed principally of managers of product, geographic and functional areas. It is their responsibility to develop annual objectives and short-term strategies in such areas as production, operations, and research and development; finance and accounting; marketing; and human relations or any other functional division specific to the particular organisation. However, their greatest responsibilities are in the implementation or execution of an organisation's strategic plans.

Thompson & Strickland (1993, 2003) add a fourth organisational level, namely the operational level. Although the operational level is at the bottom of the strategy making hierarchy, its importance should not be downplayed. Their responsibilities are even narrower strategic initiatives and approaches for managing key operating units and for

handling daily operating tasks with strategic significance. The managers of the operational level add relevant detail and completeness to the overall business plan.

Table 3.1. highlights the various management levels that have responsibilities for the different strategy levels, and indicates the kinds of strategic actions that distinguish each of the four strategy making levels.

Table 3.1. The strategy making hierarchy

(Thompson & Strickland, 2003: 33)

Strategy Level	Primary Strategy Development Responsibility	Strategy making functions and area of focus
Corporate strategy	Chief executive officer, and other key executives (decisions are typically reviewed/approved by boards of directors)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Building and managing a high-performing portfolio of business units(making acquisitions, strengthening existing business positions, divesting business that no longer fit into management's plan) ● Capturing the synergy among related business units and turning it into competitive advantage ● Establishing investment priorities and steering corporate resources into business with the most attractive opportunities ● Reviewing/revising/unifying the major strategic approaches and moves proposed by business-unit managers

<p>Business strategy</p>	<p>General manager/head of business unit (decisions are typically reviewed/approved by a senior executive or a board of directors)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Devising moves and approaches to compete successfully and to secure a competitive advantage ● Forming responses to changing external conditions ● Uniting the strategic initiatives of key functional departments ● Taking action to address company-specific issues and operating problems
<p>Functional strategy</p>	<p>Functional managers (decisions are typically reviewed/approved by business-unit head)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Crafting moves and approaches to support business strategy and to achieve functional/departmental performance objectives ● Reviewing/revising/unifying strategy-related moves and approaches proposed by lower-level managers
<p>Operating strategy</p>	<p>Field-unit heads / lower-level managers within functional areas (decisions are reviewed/approved by functional area head/department head)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Crafting still narrower and more specific approaches/moves aimed at supporting functional and business strategies and at achieving operating-unit objectives

3.3. STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

The nature and value of strategic management for organisations striving to obtain and to maintain a competitive edge have been the topic of research in business literature for decades (Mason, 1986; Thompson, 1990; Robbins & Mukerji, 1994; Certo & Peter, 1995; Thompson, 2001, Thompson & Strickland, 2003; Lussier & Kimball, 2004; Griffin, 2005).

Certo & Peter (1995) mention that the need for strategic management does not only exist on top management level. Business pressure increases as more management levels are expected to manage and perform strategically. This tendency originates because of an increase in decentralisation of organisations, the establishment of profit centres and the contracting of services or products. Thompson & Strickland (2003) identifies a number of advantages of first-rate strategic thinking and conscious strategy management as opposed to free wheeling improvisation, gut feeling and drifting along:

- Provides better guidance to the entire organisation on the crucial point of what it is they are trying to achieve.
- Making managers more alert to the winds of change, new opportunities and threatening developments.
- Helps unify the organisation.
- Creating a more pro-active management posture.
- Promoting the development of a constantly evolving business model that will produce sustained bottomline success for the enterprise.

- Providing managers with a rationale for evaluating competing budget requests – a rationale that argues strongly for steering resources into strategy-supportive, results-producing areas.

Clearly, an organisation can reap several benefits from effective strategic management. According to Certo & Peter (1995), the most important benefit is that of a higher profit. In addition to financial benefits, the organisation may also gain other advantages:

- Strategic management can strengthen organisation members' commitment to attaining long-term goals.
- Increased commitment accompanies participation in setting goals and strategies for reaching those goals.
- When strategic managers emphasise assessing the organisation's environment, the organisation reduces the chance of being surprised by movements within the market place or by actions of competitors that could put the organisation at a sudden disadvantage.

3.3.1. Defining the concept strategic management

Thompson (1990: x) defines strategic management as “the process by which an organisation establishes its objectives, formulates its actions designed to achieve these objectives in the desired timescale, implements the actions and assesses progress and results”. Certo & Peter (1995: 8) define strategic management as “a continuous, cross-functional process aimed at keeping an organisation as a whole appropriately matched to its environment”. Mason (1986) agrees with the above, and states that strategic management includes implementation, evaluation and control as well as problem analysis and resolution. It also encompasses the social and the political environment the organisation has to function within. A more comprehensive definition is added by Robbins & Mukerji (1994: 140) who state that strategic management is to “... develop a

systematic means of analysing the environment, assessing the organisation's strengths and weaknesses, and identifying opportunities where the organisation could have a competitive advantage". Griffin (2005) postulates that strategic management implies a comprehensive and ongoing management process aimed at formulating and implementing effective strategies (comprehensive plans for achieving an organisations goals) by approaching business opportunities and challenges.

From the given definitions on strategic management, it becomes evident that strategic management involves broad environmental scanning (strategic planning) to generate applicable strategies (strategy formulation) to obtain and maintain competitive advantage (strategic control).

3.3.2. The strategic management process

Strategic management deals with optimally positioning an organisation over the long-term (typically longer than one year). Strategic planning therefore refers to the process of developing a mission and long-term goals and determining in advance how they will be accomplished. Operational planning, in contrast, focuses on the process of setting short-term objectives that can be achieved in less than one year. Strategic management (including strategic planning) and operational planning differ by time frame and management level. Strategic management is done by top management in typical time frames of five years updated on an annual basis so that there is a continuous rolling five year plan while operational management and planning are handled by middle managers for time frames of one year or less. Operational plans fit into strategic plans.

There is not a single, unique universally accepted strategic management process, but rather many different views of the same process.

- Byars (1992) states that the strategic management process consists of three elements:

1. Strategy Formulation

- Establishing an organisational philosophy.
- Defining the organisation's mission.
- Analysing competitive organisations.
- Environmental scanning and forecasting.
- Internal organisational analysis.
- Establishing long- and short-range objectives.
- Identifying strategic alternatives.
- Strategy evaluation and selection.

2. Strategy Implementation

- Developing strategies, structure, and organisational leadership.
- Developing budgets, functional strategies, and motivational systems.
- Strategic control systems.

3. Feedback

Figure 3.1. illustrates the process proposed by Byars (1992).

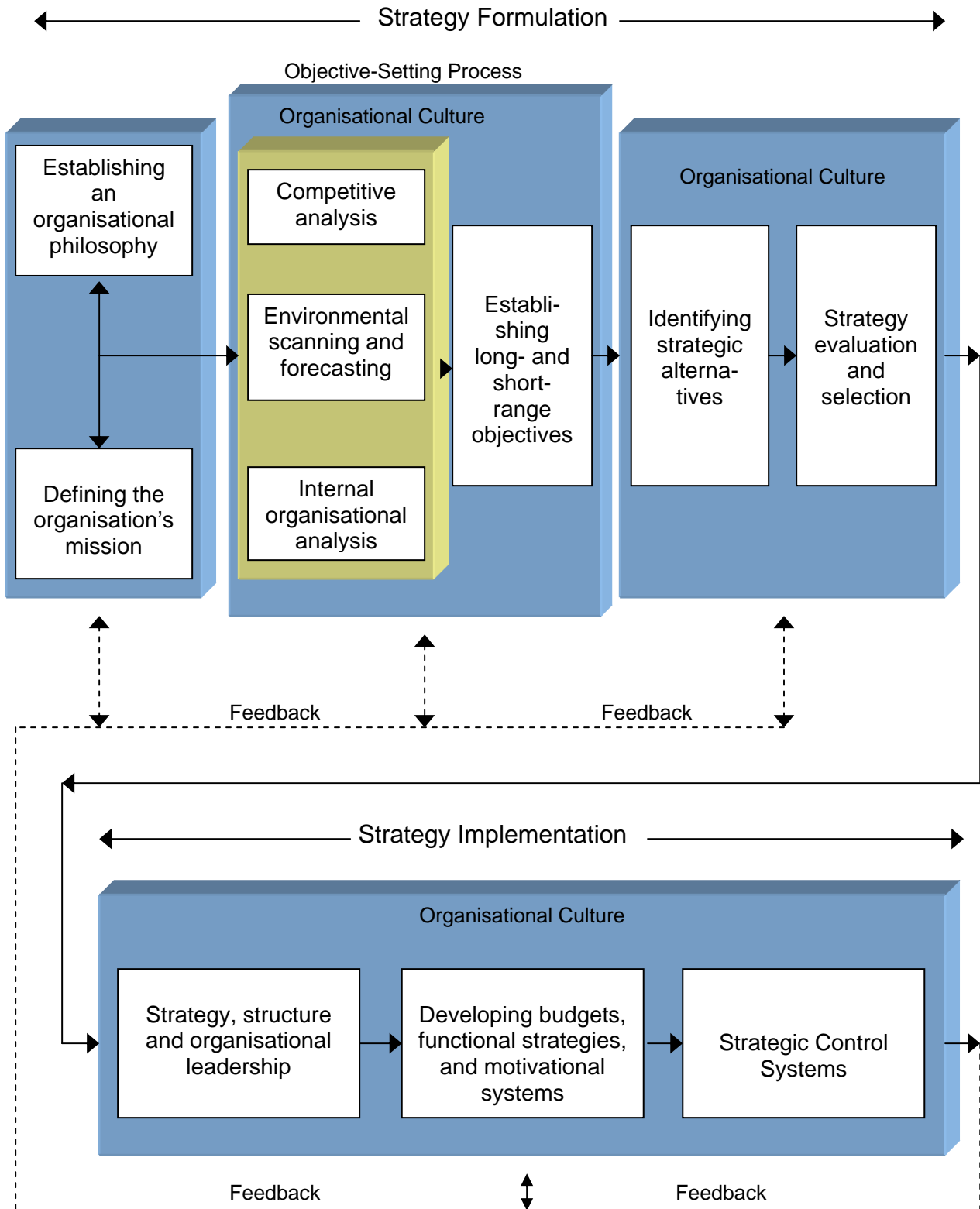


Figure 3.1. The strategic management process

(Byars, 1992: 150)

➤ Thompson & Strickland (2003) state that the strategic management process consists of five tasks:

1. **Forming a strategic vision of where the organisation is headed:** so as to provide long-term direction, delineate what kind of enterprise the company is trying to become, and infuse the organisation with a sense of purposeful action.
2. **Setting objectives:** converting the strategic vision into specific performance outcomes for the company to achieve.
3. **Crafting a strategy to achieve the desired outcomes.**
4. **Implementing and executing the chosen strategy efficiently and effectively.**
5. **Evaluating performance and initiating corrective adjustments in vision, long-term direction, objectives, strategy, or execution in light of actual experience, changing conditions, new ideas, and new opportunities.**

Thompson & Strickland (2003) display the strategic management process as follows.

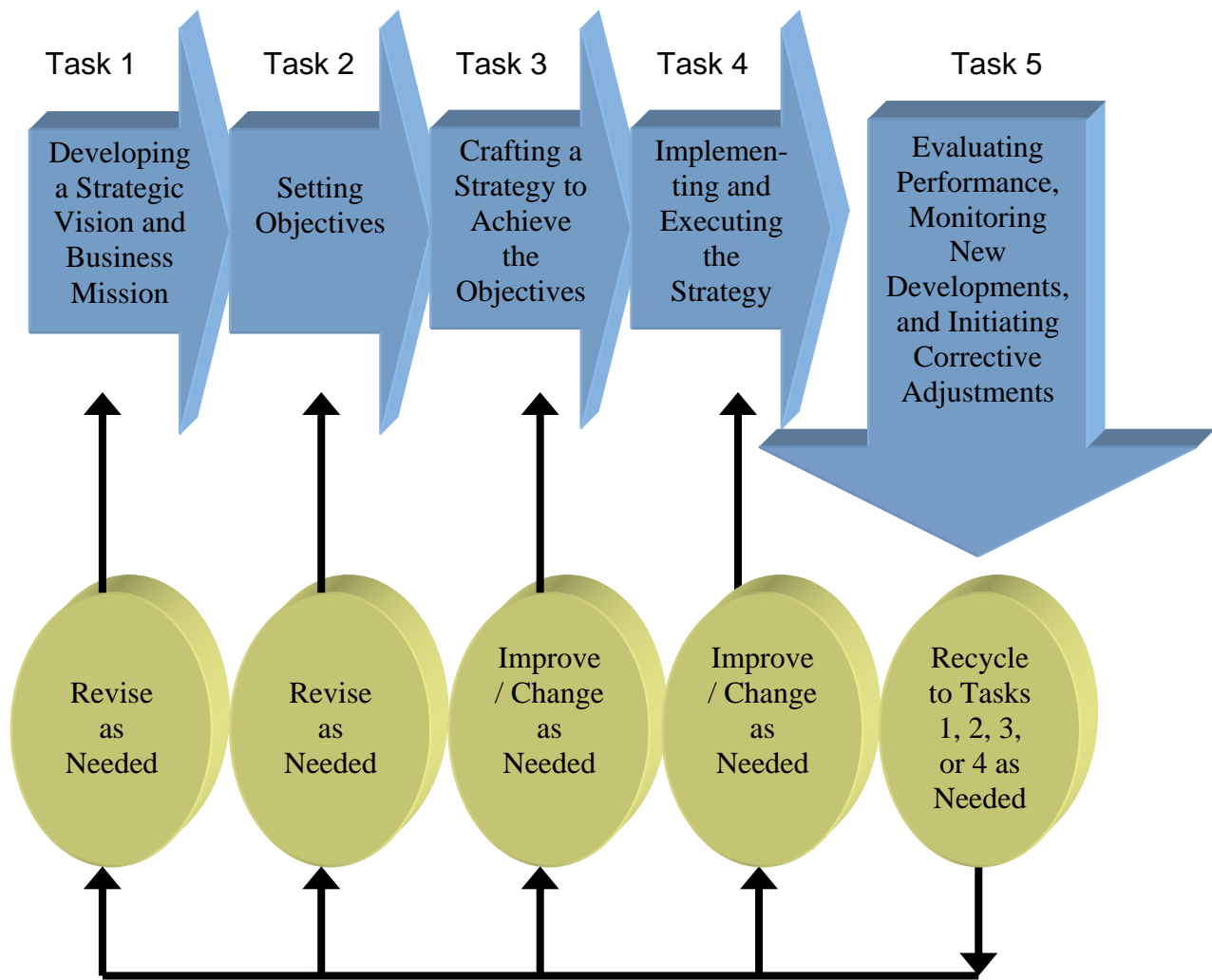


Figure 3.2. The five tasks of strategic management

(Thompson & Strickland, 2003: 7)

- Hunger & Wheelen (2003) state that the strategic management process consists of four elements.

1. Environmental Scanning

- Monitoring, evaluating, and disseminating of information from the external and internal environment.

2. Strategy Formulation

- Defining the organisation's mission.

- Specifying achievable objectives
- Developing strategies
- Setting guidelines

3. Strategy Implementation

- Strategies and policies are put into action through the development of programs, budgets, and procedures.

4. Evaluation and Control

- Organisational activities and performance results are monitored so that actual performance can be compared with desired performance.

Figure 3.3. illustrates the strategic management process proposed by Hunger & Wheelen (2003).

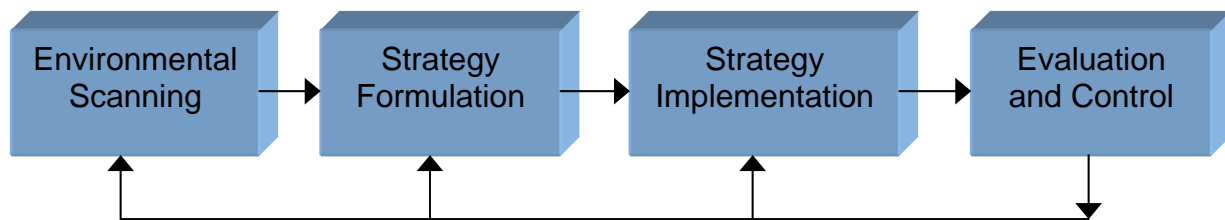


Figure 3.3. Basic elements of the strategic management process

(Hunger & Wheelen, 2003: 5)

➤ Strategic management implies an ongoing process. Lussier & Kimball (2004) identify the elements and actions of this continuous strategic management process as:

1. Developing a mission statement.

2. Analysing the external and internal business environment.

3. Setting goals and objectives.

4. Developing strategies.

5. Implementing and controlling the strategies.

The identified elements are inter-related, and changes in one element will affect changes in the others. The inter-relatedness of these elements is illustrated in figure 3.4.

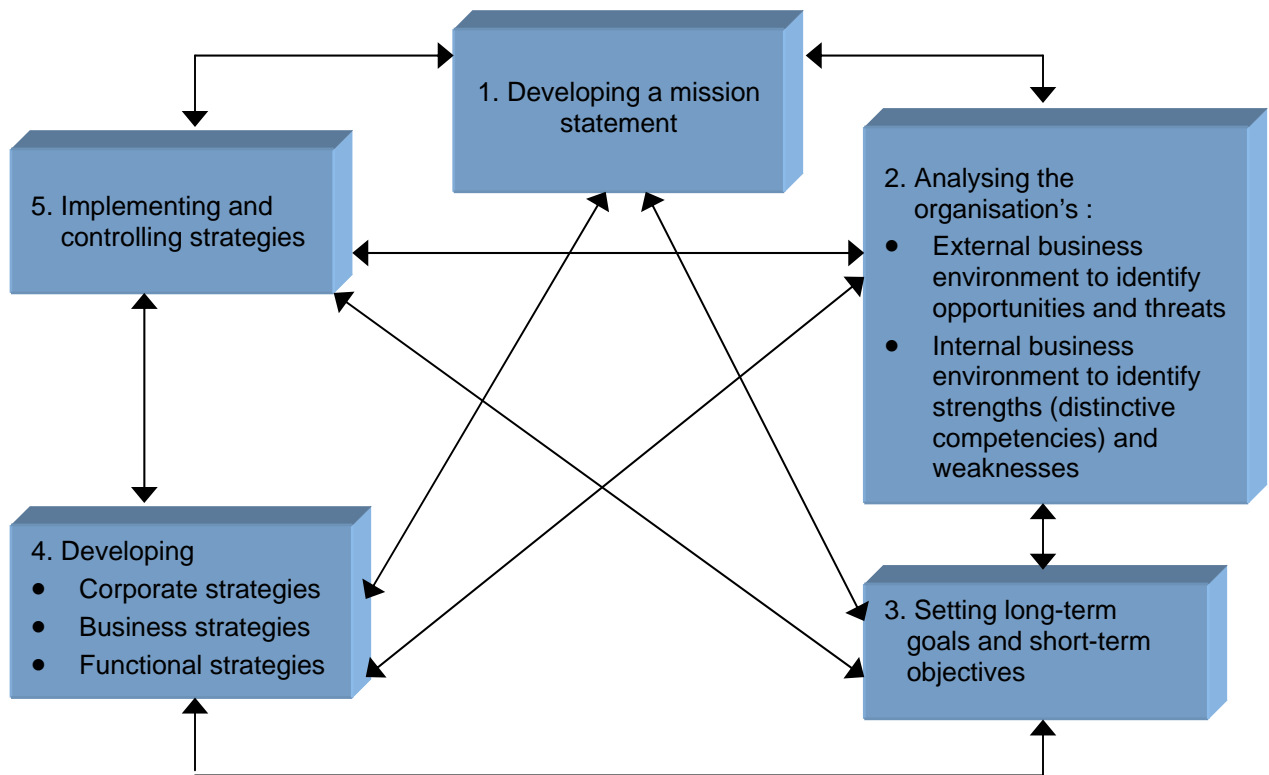


Figure 3.4. The strategic management process

(Lussier & Kimball, 2004: 83)

The scope of strategic management will be clarified by discussing the different elements of the strategic management process in the following paragraphs.

3.3.2.1. Developing a mission statement

The organisation philosophy directs the values and behaviours, and provides guidelines on how the organisation is going to be managed. It also indicates the relationship between the organisation and other parties that play an important role in the organisation, such as workers, clients, shareholders, providers, the government and the general public (Byars, 1992).

The philosophy of an organisation is normally a rather permanent statement, which is formulated by the chief executive officer of an organisation. In most organisations, the person who established the organisation formulates the corporate philosophy of the organisation. This philosophy is then maintained until the organisation no longer exists.

The mission of an organisation follows on the philosophy statement and describes the reasons why an organisation exists. An organisation's mission is its purpose, or the reason for its existence. It tells what the organisation is providing to society. Lussier & Kimball (2004) justify the importance of a mission statement by emphasising that the mission statement provides the foundation on which the remaining steps of the strategic process will be constructed.

The first question that needs to be asked is "What is our business and what will it be?" Developing a carefully reasoned answer to this question pushes managers to consider what the organisation's business makeup should be and to develop a clearer vision of where the organisation needs to be headed over the next five to ten years. The answer also begins the process of carving out a meaningful direction for the organisation to take and of establishing a strong organisational identity. Management's vision of what the organisation seeks to do and to become is commonly termed the organisation's mission. It establishes the organisation's future course and outlines "who we are, what we do, and where we're headed".

The mission of an organisation is erroneously seen as static and unchangeable. According to Byars (1992), it is not only important to formulate a mission, but it is also important to re-evaluate the mission for its relevancy.

The kind of information contained in a mission statement varies from organisation to organisation, but according to Certo & Peter (1995), most mission statements address some common themes including:

➤ **Company product or service**

This information identifies the goals and / or services produced by the organisation – what the company offers to its customers.

➤ **Markets**

This information describes the markets and customers that the organisation intends to serve. Who these customers are and where they are located are common themes.

➤ **Technology**

This information generally includes such topics as techniques and processes by which the organisation produces goods and services. This discussion may consist largely of a broad description of organisational production techniques and quality-enhancing methods.

➤ **Company objectives**

Most mission statements refer to company objectives. For many organisations, these include the general ways they propose for dealing with essential stakeholders, such as shareholders, customers, or employees.

➤ **Company philosophy or core values**

A statement of company philosophy commonly appears as part of the mission statement. A company philosophy statement reflects the basic beliefs and values that should guide organisation members in conducting organisational business.

➤ **Company self-concept**

Mission statements contain or are accompanied by information on the self-concept of the company. Company self-concept is the company's own view or impression of itself. In essence, the company arrives at this self-concept by assessing its strengths, weaknesses, competition, and ability to survive in the marketplace.

➤ **Public image**

Mission statements generally contain some reference, either direct or indirect, to the type of impression that the organisation wants to leave with its public image. In the end, of course, it is not the image that top managers want to project that is important; but the image that the public actually forms.

Thompson & Strickland (2003) present a more concise view on the mission statement by identifying three elements that have to be included in the mission statement:

- Customer needs, or what is being satisfied.
- Customer groups or who is being satisfied.
- The organisation's activities, technologies, and competencies, or how the enterprise goes about creating and delivering value to customers and satisfying their needs.

3.3.2.2. Environmental analysis

Organisations do not exist in isolation. An essential element of organisational success is the optimal alignment between the organisation and its business environment. This alignment implies analysing the external and internal business environment of an organisation. Organisations are open systems and therefore interaction between environments exists.

Before a manager can conduct an environmental analysis, the basic structure of an organisation's business environment must be understood. The environment of an organisation is typically divided into two distinct levels: the internal and the external environment. The external environment is further divided into two levels: the general environment and the operating environment.

The external business environment refer to all aspects and issues outside an organisation's boundaries that might affect it whilst the internal business environment refer to conditions and forces within an organisation (Griffin, 2005). Managers need to analyse both the external and internal environment to align optimally. Analysing the external environment reveals opportunities and threats that are outside the direct control of the organisation. Analysing the internal environment indicates the strengths and weaknesses of the organisation that can be controlled by the organisation. Figure 3.5. illustrates the business environment of an organisation.

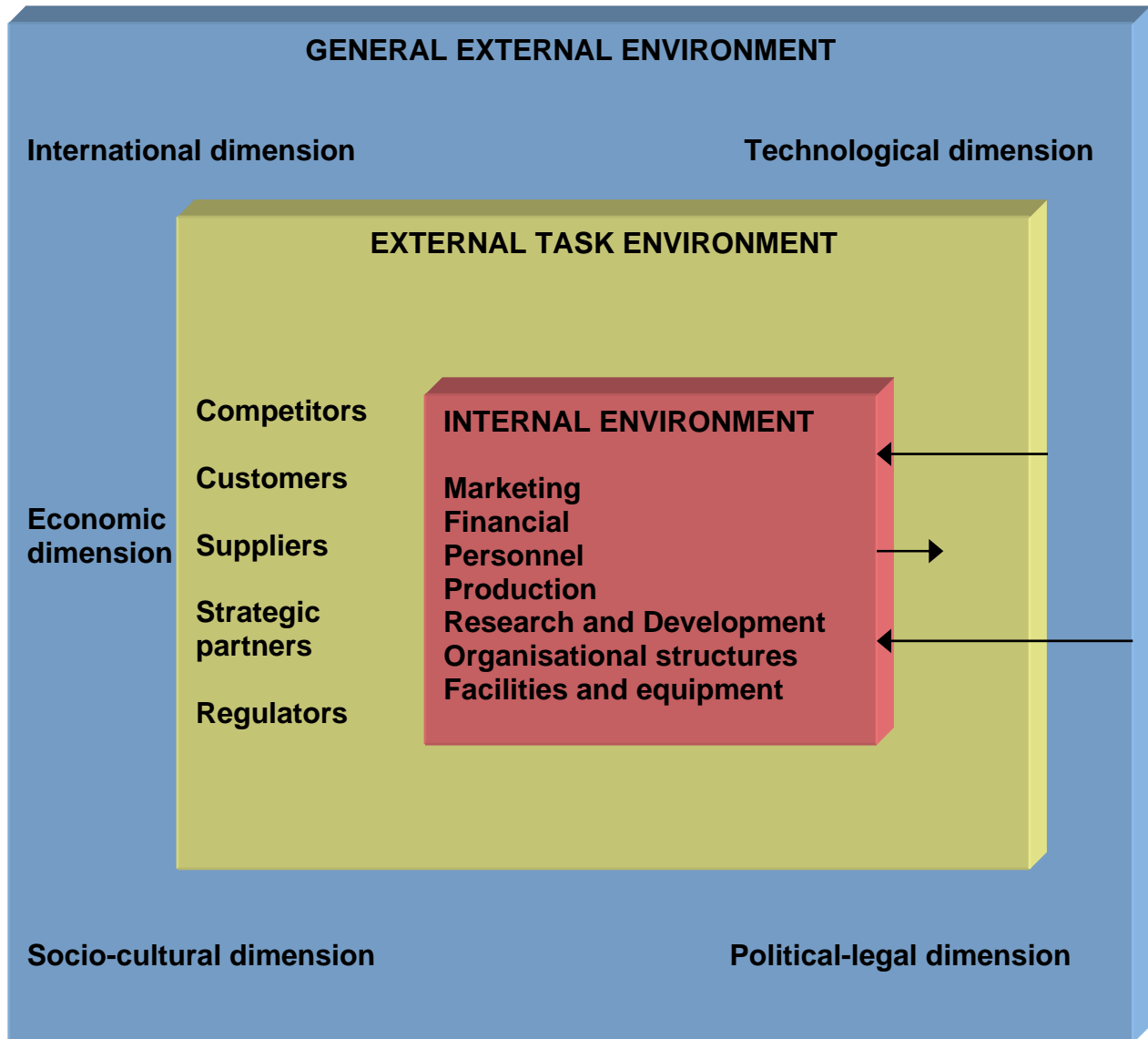


Figure 3.5. The organisational environment

(Certo & Peter, 1995: 33)

3.3.2.2.1. The general external environment

The general external environment of an organisation consists of a set of broad dimensions and forces that are not necessarily associated with other specific

organisations (Griffin, 2005; Certo & Peter, 1995; Smit & Cronjé 1999). The general environment is divided in five dimensions (Griffin, 2005):

➤ **The technological dimension**

The technological dimension is responsible for the pace of innovation and change. This means that every new technological development or innovation creates opportunities and threats in the environment. However, new development / innovation often has unpredictable consequences. The most outstanding characteristic of the technological innovation is probably the fact that it constantly accelerates the rate of change. The implication of this accelerated rate of change creates higher productivity in organisations. This higher productivity however, can produce more and better products that threaten organisations with keener competition. Technological progress affects the organisation as a whole, including its products, life cycle, supply of materials, production processes and even its approach to management. Therefore, every organisation has to be informed of technological change.

➤ **The economic dimension**

Technology, politics, the ecology, the social, and the international environments influence the economic environment. These influences cause changes in the economic growth rate, levels of employment, consumer income, the rate of inflation, the exchange rate and the general state of the economy. The economic forces ultimately result in prosperity or adversity. Economic trends demand constant awareness on the part of management and regular consideration of the mission, objectives and strategy of the organisation.

➤ **The sociocultural dimension**

The dimension that is probably most sensitive to influences by other environments, especially technology and economy, is the sociocultural change. Because it affects management indirectly through people as consumers and as employees, its ultimate effect on the strategy of an organisation should not be underestimated. People's

lifestyles, habits, and values are shaped by the culture and in turn, make certain demands on the organisation, particularly through consumerism. An organisation is at the centre of social change. It contributes to social change, on the one hand, and should always keep up with major influences of social trends on the organisation, on the other.

➤ **The political-legal dimension**

Management's decisions are continually affected by the course of a country's politics, especially political pressures exerted by the ruling government and its institutions in the business environment. By declaring and enforcing laws, the state influences the environment with measures that are usually politically directed, so steering development and economic policy in a certain direction. The government also intervenes on a large scale and influences the total environment by means of the annual budget, taxes, import control (or lack of it), promotion of exports, import tariffs, to protect certain industries against excessive foreign intervention, price control in respect of certain products or services, the marketing of agricultural products, health regulations and incentives, and other measures to force development in a certain direction. The political-legal dimension clarifies the relationship between business and government.

➤ **The international dimension**

The business environment grows in complexity with more opportunities and threats if an international dimension is added to each of the environmental factors. Local and foreign political trends and events influence the organisation and the market environment.

➤ **The ecological / physical dimension**

Certo & Peter (1995) distinguish a sixth dimension namely the ecological / physical dimension. This dimension contains the limited natural resources from which an organisation obtains its raw material and is responsible for its waste / pollution. Organisations are becoming increasingly aware of the physical environment.

Interfaces that present opportunities and threats to organisations are discernible. These include a shortage of resources, the cost of energy, the cost of pollution and damage to the country's natural resources. Management must take timely steps to limit, as far as possible, any detrimental effects the organisation may have on the environment, in order to prevent unfavourable attitudes towards the organisation.

In general, the organisation has no control and no influence over these six dimensions and has to adjust according to the conditions prevailing in the general external environment.

3.3.2.2.2. The task environment

Organisations compete with other organisations for resources. The task environment includes factors of specific interest to the organisation such as competitors, customers, suppliers, strategic partners and regulators (Griffin, 2005). It involves factors in the immediate competitive situation that provide many of the challenges a particular organisation faces in attempting to acquire needed resources or in striving to profitably market its goods and services (Certo & Peter, 1995). The task environment differs from the general environment in that it is typically subject to much more influence or control by the organisation. Therefore, when considering conditions in the task environment, organisations can be much more pro-active (as opposed to reactive) in strategic planning than they are when dealing with general factors.

3.3.2.2.3. The internal environment

The internal environment, also known as the micro environment (Smit & Cronjé, 1999), evaluates all the relevant factors in an organisation, to be able to determine the strong and the weak points. Unlike components of the general and the task environments, which act from outside the organisation, components of the internal environment come from the organisation itself.

Byars (1992: 65) is of the opinion that during the internal environmental analysis the following areas need to be analysed: financial position, product position, marketing ability, research- and developmental abilities, organisational structures, human resources, the condition of the facilities and equipment, as well as the objectives and strategies the organisation used to follow in the past.

Gathering data about the general, task and internal environments provide the raw material from which a picture of the organisational environment can be developed. SWOT (The acronym SWOT stands for Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats) analysis refines this body of information by applying a general framework for understanding and managing the environment in which an organisation operates. SWOT analysis attempts to assess the internal strengths and weaknesses of an organisation and the opportunities and threats that its external environment presents. SWOT analysis seeks to isolate the major issues facing an organisation through carefully analysing each of these four elements. Managers can then formulate strategies to address key issues (Thompson & Strickland, 2003).

3.3.2.3. Setting objectives

Objectives are the result of a planned activity. They state what is to be accomplished by when and should be quantified if possible. The achievement of organisational objectives should result in the fulfilment of the organisation's mission. For strategies to succeed, management must commit to a carefully thought-out set of objectives. An organisation must set objectives that are compatible with the mission and that address strategic issues identified in the environmental analysis (Lussier & Kimball, 2004). Thompson & Strickland (2003) clearly state that unless an organisation's mission and direction are translated into measurable performance targets, and managers are pressured to show progress in reaching these targets, an organisation's mission statement is just window dressing. Managers who succeed in setting goals and objectives have a competitive advantage over other managers.

Therefore, it can be seen that the importance of establishing these objectives cannot be over emphasised. Organisations typically have two different sets of objectives: Short-term objectives and long-term objectives. Certo & Peter (1995: 64) define the objectives as follows:” Short-term objectives identify targets that the organisation wants to reach within one or two years. Long-term objectives are targets that the organisation wants to reach within three to five years”. Byars (1992: 12) agrees with this by saying, “long-term objectives specify the results derived in pursuing the organisation’s mission and normally extend beyond the current fiscal year. Short-term objectives are performance targets, normally of less than one year duration, which management uses to measure progress toward the achievement of long-term objectives”.

Although the objectives of every organisation differ from one another, the following categories of objectives are identified:

- Profit-oriented objectives
- Service-oriented objectives
- Employee-oriented objectives
- Objectives aimed at social obligations

Thompson & Strickland (2003) oppose Certo & Peter’s classification and claim that only two objectives really stand out:

- Financial objectives
- Strategic objectives

Whether there are two or four objectives that really stand out, the criteria for writing these objectives are the same. Lussier & Kimball (2004) identified four benchmarks when writing objectives.

➤ **A single result**

To prevent writing vague, meaningless objectives that are too complicated, an organisation should rather write each objective so that it only describes one result. In doing so, objectives are clear, simple, and explicit.

➤ **Specific results**

People and organisations with specific goals perform better than those with general goals do. For this reason, it is important that organisations state the exact level of performance expected.

➤ **Measurable results**

An organisation will have problems determining when and whether the objectives have been met, if they cannot measure their progress.

➤ **Results by a target date**

Because deadlines make employees in an organisation focus earlier and try harder, it is of cardinal importance for an organisation to set a date for accomplishing the objectives.

In addition to the four “must” criteria, Lussier & Kimball (2004) add another three “want” criteria when writing objectives.

➤ **Realistic objectives**

Objectives should be somewhat difficult, but they must also be achievable. Employees in an organisation perform less better when objectives are too difficult, but they also do not perform too good when the objectives are too easy.

➤ **Team-set objectives**

Teams in an organisation should set their own objectives, as these teams generally outperform teams that have objectives assigned to them.

➤ **Team commitment to the objectives**

A team in an organisation that commits to an objective will work harder to achieve it.

3.3.2.4. Developing strategies

During this phase of the strategic management process, the suitable strategy is chosen which is used to achieve long- and short-term objectives. This normally implies that corporate-, business- and functional strategies are formulated (Thompson, 1990). As Certo & Peter (1995) are of the opinion that formulating a strategy for an organisation involves developing a cohesive plan for achieving objectives by adapting the organisation in an appropriate way to its environment. Thompson & Strickland (1993) add to this by proposing that an organisation's strategy consists of the combined actions that management has taken and intends to take in achieving strategic and financial objectives and pursuing the organisation's mission.

Seven basic types of corporate strategies are identified in the relevant literature (Griffin, 2005; Lussier & Kimball, 2004; Collins, 1995).

➤ **Stability strategy**

- Maintains the present course of action;
- The organisation is already perceived to be performing well;
- Less risky strategy;
- Easier and more comfortable than adopting a different strategy;
- Focuses on a continuation of past activities;

➤ **Growth strategy**

- Involves expanding the organisation's current activity;
- Expanding by means of: vertical integration, the broadening of the scope either "upwards" (towards sourcing own raw material) or "downwards" (towards selling directly to customers); market penetration, the planned expansion of existing products or services; or diversification, the addition of new products or services;
- More risky strategy;
- Growth is necessary for long-term survival in some industries;
- Many managers equate growth with effectiveness;
- Society may benefit from growth strategies;
- Management rewards and recognition are potentially greater with a growth strategy;
- Growing companies become better known and may be more capable of attracting quality employees.

➤ **Retrenchment strategy**

- Requires a conscious decision to slow down, cut back and seek performance improvement through greater operating efficiency;
- Less frequent and least popular grand strategy, as it appears to be an admission of failure.

➤ **Combination strategy**

- Simultaneous use of more than one of the other strategies;
- Can involve organisation as a whole, or it may reflect only among the functional or business strategy levels;
- Most common in larger more complex organisations.

➤ **Differentiation strategy**

- Establishing a distinctive identity for a product or service, different to those products and services offered by competitors;
- For reasons such as quality, service or design.

➤ **Cost leadership strategy**

- Producing and selling products or services which may not be different from their competitor's products or services, but are priced lower;
- Sets out to be the low-cost producer in its industry.

➤ **Focus strategy**

- Finding and then focusing on a niche in the market, rather than competing in all areas with all-rounders.

3.3.2.5. Implementing and controlling the strategies

Strategy implementation refers to the action during which the organisation's structure, systems and processes are brought in line with the chosen and suitable strategy (Kreitner, 1992). Thompson & Strickland (1993: 6) define strategic implementation as "an administrative activity – organising, budgeting, motivating, culture-building, supervising and leading are all part of *making it happen* and achieving the intended strategies and financial outcomes". Strategy implementation is therefore, the process by which strategies and policies are put into action through the development of programs, budgets, and procedures. This process might involve changes within the overall culture, structure, or management systems of the entire organisation, or within all of these areas. Except when drastic organisation-wide changes are needed, however, middle- and lower-level managers typically implement strategies, with review by top management. Strategy implementation often involves day-to-day decisions in resource allocation. Thompson & Strickland (2003) and Byars (1992) approach the strategic implementation phase in different ways.

According to Byars (1992) the strategy implementation process incorporates the preparation, the changing and the choosing of the following:

- strategy, structure and organisational leadership;
- developing budgets, functional strategies and motivational systems;
- strategic control systems.

Figure 3.6. exhibits this strategy implementation process.

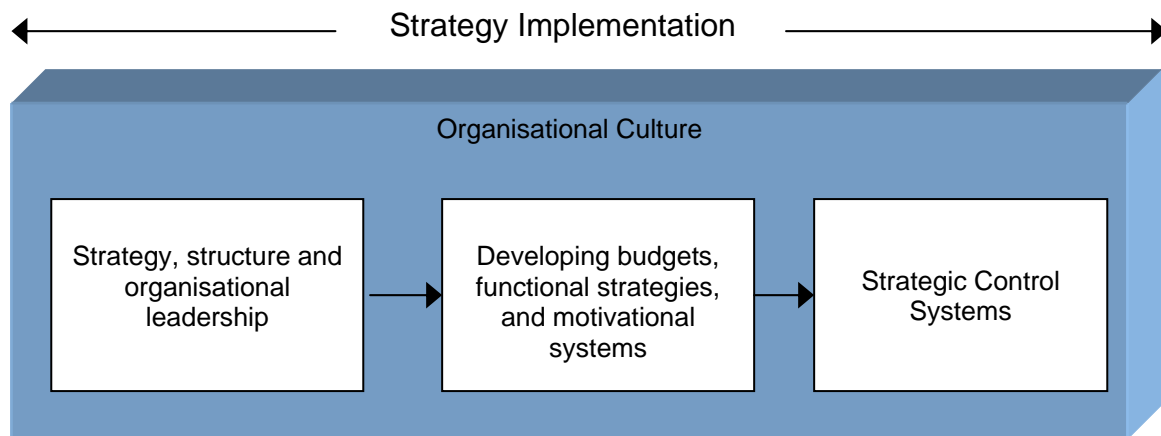


Figure 3.6. Strategy implementation

(Byars, 1992: 150)

Thompson & Strickland (1993) propose that implementing strategy entails converting the strategic plan into action and then into results. While the details of strategic implementation are specific to every organisation, certain administrative bases have to be covered no matter what the organisation's situation. Figure 3.7. shows the principal administrative tasks, that are important in the strategic implementation process stressed by Thompson & Strickland (1993).

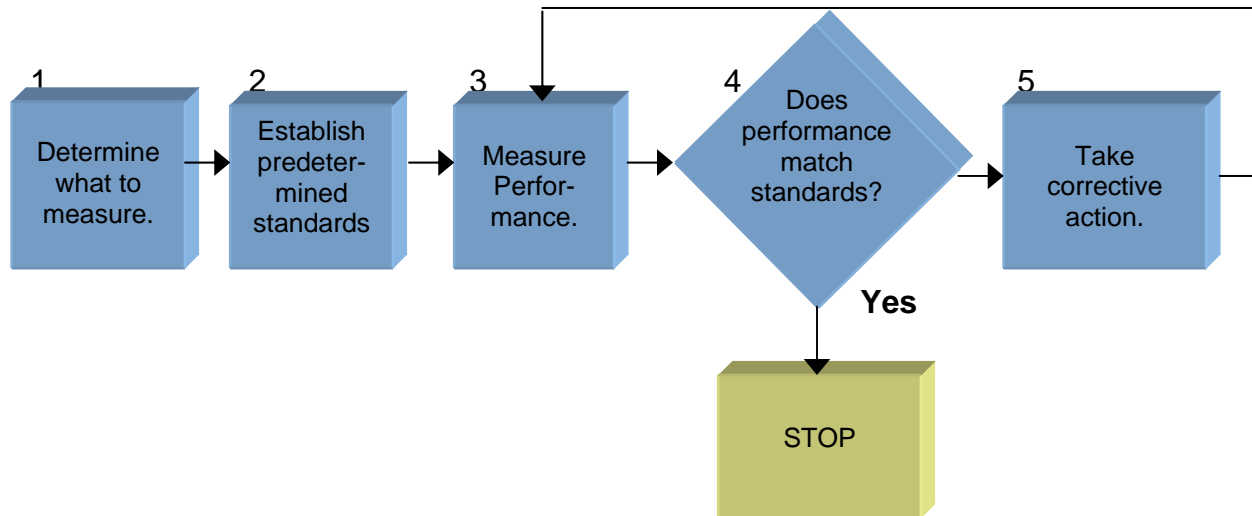


Figure 3.8. Evaluation and control process

(Hunger & Wheelen, 2003: 152)

➤ **Determine what to measure**

Top managers and operational managers must specify implementation processes and results to be monitored and evaluated. The process and results must be measurable in a reasonably objective and consistent manner. The focus should be on the most significant elements in a process – the ones that account for the highest proportion of expenses or the greatest number of problems. Measurements must be found for all-important areas, regardless of difficulty.

➤ **Establish standards of performance**

Standards used to measure performance are detailed expressions of strategic objectives. They are measures of acceptable performance results. Each standard usually includes a tolerance range, which defines any acceptable deviations. Standards can be set not only for final output, but also for intermediate stages of production output.

➤ **Measure actual performance**

Measurements must be made at predetermined times.

- Customers: Students from all over South Africa

After several interviews with TuksSport officials (Neluvhalani, 2003; Van der Walt, 2004), it was clearly revealed that there is a lack of knowledge concerning several dominant economic features such as the market size, market growth rate and whether TuksSport profitability is above or below par. No specific figures could or would be provided by TuksSport. Requests for specific information were often turned down based on the claim that such information was “confidential”. Published annual reports were only available until 2000.

Question 2: What is competition like and how strong are each of the competitive forces?

Before analysing the competitive environment it is important to note, that even though TuksSport’s main focus is on sport and physical recreation, competitors of TuksSport not only lie with other organisation’s or club’s that only offer sport or physical recreation. Porter (in Ehlers & Lazenby, 2004) proposes the idea of five competitive forces to analyse the competitive environment.

- *Rivalry among competing organisations.*

University of Pretoria, University of Johannesburg, Tshwane University of Technology, and other universities, as well as Virgin Active’s and other gymnasiums face strong competition in sport and recreation programmes, prices, and their location. Sport clubs such as Harlequins Rugby Club also are seen as rivals in terms of sport. The competition also lies with Entertainment Centres such as Movie Theatres and with pubs, clubs, restaurants, and coffee shops.

- *Potential development of substitute products and services.*

Glomail and Verimark are providing an increasing amount of “Do-it-at-home” exercises. However, they seem to pose no real threat, as the majority of students still prefer exercising in properly equipped facilities. New pubs and clubs in the Hatfield

vicinity can pose a real threat to TuksSport. Students not only like being physically active, but also enjoy a night or a couple of hours out with friends at pubs or clubs or even at Movie Theatres. The socialising effect of participation in sport and recreation programmes should therefore be emphasised.

➤ *Potential entry of new competitors*

Because several changes were made to the higher education structure in the last couple of years, potential new higher educational competitions are very unlikely. However, new competitors, such as the Virgin Active Group, have been able to successfully enter the sport and recreation industry. TuksSport faces real competition from the highperformancecentre (hpc) located on the premises of the University of Pretoria.

➤ *Bargaining power of suppliers*

No specific information regarding TuksSport's suppliers could or would be provided by TuksSport. Requests for specific information was turned down based on a lack of knowledge or on the claim that such information was "confidential". For this reason it can only be assumed that TuksSport is not very dependent on its suppliers, as the "product" sold are actually sport and recreation, and for this, TuksSport does not need suppliers. TuksSport has a great deal of power over the contractors it uses to provide and to coach the various sport and recreation programmes.

➤ *Bargaining power of customer*

The students of the University of Pretoria have a great deal of power, because they can switch easily to other gymnasiums such as Virgin Active for numerous reasons, like better prices, better quality, greater convenience and if their needs are not satisfied. It can thus be deduced that TuksSport do face a considerable level of competition in its immediate geographical area.

4.2.2.2. Analysis of the company (TuksSport) situation

Managers analyse the company's situation when they develop business strategies and when they determine which issues need to be addressed in the next three steps of the strategic process (Lussier & Kimball, 2004). These three steps are: (1) Assess the present strategy; (2) Analyse the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats; and (3) Assess the competitive strength. A complete company situation analysis requires five steps:

Step 1: Assess the present strategy

Following several interviews held with TuksSport officials (Neluvhalani, 2003; Van der Walt, 2004), it was apparent that TuksSport's present strategy is working well. It seems to be profitable and the number of total participants in sport increased dramatically since 2000.

It has to be noted that the only Annual Report provided by TuksSport was that of the year 2000. For this reason no precise profitability percentage could be assumed. Table 4.1. indicates the diverse income for the year 2000. No specific figures regarding recreation could and would be provided by TuksSport. Requests for specific information was often turned down based either on a lack of information regarding recreation, or on the claim that such information was "confidential".

Table 4.1. Diverse income for TuksSport for the year 2000

(TuksSport, 2003)

Descrip- tion	Short pro- grammes	Clubs	Registration	Donations	Total
Priority Clubs					
Athletics		R 55,021.00	R 78,808.00	R 10,530.00	R 144,359.00
Basketball		R 680.00	R 331.00		R 1,011.00
Hockey		R 25,907.00	R 19,154.00	R 13,605.00	R 58,666.00
Cricket		R 142,860.00	R 19,079.00	R 91,420.00	R 253,359.00
Netball	R 344,393.00	R 27,743.00	R 4,945.00		R 377,081.00
Rugby		R 437,185.00	R 10,293.00	R 310,601.00	R 758,079.00

542. From this information, it can be assumed that more students and other sport participants (juniors and seniors) are interested in the sports that fall under the priority clubs. This could be due to the fact that recreation clubs do not receive as much attention as the priority clubs do. Another important fact to keep in mind is that Gymnastics falls under the recreation clubs and that the income for gymnastics is about half of the total income for the recreation clubs. Keeping in mind that Gymnastics is a predominantly junior club, where most of the participants are not students at University of Pretoria. This fact can only support the assumption made earlier, that TuksSport clearly focuses most of their attention on priority clubs. Another fact that could support this assumption is that priority clubs received sponsorships worth R506 156, compared to the R12 002 sponsored to recreation clubs.

Table 4.2. indicates the figures for the total participation in the year 2000 and the year 2003. The participation figures clearly indicate an increase of total participation from the year 2000 to the year 2003.

Table 4.2. TuksSport's participants from the year 2000 to the year 2003

(TuksSport, 2003)

SPORT	Total participants	
	2000	2003
Priority Clubs		
Aquatics	280	877
Athletics	1731	2217
Basketball	235	180
Cricket	384	no figure provided
Football	663	1321
Hockey	810	1183
Netball	508	316
Rugby	1028	1150
Squash	427	584
Tennis	98	256
Recreation Clubs		
Badminton	32	189
Canoeing	128	181
Chess	no figure provided	21
Cycling	no figure provided	36
Fencing	no figure provided	19

Football		R 15,338.00	R 26,478.00	R 80,000.00	R 121,816.00
Swimming		R 32,914.00	R 2,906.00		R 35,820.00
Tennis		R 16,612.00	R 9,236.00		R 25,848.00
Volleyball		R 1,387.00			R 1,387.00
Recreation Clubs					
Baseball		R123.00			R 123.00
Cycling		R 8,222.00	R 1,092.00		R 9,314.00
Golf		R 922.00		R 4,200.00	R 5,122.00
Gymnastics		R 51,621.00	R 3,295.00		R 54,916.00
Handball		R 17.00			R 17.00
Judo		R 583.00	R 1,083.00		R 1,666.00
Canoeing		R 4,032.00	R 4,977.00		R 9,009.00
Karate		R 639.00	R 3,424.00		R 4,063.00
Korfball		R 2,563.00	R 88.00	R 1,000.00	R 3,651.00
Squash		R 1,985.00	R 29,407.00	R 6,802.00	R 38,194.00
Underwater sport		R 20,654.00	R 1,154.00		R21,808.00
Badminton		R 25,548.00	R 7,429.00		R 32,977.00
Softball		R 2,614.00			R 2,614.00
Chess		R 675.00	R 132.00		R 807.00
Fencing		R 161.00	R 70.00		R 231.00
Table Tennis		R 68.00	R 316.00		R 384.00
Parachuting		R 111.00			R 111.00
Sailing		R 11.00			R 11.00
TuksSport		R 61,299.00		R 40,408.00	R 101,707.00
Golf Day		R 14,971.00		R 79,000.00	R 93,971.00
TuksSport Projects	R 171,851.00	R 158,117.00			R 329,968.00
Hammans-kraal sport development projects		R 7,624.00		R 98,000.00	R 105,624.00
Total	R 516,244.00	R 1,118,185.00	R 223,697.00	R 735,566.00	R 2,593,692.00

The information obtained from Table 4.1. indicates that the most income is obtained from clubs (43%), thereafter are sponsorships (28%), coaching courses and short programmes (20%) and only 9% of the income are from registration and membership fees. It is not clear however, how the income for the clubs are generated and calculated.

When comparing the “priority clubs” and the “recreation clubs”, it can be seen that the priority clubs’ income was R757 632 compared to the recreation clubs’ income of R118

Golf	52	30
Gymnastics	378	220
Handball	no figure provided	152
Judo	10	41
Karate	31	19
Korfball	11	34
Rowing	no figure provided	22
Softball	50	27
Table Tennis	18	4
Underwater sport	95	74
Volleyball	20	170
Total	6989	9323

Even though the total participants has increased from 6 989 in the year 2000, to 9 323 participants in the year 2003, it is worth mentioning that the recreation club's participants represent only 13% of TuksSport's total clients, compared to the 87% of the priority clubs clients'. The fact that recreation clubs only represent 13% of the total participants again reinforces the assumption that TuksSport's focus is more on priority clubs and not that much on recreation.

Notable is that although TuksSport's focus should be to represent enrolled University of Pretoria students and staff, table 4.3. clearly indicates that this is not the case. This is evident in table 4.3., which indicates TuksSport's national representatives from the year 2000 to the year 2003.

Table 4.3. TuksSport's national representatives for 2000/2003

(TuksSport, 2003)

Sport	Senior		Junior		Student		Other	
	2000	2003	2000	2003	2000	2003	2000	2003
Aquatics		8		3		1		3
Athletics	11	11	1		12	3	6	3
Basketball		4			1			1
Cricket	2	2		3	2	1		
Football						2		

Hockey		2				6		
Netball	7	4	2	5	2			1
Rugby	4	8	4	6	2			1
Squash						2		
Tennis					3	3		
Badminton								
Canoeing	2	1					1	1
Chess	2	1	1		2			
Golf								
Cycling	1							
Fencing	5	1						
Gymnastics	1	4						
Handball	3	1	1					
Judo	3	3	1					2
Karate					1			
Korfball			1					
Softball	1				1			
Table Tennis								
Volleyball	2							
Underwater	2			4			1	
Total	46	50	11	21	26	18	8	12

Table 4.3. clearly indicates an increase in the national representatives for seniors, juniors and others, but an obvious decrease in student representatives. From the information given in table 4.3. it is not evident what TuksSport means with “seniors” and “others”. It also indicates that students of the University of Pretoria only represent a mere 18% of the TuksSport representatives, whereas seniors, juniors, and others represent 82% of TuksSport at national events.

When comparing the current mission statement of TuksSport (as given earlier in the chapter in paragraph 4.2.1.) with the results seen in table 4.3. it can be stated that

