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Full Length Research Paper

Collaborative innovation in sport: Conceptualizing the adoption of new stadium construction from professional sport team and government perspectives

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The topic of innovation adoption and diffusion has yielded a voluminous body of research whose general purpose is to account for: (1) why one business firm/governing body is more likely than another firm/governing body to adopt an innovation, (2) what factors impact business firms'/governing bodies' decisions to adopt an innovation, and (3) what influences the adoption of an innovation to spread to other business firms/governing bodies. Curiosity about these areas led the researchers to explore the following question: what factors influence a professional sport team and its corresponding city/state governments to adopt the construction of a new sport facility? The literature on professional sport facility financing is limited in that collaborative innovation has received minimal explicit attention from scholars in comparison to areas such as the economic impact of sport facilities and the political and lawful processes of public financing for sport facility subsidization, both of which benefit from a sizeable body of scholarship. Using Rogers’ diffusion of innovation theory and Berry and Berry’s unified theory of policy innovation as a theoretical foundation, a conceptual model of professional sports stadium construction adoption is established to account for determinants from the perspectives of professional sport teams and city/state governments.

Key words: Diffusion, facilities, governance, policy, sport venues.

INTRODUCTION

Santo (2010) divided the historical trends in the construction of professional sport facilities into four separate eras: (1) The dawn of the modern professional sports facility (1909-1942), (2) The rise of the sport facility subsidy (1945-1959), (3) The era of subside writ large (1960-1980), and (4) The era of escalation and extravagance (1990-present). The current phase of professional sport facility construction in the United States has been demarcated by sport scholars as the most prolific period of facility construction in modern American history (Alexander and Kern, 2004). A total of 107 facilities have been built or significantly renovated since 1990 for the 120

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teams comprising the National Football League (NFL), National Basketball Association (NBA), National Hockey League (NHL), and Major League Baseball (MLB). Given that just 60 sports facilities were constructed in the previous 30 year period (Long, 2005), it is axiomatic how many more facilities have been constructed or significantly renovated during the current era of American professional sports.

New stadium construction represents an important form of organizational innovation for professional sport organizations. The term, organization innovation, refers to the “implementation of an idea – whether pertaining to a device, systems, process, policy, program, or service – that is new to the organization at the time of adoption” (Damanpour and Evan, 1984, p. 393). A defining feature of new stadium construction during the present age of proliferation is the increased union of private (e.g., professional sport teams) and public (e.g., city governments) partnerships to create collaborative innovation opportunities (Santo, 2010). Joint collaborations are not entirely novel occurrences in the American professional sport industries; however, since the 1990s, “team owners have increasingly contributed to the financing of publicly owned stadiums and arenas, and governments have shared in the development costs of facilities that are privately owned” (Santo, p. 74). The NFL’s Dallas Cowboys, for example, played their football games in Texas Stadium from 1971 to 2008. In 2009, construction of Cowboys Stadium (now known as AT&T Stadium) in Arlington, Texas was completed. The new facility, which cost over a billion dollars to construct, received over $300 million (including interest) in bonds from the City of Arlington to aid in covering the costs of building the monolithic sport facility (Sauer, 2010).

The majority of professional sport venues built in the US since the 1990s have been partly or entirely financed by city or state governments (Humphreys, 2006). The construction boom also has contributed to a boom in research about the financial, political, and social impacts of professional sport stadium construction on local and regional communities. For instance, studies about the public financing of sport stadiums tend to reach a similar conclusion: the economic impact (benefit) of a new sport stadium to a host community is either non-existent or grossly overstated by city officials and team executives. Indeed, the “political reality of economic impact analyses is that they are frequently undertaken to justify a position that either sport organizations or community elected officials have adopted or are proposing” (Crompton, 1995, p. 15). Even though taxpayers can be swayed by compelling but erroneous economic arguments (Fulton, 1988), the truth of the matter remains that new stadiums and arenas do not often make substantial contributions to the local economy (Johnson et al., 2007; Hudson, 2001; Siegfried and Zimbalist, 2002). Accordingly, research about sport stadiums has expanded to include discussions about social leverage opportunities and the public

public good externalities (intangible benefits) generated by sports franchise or venues (Crompton, 2004; Johnson and Sack, 1996; Sparvero and Chalip, 2007).

Various public good externalities of sports franchises (intangible benefits) have been proposed. Crompton (2004) suggested four sources of public good externalities: (a) increased community visibility, (b) enhanced community image, (c) stimulation of other development, and (d) psychic income. Elected officials may view major sport events and professional sport teams as useful marketing engines that can make the respective city more visible and attractive to tourists, businesses, and taxpayers (Burns and Mules, 1987; Crompton, 2004). Moreover, several stadiums, including Green Bay’s Lambeau Field, Chicago’s Wrigley Field, and Boston’s Fenway Park, have historical significance and may be viewed by both locals and nonlocals as the symbolic embodiment of the city (Euchner, 1993; Willis and Garrod, 1998).

In addition to research on economic and intangible benefit, an area of scholarship that has grown in popularity over the past couple decades is the political processes associated with new stadium construction. It is not uncommon for the ownership of a professional sport team to threaten to leave a city over stadium issues (“A number of teams”, 2010). As a result, team owners can find themselves in positions of great power because they can arbitrarily bring on a sport crisis of sorts that creates a political and social environment that benefits them and their desire for organizational innovation (Schein, 2010). On the other side of the matter are elected officials.

Elected officials contemplate the political advantages and disadvantages of supporting or rejected proposals for using taxpayer dollars to fund new stadium construction efforts. They may consider a no-vote stadium subsidy or allow the matter to be finalized at the ballot box. Such contemplation may be grounded in notions of civic paternalism, which is “a political decision-making strategy grounded in a trustee form of representation and belief that a city’s economic growth will optimally benefit the local collective” (Kellison and Mondello, 2014, p. 165). In some cases, civic paternalism may correspond to community sentiment, especially if the community leaders are concerned about re-election (Berry and Berry, 1992). In other cases, elected officials’ perceptions of civic paternalism may contradict community sentiment. Either way, elected officials balance pressure from sport team owners, economic impact information, and community sentiment with an acute awareness of how their decisions could impact their political futures.

The connection between the taxpayers, elected officials, and professional sport teams is significant regardless of whether the lens through which a researcher, manager, or elected official approaches new stadium construction is grounded in economic benefits, social leverage, or politics. Even so, minimal exploration of specific factors that may influence the probability of collaborative stadium
construction adoption has been conducted despite the fact the aggregated total of public subsidies for the NFL, NBA, NHL, and MLB from 1990 to 2006 was $12 - $15 billion (Humphreys; Long, 2005). Indeed, a fundamental question that needs to be addressed is: what factors influence a professional sport team and its corresponding city/state governments to adopt the construction of a new sport facility? Bearing that question in mind, the objective of this exposition is to broaden understanding of sport facility financing and policy research by addressing the aforesaid question through the development and explanation of a conceptual model of collaborative stadium construction adoption grounded in Rogers (2003) work on the spread (diffusion) of innovation and Berry and Berry’s (1990) unified theory of policy innovation.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

Organizational innovation research is usually conducted from either an adoption perspective or a diffusion perspective. Such lines of research are centred on accounting for why an organization is or is not likely to adopt innovation as well as examining what leads innovation adoption to spread (diffuse) from one organization to other organizations. Kimberly and Evanisko (1981) provided succinct explanations of how adoption and diffusion perspectives differ. With regard to adoption perspectives, they wrote (Kimberly and Evanisko, p. 85-86):

The general theoretical issue from the adoption perspective is understanding what makes an organization responsive to change in its environment. The specific issue is understanding what makes one organization more receptive to managerial innovation than another. A normative question asks how an organization should be structured in order to enhance responsiveness in general and receptivity to managerial innovation in particular.

With regard to diffusion perspectives, they wrote (Kimberly and Evanisko, 1981, p. 85-86):

The theoretical issue in the diffusion perspective is understanding why and how an innovation – or group of innovations – spreads in a population. A normative question, raised by organizations interested in promoting diffusion, asks how an innovation should be designed and marketed to enhance rapid and widespread acceptance.

The determinants of innovation adoption and innovation diffusion are often studied together even though they are distinctive concepts. When the determinants of innovative products, services, or policies from multiple organizations have been studied longitudinally, for example, the diffusion effect frequently has been included as an influential determinant of innovation adoption (Berry and Berry, 2007). Such evidence points to the relevance of integrating, rather than separating, the adoption and diffusion approaches of organizational innovation when it comes to examining factors that may impact new sport stadium construction from a professional sport team’s perspective. Accordingly, diffusion of innovation theory (Rogers, 2003) is used as a theoretical foundation for the proposed conceptual model because it establishes the adoption process, described as the innovation-decision process, as a sub process of diffusion.

Rogers (2003) viewed innovation adoption as the actual “decision to make full use of an innovation as the best course of action available” (p. 177). Relatedly, innovation diffusion refers to “the process by which the adoption of innovation by member(s) of a social system is communicated through certain channels and over time triggers mechanisms that increase the probability of its adoption by other members who have not yet adopted it” (Rogers, p. 20). Diffusion occurs from the sharing of information by way of communication channels (e.g., mass media or interpersonal interactions) within a population over time whereas the adoption process pertains to an individual adoption event. Innovation adoption represents an event (subprocess) in the innovation diffusion process because diffusion is composed of individual adoption events.

In connection to the work of Rogers (2003), which is used to explain a professional sport team’s perspective, a large body of government policy innovation research has amassed over the past several decades. This line of research is used to understand the other half of collaborative innovation in sport stadium construction, i.e., the perspectives of city and state governing bodies. A key focus of this line of research is capturing diffusion effects, which occur over time or space in Rogers’ model. Expressly, Berry and Berry (1990) argued that the application of a single model, either the internal determinants model as proposed by Mohr (1969) or the diffusion model as proposed by Walker (1969), cannot provide a plausible explanation of policy innovation by governing bodies. Hence, echoing Rogers, Berry and Berry posited that a governing body, much like a business firm, is unlikely to blindly emulate its neighbours’ policies or programs without any considerations of its own political or economic conditions (internal determinants). To address this conceptual weakness, Berry and Berry incorporated Mohr’s work with Walker’s research to create a comprehensive approach to innovation in public policy that combines internal determinants and diffusion effects.

The aim of this exposition is to better understand the factors influencing the probability of new stadium construction from professional sport teams’ and city/state governments’ perspectives. The combination of diffusion of innovation theory (Rogers, 2003) and the unified theory of policy innovation (Berry and Berry, 1990) represents a suitable theoretical foundation for the development of the proposed model because they account for the adoption of professional sport stadium construction from the perspectives of both professional sport teams as well as city and state governments.
Collaborative innovation in professional sport stadium construction

The proposed model depicted in Figure 1 is developed from research evidence and theory from the adoption and diffusion perspectives to construct a theoretically sound conceptualization of professional sports stadium construction and public subsidization that is inclusive of both aforementioned viewpoints. Innovation adoption and diffusion perspectives are separated between factors germane to a professional sport team standpoint and a governmental standpoint. With regard to a professional sport team’s perspective, three broad innovation adoption categories are identified from the research of Kimberly and Evanisko (1981), Rogers (2003), and others (Damanpour and Schneider, 2006; Vincent et al., 2004): individual-level determinants, organizational-level determinants, and environment-level determinants.

Individual-level determinants are captured by the factors of professional sport team ownership tenure, ownership attitudes toward innovation (openness to change), and self-monitoring. Organizational-level determinants are represented by the factors of organizational culture, organizational resources (slack resources), organizational size, and organizational structure. Environment-level determinants are captured by the factors of environmental uncertainty (also known as environmental turbulence) and market competition.

For innovation diffusion, the probability of new stadium construction adoption from a professional sport team’s perspective is linked to divisional diffusion effects (Rogers, 2003). Divisional diffusion effects represent network externalities “whereby the value a user derives from a good increase with the number of other users of the same or similar good” (Schilling, 2002, p. 387). Herein, divisional diffusion effects describe the divisions within US professional sport leagues and how the building of a new sports facility in one division might influence construction adoption by other teams considering stadium construction in the same division or a rival division. Consider how the NFL is divided into the National Football Conference (NFC) and American Football Conference (AFC). Both the NFC and AFC include four divisions (North, South, East, and West). Therefore, if an AFC East team such as the New England Patriots builds a new stadium, it could impact the decision of an AFC North rival, such as the Baltimore Ravens, to construct a new stadium.

Next, specific factors of innovation adoption and diffusion from a governmental perspective are derived from the unified theory of policy innovation (Berry and Berry, 1990).

The probability of government innovation is “directly related to (1) the motivation to innovate, inversely related to (2) the strength of obstacles to innovation, and directly related to (3) the availability of resources for overcoming such obstacles” (Berry and Berry, p. 114). Policy adoptions by neighbouring states or geographically proximal cities (regional diffusion effects) is also likely to provide critical information (a resource) and reduce uncertainty (an obstacle) to the city or state governments considering whether or not to adopt a certain policy or project.

In Figure 1, the factors of election proximity, political ideology, and fiscal health capture the categories of motivation to innovate, obstacles to innovate, and resource availability to overcome obstacles, respectively. The fourth category, regional diffusion effects, refers to the observed advantages or disadvantages from stadium construction adopted by nearby cities or states that can be used as experimental laboratories by the city or state considering whether or not to help fund the building of a new professional sports stadium (Berry & Berry, 1990). If a city government engages in the construction of a professional sports facility, it may influence nearby cities to also engage (or not engage) in the construction of professional sports facilities. Thus, along with internal determinants, regional diffusion effects represent an additional possible explanation for innovation adoption by city and state governments.

Construction adoption: Professional sport team perspective

Individual-level determinants

Organizational leaders can strongly influence innovation adoption because they control resources and have the authority and power to enact major decisions (Daft, 2001; Damanpour and Schneider, 2006). Though numerous possible individual determinants have been recognized in the extant business literature, complete coverage of these factors exceeds the scope of this study. Therefore, drawing from both research evidence (Vincent et al., 2004) and personal interactions with several professional sport league executives, three individual-level factors that may be particularly apropos to organization innovation are included in the proposed model.

Length of job tenure: Two prevailing perspectives on the impact of job tenure length (i.e., how long an organizational leader or key decision-maker has been in his/her current job role) on innovation adoption are present in the economics and public policy literatures. According to the first position, the longer the period of time an organizational leader has been in a job role, the greater the likelihood of innovation adoption by that leader’s organization. This position stems from the belief that job tenure corresponds to industry experience and legitimacy. More experienced organizational leaders should have a track-record of completing projects of varying degrees of difficulty. As a result, when it comes to proposing and executing an innovative project idea, leaders with longer tenure periods should possess the
legitimacy, capability, and requisite social connections to make and then successful execute an innovative project proposal (Kimberly and Evanisko, 1981; Mumford, 2000).

The second position holds that organizational leaders with longer job tenure will be less inclined to consider new ideas and be more restrained in engaging in projects that offer a fresh perspective to their organizations (Damanpour and Schneider, 2006). Leaders who are new to their organizational positions also may experience greater pressure from consumers, peers, shareholders, and boards of directors to perform at a high level because they have yet to establish a track-record of success.
with their current organization. In response to the pressure, leaders may enthusiastically seek out and start some form of innovation adoption (e.g., product, service, and/or administrative process innovation) (Damanpour and Schneider).

Of the two positions, research evidence more strongly supports the latter. Thus, professional sport team owners and executives new to their organizational positions may be more likely to proactively pursue and adopt new stadium construction (innovation) initiatives than owners and executives with longer tenure periods. Though job tenure may not impact innovation adoption (Damanpour, 1991; Kimberly and Evanisko, 1981), the available body of research findings, including Vincent et al.’s (2004) meta-analysis, demonstrates strong support for leaders with shorter tenure periods being more likely to innovate than leaders with longer tenure periods. In effect, even if an organizational leader with a longer tenure period is open to innovation (e.g., Jerry Jones, owner of the Dallas Cowboys), those leaders with shorter tenure periods are expected to pursue innovation in a more proactive, if not aggressive, manner. For example, Joe Lacob and Peter Guber, who bought the NBA’s Golden State Warriors in 2011, immediately put into action a strategic plan to build a new, cutting-edge arena for the team that would also see them return from the city of Oakland (California) to the city of San Francisco (California) for the first time in 40 years (Matier, 2013).

Ownership attitudes toward innovation (openness to change): Openness to change can be understood as the degree to which executives possess a long-term perspective, appealing visions, and encourage and accept new ideas (Yukl, 1999). A leader, such as a professional sport team owner or other team executive (e.g., team president), can be a very powerful force for organizational innovation (Daft, 2001). Organizational leaders who possess favorable attitudes toward innovation are very likely to create an organizational culture that is very open to change and innovation, and they are going to be more inclined to allocate the requisite resources needed for accomplishing innovative projects (Vincent et al., 2004).

American businessman, Paul Allen, the co-founder of Microsoft and founder and Chairman of Vulcan Inc., owns the NFL’s Seattle Seahawks, the NBA’s Portland Trail Blazers, and also is a part-owner of the Seattle Sounders FC, a MLS team. Paul, whose memoir is titled, Idea Man, embodies a leader who is very open to innovation across myriad industries, having invested hundreds of millions of his own wealth in space transport systems (Stratolaunch Systems), ticket sales (Ticketmaster), and medical research (e.g., Allen Institute for Brain Science and Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center). Given that a leader’s openness to change is expected to demonstrate a positive relationship with the adoption of organizational innovation (Damanpour, 1991; Camison-Zornoza et al., 2004), professional sport team owners and executives who possess favorable attitudes toward innovation should be more likely to consider and then adopt new stadium construction initiatives than owners and executives who are less open to implementation innovative policies and practices.

Self-monitoring: A third determinant that may demonstrate a positive relationship with the adoption of organizational innovation pertains to the extent to which individuals have an ongoing interest in how others observe and assess them. This determinant is the personality variable of self-monitoring (Snyder, 1974). Low self-monitors are “less responsive to situational and interpersonal specifications of appropriate behavior” whereas high self-monitors are “markedly sensitive and responsive to social and interpersonal cues to situational appropriateness” (Snyder and Ganestad, 1982, p. 123). In other words, low self-monitors are not attuned to role expectations (e.g., team president expectations) whereas high self-monitors are likely to act in accordance to social expectations even if it means they compromise their sense of authenticity.

The ability of organizational leaders to demonstrate competency and control of their environments and the outcomes of their organizations tends to receive a high level of scrutiny from stakeholders, peers, and rivals (Leary and Kowalski, 1990). Businesses across sport and non-sport industry segments typically have norms and expectations of their executives. Conformance to and the fulfillment of these norms and expectations may offer organizational leaders a sense of legitimacy – that they “fit in” and are accepted by others (e.g., peers, stakeholders) – which can then have a strong influence on their attitudes and decision-making behaviors. Pfeffer (1981), in particular, referred to this as the “symbolic” role of managing in that a leader must both direct organizational activities as well as create the appearance of efficacy and control among other parties (e.g., stakeholders, peers, rivals) if they are to be successful in the workplace.

Leaders’ levels of self-monitoring influences the extent to which they perceive their social environments accurately and adjust their behaviors accordingly so that they might achieve (or maintain) a desired image amongst their peers and benefit from a high level of social effectiveness. High self-monitors may be especially willing and able to tailor an image to match social expectations of the position for which they seek or currently hold. They will seek to understand who the situation requires them to be and how they can go about becoming that person (Snyder, 1979). Thus, high self-monitoring sport executives who find themselves in business situations where they want to portray themselves as competent (e.g., building a new sport facility) will likely engage in behaviors that correspond to what they believe valued others (e.g., other sport executives) would expect a competent executive to do in their position.
Organizational-level determinants

Organizational culture: Organizational culture represents "a system of shared values and beliefs that produce norms of behaviour and establish an organizational way of life" (Koberg, 1987, p. 397). Culture is an essential element of an organization’s potential for innovation adoption because it can supplement organizational structure and complement organizational leadership (Hauser, 1998). Given that innovation typically represents a complex process with uncertainty of success, firms with innovative cultures, rather than cultures guided by a strict following of traditional rules and procedures, are more likely to foster innovative thinking and adopt innovative policies.

Flexible culture is also effective in motivating and directing the solution of unstructured problems because it helps generate individual creativity, which can spur innovative organizational ideas (Jaskyte and Dressler, 2005). For instance, MLB’s San Francisco Giants are widely viewed across the professional baseball industry as an organization that is at or near the leading edge of the integration of technology and sport business to better understand their players and fans (Swartz, 2013).

Innovation is a part of the San Francisco Giants’ organizational cultural, manifesting itself in a variety of areas within the organization from scouting to marketing to ticket sales. They were the first team in MLB to use Field F/X, which is a technology that captures defensive data about players (Swartz, 2013). Also, with regard to adopting innovative ticketing ideas, the Giants are pioneers because they introduced dynamic ticket pricing strategies to MLB. Dynamic ticket pricing, or variable ticket pricing (VTP), refers to "changing the price of a sporting-event ticket based on the expected demand for that event" (Rascher et al., 2007, p. 407). The Giants adjust ticket prices the morning of their home games in order to compensate for existing conditions (e.g., weather, opponent, etc.) and compete with secondary market distributors. Therefore, when it comes to organizational culture and the construction of professional sport stadiums, a sport team with a flexible organizational culture should be more likely to consider, develop, and adopt new stadium construction initiatives than a sport team with an inflexible organizational culture.

Organizational resources (slack resources): Organizational slack resources refer to "the pool of resources in an organization that is in excess of the minimum necessary to produce a given level of organizational output" (Nohria and Gulati, 1996, p. 1246).

Redundant employees, unused capacity, unnecessary capital expenditures, and unexploited opportunities to increase outputs are all examples of slack resources (Nohria and Gulati, 1996). Several ways in which slack resources are likely to enhance a firm’s ability to adopt innovation are provided next.

Slack resources afford firms an opportunity to develop innovations because they represent available organizational resources that surpass what is required to maintain an organization’s routine operations. Surplus resources also bear the costs of instituting innovations thereby absorbing the risk of failure in innovation adoption. Finally, because using slack resources protects the resources required for organizations to optimally function on a daily basis, they can create an impetus among organizational executives to use extra resources for the continued development of their organizations.

A positive relationship between slack resources and innovation adoption in industries that rely more heavily on product or process advancements is expected to exist (Damanpour, 1991; Herold et al., 2006). Herold et al. (2006), for example, using a database of 350 US companies reported a significant positive association between slack resources and innovation adoption. Therefore, it is highly probable that as a professional sport team’s slack resources increase, team leaders and key decision-makers will be more inclined to view the construction of a new sport stadium favourably.

Organizational size: The size of a business firm represents one of the most important organizational-level determinants influencing innovation adoption (Kimberly and Evanisko, 1981; Camison-Zornoza et al., 2004). The number of employees within an organization, a firm’s total assets, a firm’s market share, and the ratio of a firm’s employment numbers to industry employment averages are all ways in which firm size can be operationalized. Two dominant positions about the firm size – innovation adoption relationship are debated in academia (Damanpour, 2010).

The first position about the effect of firm size on organizational innovation is that small organizations, more so than large organizations, will be less bureaucratic and more flexible in accepting and implementing organizational change in the form of innovation. The second debated position is that large organizations are more likely to adopt innovation than small organizations due to their superior financial and technical capabilities. Such capabilities allow for the hiring of a larger and more diverse workforce, which is relevant to organizational innovation because diversity within an organization has been linked to a greater number of innovative ideas being developed by that organization (Bolton, 1993).

While each of the aforementioned positions has received research support, anecdotal and empirical research evidence mostly points to a positive relationship between large organizational size and innovation adoption (Camison-Zornoza et al., 2004; Damanpour, 1991; Vincent et al., 2004). Notably, in Vincent et al.’s meta-analysis of 83 empirical studies from 1980 through 2003, organizational size was reported to have a positive relationship with organizational innovation. Hence, the size of a professional sport organization is a factor that is expected to be positively associated with team owners and executives deciding to adopt the construction of a new
Environmental-level determinants

Innovation is a means of creating a dynamic capability to cope with environmental uncertainty. A dynamically changing market also requires firms to continually innovate their products and/or themselves in order to respond to rapidly changing market demands (Nohria and Gulati, 1996). Of the various environmental determinants that have been studied, environmental uncertainty and market competition are two factors in particular that have strong potential to impact organizational innovation (Damanpour and Aravind, 2006; Nohria and Gulati).

Environmental uncertainty: The concept of environmental uncertainty refers to the challenges associated with predicting discontinuities in a specified business environment. Two separate dimensions comprise environmental uncertainty: environmental complexity and variability. Environmental complexity (also known as heterogeneity) refers to “the diversity and interdependence of environmental factors that organizations have to contend with” (Sia et al., 2004, p. 255). Environmental variability (also called dynamism or environmental volatility) represents “the rate and volume of changes in the environmental factors” (Sia et al., 2004, p. 256).

Emerging trends, threats, and opportunities to a business (i.e., complexity) can greatly enhance its level of environmental uncertainty. Rapid changes as well as large numbers of changes (i.e., variability) also create an uncertain environment for business firms. Consequently, complex environments require firms to devote a significant amount of time and energy to information processing and identifying new opportunities and strategies for success if they are to remain competitive among rival firms (Han et al., 1998; Sia et al., 2004).

Market-oriented firms typically will exhibit superior responsiveness through innovation in turbulent business market places because innovation represents a salient way in which they can effectively respond to environmental uncertainty (Han et al., 1998). Innovation is expected to be positively associated with environmental uncertainty because firms are more likely to pursue aggressive innovation strategies as uncertainty increases. Thus, the adoption of new stadium construction by professional sport organizations is anticipated to increase as the level of environmental uncertainty increases.

Market competition: Organizational executives face immense pressure from peers and stakeholders to relentlessly evaluate their business landscape if they are to survive heavy competition from rivals and sufficiently meet the discriminating and evolving demands of consumers. This is done by leaders so that they may possess a high level of cognizance about rivals’ activities as well as pick up new knowledge and then adjust that information to their respective industries (Frambach and Schillewaert, 2002). Organizational leaders and decision-makers from a diverse array of companies, including Apple, Google, International Business Machines (IBM), Samsung Electronics, Nike, and Under Armour have all emphasized the importance of innovation in determining the extent to which their respective businesses can be competitive and prosperous in dynamic domestic and international marketplaces (Sauter et al., 2014; Stern, 2012).

Market competition is one of the most important and widely used predictors of innovation adoption (Bernstein and Gauthier, 1998; Vincent et al., 2004). This predictor pertains to “the degree of competition reflected in the number of competitors and the number of areas in which there is competition” (Miller, 1987, p. 35). Competition in the market place can lead to innovation because it creates strong motivations among firms to obtain new information in order to compete with rivals. Market competition also can lead to innovation because it exposes businesses to new ideas, services, and/or products.

Two types of market competition are of particular importance to innovation adoption in a sport context. The competition between teams in the same professional league is one type of market competition. When speaking of MLB’s Oakland Athletics, for example, baseball commissioner Bud Selig insisted, “You can’t ask people to compete [against other MLB teams] if they have a stadium that doesn’t produce any kind of revenue to give them a chance to compete. So that’s a given” (Associated Press, 2012). A second type is competition with other professional leagues’ teams that share the same regional market, such as the NBA’s Miami Heat competing for consumer dollars against the NFL’s Miami Dolphins and MLB’s Florida Marlins. Overall, there exists a strong probability that competition with teams in the same professional league and/or teams in other professional leagues will increase the likelihood of new stadium construction adoption by a sport organization.

Construction adoption: Government perspective

The unified theory of policy innovation (Berry and Berry, 1990) consists of four categories of determinants that influence the probability of governing bodies adopting large scale innovative construction projects: (1) the motivation to innovate, (2) existence of innovation obstacles, (3) resource availability to overcome obstacles, and (4) regional diffusion effects. The latter three categories represent internal determinants whereas regional diffusion effects represent an external determinant.

Internal determinants

Election proximity (motivation to innovate): A key goal of most elected officials (policymakers) is to gain re-
election. Corresponding with this goal is the strong motivation by elected officials to highlight the successes that have taken place during their term in office in order to improve their chances for re-election (Berry and Berry, 2007). Relatively, when it comes to policy adoption, politicians also have a strong motivation to put forth proposals at times in an election cycle that are most beneficial to their political futures (Berry and Berry, 1992).

Politicians supporting the building of new sport facilities have the potential to further their political careers through the manipulation of constituents’ (many of whom may be sports fans) emotions and levels of identification with a sport franchise. Consider a scenario in which the ownership of a professional sport team is making it known to the local community they are considering relocating unless they get a new or renovated stadium. In fact, Arthur Blank, the majority owner of the NFL’s Falcons, behaved along those lines. Investors in Los Angeles, the second largest media market in the US, expressed strong interest in moving the Falcons to LA. Blank reportedly used that information to pressure Atlanta politicians and the state governor of Georgia to take a more aggressive lead on public financing of a new stadium to replace the Georgia Dome, a facility that opened in 1992 (Manasso, 2013). With such a situation in place, regardless of whether the team ownership is sabre-rattling or seriously considering relocating a team, city- and state-level politicians can position themselves to be viewed by constituents as intermediaries of the situation, if not saviours of a professional sport team, because they present or sponsor a policy that would secure a new stadium deal for the team with the city.

Politicians are keen to encourage and implement policies around election time that are expected to be perceived favourably by their constituents, irrespective of the true benefits of such policies, in order to exploit their political advantages (Berry & Berry, 1990). Thus, elected officials will be more likely to publicly consider and adopt policy innovation, such as the construction of a new sport stadium, if it is relevant to their political calendars and can be leveraged in such a way by these politicians so as to benefit their own futures as elected officials.

Political ideology (obstacle to innovation): Regardless of policymakers’ motivations to innovate, there exist subjective and objective obstacles that may prevent such motivations from becoming a reality. In terms of subjective obstacles, political ideology represents a key factor that may play a noticeable role in politicians’ taxing and spending policies when it comes to policy innovation adoption (Berry and Berry, 1992). Political ideology is not restricted to the political affiliation or party of a policy maker (e.g., Conservative, Green, Democrat, Independent, Libertarian, Republican). Instead, it refers to the underlying political philosophies of individuals in control of a governing body. Fiscally liberal individuals and/or political parties, rather than fiscally conservative individuals and/or political parties, are more inclined to support tax increases as a way to generate revenue and inspire economic development through innovation (Berry and Berry, 1992). Hence, it is expected that policymakers with a fiscally liberal political ideology will be more willing to adopt new stadium construction (through means such as tax increases) than policymakers with a fiscally conservative political ideology.

Fiscal health (resources to overcome obstacles to innovation): The fiscal health of cities and states is an objective obstacle to innovation. Ideology represents a personal belief that can be changed if it is politically beneficial to an elected official while, in comparison, the financial resources of cities and states are not easily altered by policymakers. Mention of fiscal health as an obstacle to innovation also connects the present discussion to the aforementioned topic of slack resources. Just as a business firm’s ability to innovate is linked to slack resources, a city or state government’s ability to innovate, much like a business firm’s ability to innovate, is linked to the availability of financial resources (Berry and Berry, 1992). Accordingly, fiscal health is expected to have a significant impact on whether or not elected officials are willing to adopt new stadium construction policies.

Construction adoption: Diffusion effects

Professional sport team perspective (Divisional effect)

As the number of business organizations demonstrating a positive effect from innovation adoption increases, the probability of rivals adopting that same innovation also increases (Frambach and Schillewaert, 2002). Essentially, “the value a user derives from a good increase with the number of other users of the same or similar good” (Schilling, 2002, p. 387). This demonstration of diffusion is known as ‘network externalities.’ In the context of inter-organizational relationships, network externalities enable the rate of adoption and speed of diffusion when the inherent value of an innovation increases because an organization’s competitors also use the innovation (Frambach and Schillewaert, 2002). Thus, as the number of competitors who have adopted an innovation increases, the number of non-adopters also adopting the innovation is expected to increase (Schilling).

The occurrence of subdivisions and the regularity of games between teams in the same division create divisional rivalries for US professional sport leagues. Correspondingly, competition between rival firms (e.g., Apple and Microsoft, Adidas and Nike) outside of professional sport teams is strongly linked to innovation behaviours (Rogers, 2003). Hence, it is very possible that divisional rivals’ stadium adoptions will positively influence team owners and key decision-makers considering professional sport stadium construction in the same
division.

**Government Perspective (Regional Effect)**

Regional clusters exist among US states. Within these regional clusters there is interstate competition, which can spur non-adopters of innovative policies or practices to adopt them in order to gain the observed benefits of such policies or practices as well as remain competitive against interstate rivals (Berry and Berry, 1990). States emulating one another describes a regional diffusion effect, and there are several reasons why it may occur at the city level as well.

First, “states learn from one another as they borrow innovations perceived as successful elsewhere” (Berry and Berry, 2007, p. 225). Likewise, rather than adopt innovation without a point of comparison, emulation of other cities’ innovations is a simple and cost-effective method for policymakers to identify innovation solutions to their cities’ problems because evidence already exists of other cities successfully employing the proposed policies or practices. Next, as it was previously noted, “states compete with each other” (Berry and Berry, p. 225). American cities (e.g., Austin, Los Angeles, Miami, New York), no differently than American states, compete with one another. Therefore, due to both interstate and intercity competition, the economic rewards or shortcomings observed from other states’ and cities’ adopted innovations can encourage or discourage non-adopters’ decisions to accept innovations.

Additionally, despite the assumed autonomy that states possess in the US, there still exists peer pressure (so to speak) at both national and regional levels. Such peer pressure exists at the local government level as well. As a result, widely adopted policies or practices by a majority of states or cities can act as pressure on individual states and cities who have yet to conform to the majority position (Berry and Berry, 2007). For example, almost half of the 50 US states have adopted “right to work laws,” which prevents unions from forcing workers to join and pay dues. Michigan was the 24th state to adopt such a law, a move which was made in part because the neighboring state Indiana adopted such a law and Michigan did not want businesses to leave for a rival state (Koba, 2012). Therefore, cities and states with professional sport team may be more likely to adopt new stadium construction as the number of other cities and nearby states with professional sport teams successfully adopting stadium construction increases.

**DISCUSSION AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS**

Inadequate consideration has been given to the numerous factors that may influence new stadium construction adoption. The proposed model (Figure 1) does not account for every possible variable that may be important to new stadium construction adoption. Still, the proposed model helps to advance the study and practice of sport management by providing an integrative innovation model that captures key elements of both private and public sectors.

Rather than explore a team’s perspective or a city and state government’s perspective separately, diffusion of innovation theory (Rogers, 2003) and the unified theory of policy innovation (Berry and Berry, 1990) are integrated in the conceptual model. This model provides a useful way for scholars and practitioners alike to view the salient area of new sport stadium construction through the development of a conceptual paradigm that identifies, organizes, and explores the possible relationships between various team- and city-/state-level factors and new professional sport stadium construction adoption. The model, along with the accompanying exposition, should help familiarize and inform sport professionals and policymakers about key variables that may influence collaborative innovation opportunities. With this basic level of understanding in place, these individuals should then be able to better evaluate construction adoption opportunities, ask informed questions, and make educated decisions.

Organizational determinants, for example, are important, if not the most important predictors of organizational innovation because a firm’s resources and internal capabilities play an indispensable role in its ability to achieve a competitive advantage in the business marketplace (Vincent et al., 2004). If a leader’s respective business organization lacks the internal capability to accept innovation, it will be unable to do so, regardless of whether the leader is open to innovation. Therefore, of the three categories of determinants for innovation adoption from a professional sport team’s perspective, the organizational-level factors presented in this study may be especially significant factors for sport managers and policy-makers to identify and understand before seriously pursuing new stadium construction efforts.

Another interesting determinant to consider is the significant impact that regional and divisional diffusion effects can have on stadium construction adoption. Cities with professional sport teams may take seriously the adoption of stadium construction of neighboring cities with professional sport teams in order to gather critical information and reduce uncertainty about the new stadium construction process. Key decision-makers with professional sport teams therefore should consider how many neighboring cities with professional sport teams have adopted the construction of a new stadium prior to taking their proposals to their respective city governments because city government officials are unlikely to adopt stadium construction absent sufficient understanding of the matter.

**Conflict of Interests**

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.


Full Length Research Paper

Influence of Islam on gender participation in sports among Muslim students in Kenyan universities

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There is a strong theological background supporting sports participation in Islam. Despite this background, there is still a gap between the theoretical teachings and actual participation in sports among Muslim students in the universities and the general Muslim community. The religious rationale for encouraging Muslims to participate in sports is based on the broad range of benefits accrued from such participation. The purpose of this study was to find out the level of participation and the influence of Islam on gender participation in sports among Muslim students in Kenyan public universities. The study was a survey. Factors under investigation were: gender as independent variables while level of participation and faith specific factors were the dependent variables. The target population was Muslim students from the public universities. A twelve item questionnaire was constructed on a five-point likert scale and then used to collect data. Stratified random sampling was used to get 252 subjects who filled questionnaires and returned. Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze data. Descriptive statistics were used to show the level and the influence of Islam on students’ participation in sports. One way ANOVA was used to determine gender difference. Results showed significance difference in gender participation levels. Three out of five general factors affecting Muslim student participation in sports showed significance difference; three out of seven of socio-economic factors tested showed significance difference while three out of the eleven faith-related factors affecting Muslim student participation in sports tested significant. Based on the results and findings of this study, recommendations were suggested to guide in policy formulation and further research.

Key words: Sports, Islam, participation.

INTRODUCTION

Islam means submission and peace (Quraishy, 1987). This is submission to the will of Allah which harmonizes one’s attitudes and behaviour with the divine will. Life in Islam is based on two solid foundations, belief and action.

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where belief without action is of no value and vice versa (Quraishy, 1987). The Holy Qur’an is the authoritative source of the teachings and practices of Islamic faith (Qur’an, 2:2).

Islamic teachings and practices aim at enhancing balanced well being of an individual. Sport is therefore encouraged in Islam to provoke sound thinking and revitalize the body as long as it does not involve sin or hamper other religious obligations (Abdulati, 1999). Conclusive studies have validated significant benefits of participating in physical activities (Haskell, 1984; Wood, 1987; Mc Ardle and Katch, 1991; Smikth and Gillian, 1987; Hawk, 1989, 1990; Smith and Gilligan, 1987; Morgan and Goldston, 1987).

Regarding the position of play in Islam, the holy Prophet Muhammad (PBUH) is reported to have said, “Entertain (yourselves) and play, for indeed I dislike harshness to be seen in your religion” (Suyuti, al-Jami). Islam favours good health, and accordingly healthy and fit Muslim is considered to be better than the weaker one. Regarding health and fitness, the Prophet (PBUH) is reported to have said:

“A strong believer is better and more beloved to Allah than the weak believer” (Sahih Muslim).

Islam recommends entertainment, relief and pleasure provided that it does not prevent prayer. The holy verse Enfal, 8/60 says “Against them make ready your strength to the utmost of your power”. The Prophet interpreted the word “strength” in this verse as archery. There also exists consensus among the Muslim scholars regarding the benefits of participation in sports regarding the upkeep and development of health. The Holy Quran declares that “Do not forbid good things which Allah made lawful, and do not transgress that Allah has not transgressed” (Al-Maida: 87).

The Prophet encouraged people to engage in such sports as riding, swimming and archery; these had particular use for military preparedness. He is said to have proposed that children of both sexes be taught swimming and archery (Karen et al., 2001). Swimming, shooting, archery, wrestling, horse racing, riding sports, foot racing and dancing with spears have been mentioned by names in the Qur’an and hadith. For instance Qur’an, 16:8 says, “And he created horses, mules and donkeys for you to ride and adornment”.

It is reported that Prophet Muhammad (PBUH) said, “Practice archery and horse back riding,” reported by Muslim. In separate hadith transmitted by Bukhari and Muslim it is reported that Umar said, “Teach your children swimming and archery and tell them to jump on horses,” in a separate hadith transmitted by Bukhari and Muslim an occasion is reported where the Prophet Muhammad (Peace be upon him) himself raced with his wife Aishah. She narrates, “I raced with the prophet (SAW) and beat him in the race. Later, when I had put on some weight, we raced and he won.

In a Hadith transmitted by Ahmad and Ibn Dawud, it is also reported that the prophet (PBUH) once wrestled with a man called Rukanah who was known for his strength and beat him. In a separate incidence, it is reported by Al Ash’ari that the Prophet of Allah said that a person, who comes to the mosque to offer prayers from a long distance gets highest reward (Abdulati, 1999). However, Islam has cautioned against excessiveness and sports that involve any form of gambling (Qur’an 2: 219, 5: 91-92). The Prophet (PBUH) was reported to have said:

“Fast for a few days and then break fasting, pray and sleep at night, for the body has a right on you,” Narrated by Abdullah ibn Amr.

“O you who believe, truly intoxicants and gambling and divination by arrows are an abomination of Satan’s doing; avoid them in order that you may be successful...will you not desist?” (Qur’an 2:219, 5: 91-92).

Islam advocates in favour of good health and sound physique. Sayyiduna Zayd ibn Arqam (RA) narrates that the holy Prophet (PBUH) used to say (in prayer):

“I seek your protection from powerlessness (ajz), laziness (kasil), cowardice (jubn), miserliness (bakhl), and weakness (harem).” With reference to the protection and promotion of health the Prophet (PBUH) has further said: “Our bodies have rights upon us, our eyes have rights upon us, so give everyone his due right” Ibid, Hadith No. 186, 188, 193. At another occasion He (PBUH) has stated that, “Taking proper care of one’s health is the right of the body” (Bukhari). About the health and fitness of the holy Prophet (PBUH) Tabrani and Tirmidhi report “His (PBUH) stomach and chest were in line.” It reflects fit health and ideal posture of Him (PBUH).

The Prophet (PBUH) also advised that leisure activities can be enjoyed, provided that it is purposeful, and stressed the psychological benefits of sports, He said, “If one of you feels sad, wear his bow to disperse his sadness. He also expressed, “None of you should give up playing with his bow and arrows” (Muslim).

Despite a strong theological background supporting sports participation in Islam there is still a gap between the theological teachings and the participation levels in sports among Muslim students in Kenyan universities and the general Muslim community. The purpose of this study was to find out what characterises the low Muslim participation in sports and in which ways Islam as a religion, influences Muslim students (in Kenyan public universities) participation in sports.

Related studies

An ethnographic case study by Jane and Ken (2012) on a
group of Muslim schoolgirls at two schools in England examined the issues surrounding their religious and ethnic identity and whether these conflicts affected participation in school-based Physical Education. The social categories of ethnicity and religion play a key part in shaping the identity of Muslim schoolgirls. The girls perceived Physical Education as a subject, which allows for freedoms not found elsewhere in the curriculum and they recognize the importance of physical activity. The study confirms the findings of previous research, which found that issues of kit, fasting during Ramadan and extra-curricular activities posed problems for Muslim pupils; these are features, which are especially compounded when teachers are not aware of the issues. The findings also demonstrated the exclusionary nature of traditional physical education settings. The experiences of pupils were more reliant upon the quality of individual teachers.

Shima et al. (2003), investigated the factors that motivate women athletes to participate in sport in Palestine and the motivational climate created by coaches and parents. Additionally, participants' commitment to sport was investigated as well as the social constraints that Palestinian women athletes face. Participants (n=107) included women athletes who were members of the following sport federations: soccer, volleyball, basketball, table tennis, and track and field. The results indicated women athletes in Palestine reported more intrinsic motivation to play sport than extrinsic motivation. Also, motivational climate created by the coach was the only factor to predict women's motivation to play their sport. Finally, women athletes in Palestine are highly committed to their sport.

A study of Duvall et al. (2004), in Jordan found that young Muslim female students hold positive attitudes towards participation in Physical Education. They considered Physical Education as having great significance and value in increasing leadership proficiency. However, with regard to parental influence, it appeared that parents were less encouraging of their children taking up the option of Physical Education in further education, with girls getting fewer opportunities due to social constraints. This is interesting when compared to the views of young Muslim women in the UK, who seem to have negative views regarding Physical Education in schools.

A study in Norway by Walseth (2006), showed that Muslim women who identified themselves in terms of their ethnicity were not interested in participating in sport as it challenged the boundaries of femininity and cultural identity. Those who regarded religion as a source of identification, viewed physical activity positively as it was in line with Islam's stance on health. According to Duvall et al. (2004), Islam is often cited as the reason why women cannot participate in sport. This is primarily due to a lack of understanding and awareness of the religion. In fact, ensuring good health and fitness for men and women is given paramount importance in Islam. Islam strongly promotes sport and physical activity within certain guidelines, as these are essential tools for sustaining healthy lives. Mixed groups poses major problems for many Muslim women as gyms, swimming pools and sport facilities are not segregated by gender. For some Muslim women, this is a violation of modesty; mixed venues, in effect, bar them from participating. The question of dress code has been an issue, as some schools have not catered for this essential need.

A research carried out in Birzeit University (Palestine) about gender differences in physical activities among two hundred (Male 100; Female 100) first year students. The results indicated that male perceptions about social experience were positive compared to those of females. 51% of males and 32% of females approved co-educational physical activities. The highest percentages of reasons given for disapproving were embarrassment and religious factors. 91% of males and 98% of females preferred wearing uniform during physical activities. 15% of males and 37% of females objected presence of audience during physical activities. The main reason for objection was embarrassment. 58% of males and 25% of females were willing to practice outside the university. 20% of males and 25% of females objected a trainer of opposite gender because of religious factors and embarrassment (Aminuddin and Omar-Fauzee, 2003).

A study was carried out by Carrolls (1993) on the impact of religion on sport participation in United Kingdom. The study involved two hundred participants (100 Muslims and 100 Hindus). The results showed that participation levels were inversely related to importance attached to their religious beliefs. The more important religion was for these females, the lower their sport participation. They argued that the environment in which they were to train would compromise their beliefs; however, they did not have a problem with the sport in question. Taylor and Toohey (1995), showed that Muslim women in Australia would like to participate in sporting activities but the limited numbers of existing facilities and programmes meeting their religious requirement were the limiting factor.

A survey was carried out by Kamal (2003) on perception of Malaysian college students about sport participation constraints. The responses were classified in the following categories; lack of information about existing facilities and activities; inconvenient facility location/venue and operating hours; facility too crowded and feeling awkward to participate in the sport. Others were faith specific factors like interference of annual athletic training calendar due to occurrence of Ramadan every year and sport costumes in some specific sports that do not conform to Muslim dress code, while the rest were socio-cultural reasons like traditions and customs which limit particular gender to participate in sports. However, severity of each of the factors was not determined.

Khan et al. (2012)'s study on female students' opinion about women's participation in sports reveals that 88%
female respondents like sports while 82% like to participate in it. A major portion of the sampled population (94%) consider sports as a positive activity that develops its participants physically, mentally, socially, emotionally and psychologically while 65% female respondents agreed that Islam encourages women to participate in sports for good health and fitness. 70% female respondents are of the opinion that Islam allows Muslim women to take part in sports after observing dress code while 91% said that participation of Muslim women in sports is seen as a challenge to the boundaries of their ethnic identities. It is the opinion of 91% female respondents that Muslim culture prohibits women from participating in sports while 91% said that cultural and ethnic factors determine their participation in sports. Majority of the female respondents said that spiritual and physical challenges constrain Muslim women to participate in sports while 88% said that sport is not seen as a respectable activity for women in Islamic countries. Muslim women are constrained by their parents from participating in sports, according to the view point of 86% female respondents; 86% said that Muslim women are constrained by their family and relative from participating in sports, while 85% said that Muslim women are constrained by society from participating in sports. All the respondents (100%) agreed that Islam allows women to participate in sports after observing Islamic dress code.

Kay (2005), studied Muslim girls’ responses to sport participation. Kay (2005), found that a key theme in examining sport was the cultural importance of family. In this family relationship, males are privileged and none of the family members are individuals but are all part of the collective. He found that Islam did not forbid girls to participate in sport, but set certain types of conditions that needed to conform to Islam such as circumstances regarding modesty. Gertrud (2008), reports that in a workshop in Oman (sponsored by the Sultan Quaboos University and supported by IAPESGW - International Association of Physical Education and Sport for Girls and Women) whose purpose was to identify means of improving the opportunities of Muslim women in and through sport and physical education was attended by practitioners from 14 countries across Europe, the Middle and Far East (Bahrain, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Denmark, Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Malaysia, Morocco, Oman, South Africa, Syria, Turkey, the United Arab Emirates and the United Kingdom). It took one week to come to a consensus and draft the following declaration “ACCEPT AND RESPECT”:

1. Islam is an enabling religion that endorses women’s participation in physical activity.
2. We affirm the importance of physical education and physical activity in the lives of all girls and boys, men and women.
3. We recommend that people working in the sport and education systems accept and respect the diverse ways in which Muslim women and girls practice their religion and participate in sport and physical activity, for example, choices of activity, dress and gender grouping.
4. We urge international sport federations to show their commitment to inclusion by ensuring that their dress codes for competition embrace Islamic requirements, taking into account the principles of propriety, safety and integrity.

Muslim females usually participate in physical recreational activities less frequently than male counterparts (Attarzadeh and Sohrabi, 2007; Mozafari et al., 2010). They face religious and socio-cultural restrictions due to mixed gender sport, playing dress code, general trend of the masses towards female sport and limited resources are some of the basic constraints to women participation in sport (Dagkas et al., 2010). Muslim women face much more obstacles in their participation in sport as many believe that “sports are haram (forbidden)” (Klein, 2007).

Ali (2011), undertook a study to determine the influence of Islamic belief and socio-cultural variables on the participation of Muslim female university students in recreational physical exercise as a leisure time activity. A total of 400 students in an age range of 18 to 24, who study at different Departments of Mu la University, participated in the study on a voluntary basis. Through the findings of the study, it was concluded that socio-cultural variables are more active barriers, compared to the religious variables. Elements considered as a barrier to the participation are mostly related to the gender-based view of the Muslim community towards women.

METHODOLOGY

The study was a survey carried out in Kenya among Muslim students in public universities. The participants were 252 (153 males and 99 females) from six universities. Institutional distribution of the participants was Nanyatta University having 40.4%, Maseno had the least number of males (13.3%), Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (10.5%), Egerton university (10.9%), Moi university (10%) and University of Nairobi (15%). In terms of year groups, 35.2% of the total number of respondents comprised of the first years, third years (25.9%), the second years ranked third (23.8% respondents) and fourth years (15%).

Factors under investigation were gender as independent variable while participation, level of performance and faith specific factors like mode of dress, fasting and prayer timing as dependent variables. Stratified random sampling was used where the universities represented the strata. A twelve (12) item questionnaire was constructed on a five - point Likert scale and was used to collect data. For positive statement in the questionnaire the scale was: 5 strongly agree 4 agree 3 undecided 2 disagree 1 strongly disagree while for negative statements: 1 strongly agree 2 agree 3 undecided 4 disagree 5 strongly disagree. The questionnaire had closed ended questions. Split half method was used as a test its reliability. The results obtained from the reliability test gave a coefficient of 0.89 which was reliable enough for the study according to Gay (1987).

Data collected was coded and keyed in statistical package for social sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data where the modes and frequencies found were used to describe student’s participation levels in sports. One-way ANOVA
was used at 0.05 level of significance to determine gender differences in sports participation, and also to establish relationships between independent variable (gender) with dependent variables (participation level and faith specific factors like dress code, prayer times and fasting.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Level of participation in sports

Student participation in sport was at various levels. No participation which indicated lack of interest, as spectators, for recreation purposes or for competition. Out of the total number of respondents, 74.1% (48.8% of the males and 25.3% of the females) disagreed that they lacked interest in sports while 13.5% (7.1% of the males and 6.4% of the females) agreed that they lack interest in sports. 12.4% (4.8% of the males and 7.6% of the females) were undecided. Analysis of variance showed significant difference (.029) at p level set at 0.05. The null hypothesis (I have no interest in sport) was rejected in favour of the alternative (Participating in sports is Sunnah of the prophet reacted at p level set at 0.05).

38.0% (27.7% of the males and 10.3% of the females) of the respondents agreed they participate in competitive sports, 52% (25.4% of the males and 26.6% of the females) disagreed. 9.9% (7.6% of the males and 2.3% of the females) were however undecided. ANOVA showed significant difference (.000). The null hypothesis (I participate in sport for competition) was rejected at p level set at 0.05 (Figure 1).

Faith related factors affecting Muslim student participation in sports

These were factors with doctrinal implications and were bound to influence participation. 76.2% of the respondents (48.0% of the males and 28.2% of the females) knew participating in sports is in accordance to the teaching of the prophet. 9.5% of the respondents (3.2% of the males and 6.3% of the females) did not know while 14.3% (9.5% of the males and 4.8% of the females) were undecided. Analysis of variance showed significant difference (.027) hence null hypothesis (Participating in sports is Sunnah of the prophet rejected at P level 0.05. The findings are supported by Karaman (1982) and De Knop et al. (1996).

It was observed that 59.1% of the respondents (35.7% of the males and 23.4% of the females) agreed that they did not participate in some sports because they are haram (forbidden). 19.4% of the respondents (10.7% of the males and 8.7% of the females) disagreed, while 21.5% (14.3% of the males and 7.2% of the females) were undecided. Gender differences did not show significant difference (.711). The null hypothesis (Some sports are forbidden) was accepted in favour of the
alternative with \( p \) level set at 0.05. However, what is not clear is whether the sport is unlawful in totality or just some aspects like the venue, costume or the nature of audience. These results confirm previous findings by Klein (2007).

Responses on how costuming in some sports conflict with Islamic dress code showed 74.6% of the respondents (41.7% of the males and 32.9% of the females) agreed that they never participated in sports due to lack of time or operating times conflict with prayer times. 38.9% of the respondents (23.0% of the males and 15.9% of the females) disagreed, while 12.3% (5.6% of the males and 6.7% of the females) were undecided. The null hypothesis (Some sports costume (uniform) conflict with Muslim dress code) was rejected at \( p \) level set at 0.05 since analysis of variance showed significant difference (.012) (Dagkas et al., 2010; Gertrud, 2008; Duvall et al., 2004; Jane and Ken, 2012).

As concerns operational hours of the facilities and engagement in sporting activities, 48.8% of the respondents (32.1% of the males and 16.7% of the females) agreed that they do not participate in sports due to lack of time or operating times conflict with prayer times. 38.9% of the respondents (23.0% of the males and 15.9% of the females) disagreed, while 12.3% (5.6% of the males and 6.7% of the females) were undecided. The null hypothesis was (Operating times conflict with prayer times) accepted in favour of the alternative at \( p \) level 0.05 Goodale and Witt (1989) support these findings.

81.3% of the respondents (50.0% of the males and 31.3% of the females) agreed that sporting activities could be useful in raising money for charity. 8.8% of the respondents (5.6% of the males and 3.2% of the females) disagreed with the opinion, while 9.9% (5.1% of the males and 4.8% of the females) were undecided. The null hypothesis was accepted (Sports can be useful in raising money for charity) in favour of the alternative since analysis of variance showed no significant difference (.585) at \( p \) level 0.05.

Some respondents did not participate in sports due to the presence of audience of opposite gender. 52.0% of the respondents (27% of the males and 25% of the females) agreed that they do not participate in sports due to the presence of audience of opposite gender. 32.9% of the respondents (23.4% of the males and 9.5% of the females) disagreed. 15.1% (10.3% of the males and 4.8% of the females) were however undecided. The null hypothesis (I don't participate due to the presence of audience of opposite gender) was rejected at \( p \) level 0.05. This is because analysis of variance showed significant difference (.004). Due to safety concerns there are more restrictions on females than male counterparts. The findings are supported by Dagkas et al. (2010).

Out of the 252 respondents, 43.2% (27.7% of the males and 15.5% of the females) agreed that they do not participate in sports because some sports are held on Fridays (i.e. prayer day or times). 30.2% of the respondents (15.9% of the males and 14.3% of the females) disagreed with the opinion, while 26.6% (17.1% of the males and 9.5% of the females) were undecided. The null hypothesis was (Some sports are held on Fridays (prayer days) accepted in favour of the alternative because analysis of variance showed no significant difference (.130) at \( p \) level 0.05. This confirms findings of Mcgee (2011).

Mondays and Thursdays are optional fasting days (among other prescribed days). For this reason, 52.4% of the respondents (33.7% of the males and 18.7% of the females) agreed that they do not participate in sports because some sports are held on these optional fasting days. 27.4% of the respondents (13.5% of the males and 13.9% of the females) disagreed with the opinion, while 20.2% (13.5% of the males and 6.7% of the females) were undecided. Analysis of variance showed no significant difference (.087) at \( p \) level 0.05. The null hypothesis (Some events held on (optional fasting days) was rejected, Jane and Ken (2012) support these findings.

Free mixing between genders is discouraged in Islam. Due to this, 66.7% of the respondents (38.1% of the males and 28.6% of the females) agreed that they do not participate in sports because both gender mix during training in sports facilities. 24.6% of the respondents (16.3% of the males and 8.3% of the females) disagreed, while 8.7% (6.3% of the males and 2.4% of the females) were undecided. The null hypothesis was accepted in favour of the alternative. This is because gender differences did not show significant difference (.161). This can attribute to family members and peer who tend to place more restrictions on females than male counterparts. This was observed as a case limiting Muslim and Hindu students’ participation in sports in the United Kingdom (Carrolls, 1993; Dagkas et al., 2010; Duvall et al., 2004).

Month of Ramadhan occurs every lunar year of Islamic calendar. The study revealed that during fasting, 60.0% of the respondents (38.5% of the males and 21.5% of the females) agreed that they do not participate in sports during the month of fasting. 25.0% of the respondents (14.3% of the males and 10.7% of the females) disagreed. 15.0% (7.9% of the males and 7.1% of the females) were undecided. Significant difference (.055) was shown among the groups and therefore the null hypothesis (Some events coincide with month of fasting) was accepted in favour of the alternative with \( p \) level set at 0.05. The findings are supported by Jane and Ken (2012) and Carroll and Hollinshead (1993).

Gender differences among the groups were not significant (.789). The null hypothesis (Sports can enhance brotherhood and peace) was accepted in favour of the alternative with \( p \) level set at 0.05 (Figure 2).

**Conclusion**

Faith related factors affected varyingly Muslim students
participation in sporting activities as spectators, for recreation and competitively, some did not participate due to lack of interest. This could have been as result of the attitude held by the participants based on their knowledge, beliefs or past socialization about sports and its significance.

Some students did not participate in sports due to incompatibility of their free time and facility scheduled times on campus. The universities sports officials can overcome this by providing enough information about existing facilities and programmes schedules especially during orientation to new students. Several ways could be used to publicize such information; they include establishing sport web pages on the university Internet, display media, bulletins boards, student newsletters and brochures. This would help utilize the available few facilities and programmes when student timings can permit them to do so out of class or prayer times.

In general, the subjects (both males and females) were uncomfortable with costumes in sports like swimming unless it was one gender using the facility at a time. This is because it conflicted with the dress code and free mixing requirement. Despite Muslim dress code giving men more opportunities from available options, proper scheduling where each gender can have provisions for using the facility can enhance more participation.

1. The stakeholders need to come up with a framework that will harmonize sporting activities to meet faith requirements of participants. This will enable physical activities to be designed to fit various participants without infringement on their faith like the case of the declaration “ACCEPT AND RESPECT”.
2. Coaches and other stakeholders in Institutions should expand awareness and education of the benefits (Physical, health, social and psychological) of engaging in sports. This will separate myths from facts about engaging in physical activities. This will help to change generalized misconceptions (by Muslim students) about participation in physical activities. This is because some of the reasons of non participation are based on sheer ignorance on the part of participants on the expected outcomes and the spiritual foundation of sports.
3. Institutions need to expand sports facilities and programmes to help reduce overcrowding in the available facilities. Expanded facilities and programmes will make scheduling easy hence attract, and encourage both males and females to participate in physical activities especially those opposed to mixing of gender. Such expansions should be based on need assessment to enhance utility.
4. Broader studies need to be conducted to identify factors affecting Muslim (and other denominations due to doctrinal difference) students participation in sports at other levels of learning in Kenyan institutions.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In light of the results study, the following recommendations are suggested.

**Conflicts of interest**

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.
REFERENCES


Full Length Research Paper

Competencies and training needs for school sport managers in the North-west Province of South Africa

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It is important to understand which competencies are needed for managerial and administrative effectiveness of school sport managers with regard to the design, delivery and direction of school sport programmes. The purpose of this study was to determine the competencies and training needs for secondary school sport managers in the North-west Province of South Africa. Data were gathered from 79 school sport managers in the North-west Province by means of a validated self-compiled questionnaire. Descriptive statistics, factor analysis and a dependent t-test were used to compare which competencies school sport managers perceive as important in their work with the competencies they actually perform. Functional and core competencies were found to be important for managing school sport effectively. There were statistically significant differences between the perceived importance of competencies and the frequency with which competencies were actually performed. Respondents attached greater importance to functional and core competencies than the proportion of time spent actually performing them. Furthermore, results indicated the need to train teachers in managing sport finance, sport facilities and human resources, as well as presenting workshops in public relations, sport marketing and sport organisation.

Key words: Competencies, functional competencies, core competencies, school sport manager, training needs.

INTRODUCTION

Management competencies are highly valued within sport, and a capable and efficient sport manager has become essential to manage and run school sport activities effectively (Hurd, 2005). The school sport manager is the leader who regulates, facilitates, promotes or organises any sport-related activity in school (Vosloo, 2014). Many school sport managers are appointed because they possess the essential attributes required, namely enthusiasm, energy and administrative experience; however, they sometimes find themselves ill-equipped with the actual competencies, skills, knowledge and qualities to cope with their work (Chelladurai, 2005). To understand the role that school sport managers are expected to fulfil with regard to the design, delivery and
direction of school sport programmes, it is vital to understand the competencies needed for managerial and administrative effectiveness (Barcelona, 2001).

Management areas are universal in sport as they are performed at most sport-related sites, and should also be reflected upon to identify possible sport management competencies required by school sport managers (Pedersen et al., 2011). Vosloo (2014) divided competencies into functional (sport finance management, human resource management, sport marketing and operational management), and core competencies. Core competencies consist of fundamental and general management competencies, where fundamental competencies involve those actions performed to achieve the organisational goals (planning, organising, leading and control) and general management competencies relate to the basic day-to-day management competencies such as office administration tasks that the school sport manager must perform (Vosloo, 2014). According to Steyn et al. (2012), office administration includes aspects such as the ability to communicate effectively, managing time, managing stress, conducting meetings, managing information, operating a computer, and managing risk. Researchers have also found that competencies expected of sport managers comprise strong communicative and social aspects with an emphasis on the importance of interpersonal communication, public relations, advertising and techniques of personal management (Horch and Schutte, 2003). On the other hand, Quarterman et al. (2005) stated that a combination of personal, human, conceptual, technical and conjoined skills is necessary when working as a sport manager.

By identifying essential school sport management competencies and needs for the training of teachers may be meaningful for the effective provision and management of school sport activities (Vosloo, 2014). Secondary schools are professional institutions where, in most cases, school sport managers are mainly teachers, recognised for their professional credentials and expertise in the general subject of education, and are, in addition to what happens in the classroom, also entrusted with the management of sport-related activities (Lopiano and Zotos, 2014). It has become necessary to help teachers update their knowledge and skills to be more competent in managing school sport and this can be done in the form of using multiple options such as online classes, conference seminars and workshops (Whitehead and Blackburn, 2013). The school sport manager is seen as a central figure in the management of school sport and in the athlete’s sport experience; however, to do so, they should be properly trained (Vosloo, 2014).

The training programmes of sport managers should focus on general and specific facets of sport (Lambrecht, 1991) and should be such that aspirant managers are trained in the competencies necessary to manage sport-related enterprises effectively (Hollander, 2000). The professional preparation of sport managers is questioned by Baker and Southall (2007), where they suggest that a more context-specific approach should be undertaken. According to Vosloo (2014), the contents and learning outcomes related to sport management programmes are generic and do not necessarily conform to the unique sport management training needs of school sport managers in South African schools. An increasing need for trained and qualified school sport managers is the result of the worldwide professionalisation of sport, and in South Africa, the reality seems to be that school sport managers are not qualified to manage sport effectively and should therefore be properly trained (Vosloo, 2007; Burger et al., 2008). School sport managers should traverse context-specific sport management programmes for teacher training that would not only contribute to the maintaining of service standards in schools, but also to increasing the professional development of school sport managers (Skinner et al., 2004).

Considerable attention in research has been given to the competencies of sport managers in general, but there is insufficient knowledge and empirical evidence available with regard to the training needs and competencies required for the management of school sport in a diversity of South African schools (Vosloo, 2014). The lack of literature and empirical support therefore necessitates the aims of this study, namely to determine the competencies that school sport managers have, as well as the areas they need training in to be more competent in managing school sport.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Using a quantitative study approach, a questionnaire was constructed and administered to an availability sample of 79 secondary school sport managers (59 men and 20 women; age range from 20 to 56+ years) in the North west Province (NWP). The criterion for participation in this study was that they must be responsible for managing school sport at a secondary school with more than 200 learners. (It was assumed to be unlikely for schools with fewer than 200 learners to have a sport manager at the school). Only secondary schools were approached to take part in this study for the reason that the scope of the study is not too big. A total of 123 questionnaires were sent of which 79 were received back.

Instrument

An empirical survey was chosen as research method to collect primary data. Primary data were collected by means of a self-compiled questionnaire with closed-form scaled items. The questionnaire was compiled and then pilot to determine face and content validity. For the piloting process, the questionnaire was completed by forty-three (43) final-year sport management students from the North-West University who did not participate in the final study. Changes were made according to the feedback received from these students, and a final version of the questionnaire was compiled. The main focus of the questionnaire was, firstly, to determine which competencies secondary school sport managers regard as important to manage school sport. Secondly, to determine to what extent they perform these competencies when
managing school sport. Finally, to determine to what extent they would like to receive training in specific sport management programmes to enhance their competence to manage school sport. Section A of the questionnaire was used to collect important demographic and biographical information, while section B consisted of questions regarding the management and competencies of school sport managers. To identify the training needs of school sport managers, a third section, section C, was implemented. Respondents had to indicate which similar programmes they have attended before as well as to what extent they would like to attend these programmes for further training.

Descriptive statistics of each variable were analysed identifying the frequencies, valid percentages, mean scores, and standard deviations of various items. A principal component exploratory factor analysis with Oblimin rotation was performed to identify factors in the data. The reliability of the factors was then determined by Cronbach’s alpha coefficients. A dependent t-test was applied to determine whether there were significant differences between the perceived importance of competencies according to sport managers and the frequency with which they are actually performed. A three-point Likert scale was used to determine the extent of importance and frequency of performance of competencies of the school sport managers in managing school sport, where 1 = not important/ to a small extent, 2 = important/ to some extent, and 3 = very important/ to a large extent. By using Cohen’s guidelines, the effect sizes were calculated (small effect: $d=0.2$; medium effect: $d=0.5$; large effect: $d=0.8$) to determine the practical significance of these differences.

RESULTS

The following results will outline the management competencies required by school sport managers to successfully manage school sport as well as specific areas school sport managers require training in.

Profile of respondents

Results of the data on the profile of the respondents are presented in Table 1. From the 79 respondents, 75% were males and 25% females. The majority of the respondents (30%) are between the ages of 46 and 50 years and 15% and 14% of the respondents between the ages of 20 to 30 and 31 to 40 years, respectively. Furthermore, 14% of the managers are 56 years and older. The primary professions for the majority of respondents are school teachers (85%), with only 5% full-time employed as school sport managers. Most of the respondents (56%) have been involved in managing sport in general for more than 10 years, and 24% are still new in managing sport – five years or less.

Competencies

Respondents had to indicate the importance they attach to different competencies as well as to what extent they actually perform these competencies in managing school sport. Table 2 presents the results of competencies ranked according to their importance as well as the respondents’ extent of performing these competencies.

### Table 1. Profile of school sport managers at secondary schools in the NWP.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>General information</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-25</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-45</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-50</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-55</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56+</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (years)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-25</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-45</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-50</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-55</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56+</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profession</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport manager (full time)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coach and sport manager</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement in managing sport (years)</td>
<td>0-2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 15</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2. Importance of competencies and extent of performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competency</th>
<th>Competencies perceived as very important (%)</th>
<th>Competencies performed to a large extent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organising league-related issues</td>
<td>83.5</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing sport finances</td>
<td>79.7</td>
<td>39.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scheduling training timetables</td>
<td>75.6</td>
<td>53.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing office procedures</td>
<td>74.7</td>
<td>44.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing use and maintenance of sport facilities</td>
<td>74.7</td>
<td>44.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing equipment</td>
<td>74.4</td>
<td>48.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organising sporting events</td>
<td>71.8</td>
<td>50.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drawing-up competition roster</td>
<td>68.4</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compiling code of conduct</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruiting/administering coaches</td>
<td>59.5</td>
<td>30.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conducting sport meetings</td>
<td>58.2</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addressing legal issues</td>
<td>55.7</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compiling sport constitution</td>
<td>51.9</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing public relations</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Factor pattern matrix on the importance of functional sport management competencies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competencies</th>
<th>Functional competencies factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Managing public relations</td>
<td>0.785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compiling code of conduct</td>
<td>0.721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addressing legal issues</td>
<td>0.691</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruiting and administering coaches</td>
<td>0.685</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compiling sport constitution</td>
<td>0.664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scheduling training timetables</td>
<td>0.618</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing office procedures</td>
<td>0.506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing finances</td>
<td>0.447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha</td>
<td>0.811</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STD. deviation</td>
<td>0.342</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents regarded seven of the 14 competencies as very important, ranging between 70 and 83.5%, but the extent they actually perform these competencies ranges between 39 and 62%. Managing sport finances indicated the biggest difference between competencies respondents perceive as very important (79.7%) and performed to a large extent (39.3%).

Functional and core competencies

Based on the results that analysed the importance of sport management competencies, two main competency factors were identified, namely functional competencies and core competencies. A mean score between 2.50 and 3.0 on the Likert scale is interpreted as a high value (important towards very important), while a mean score of less than 1.50 is interpreted as a low value (towards not important at all). With reference to Table 3, the statistical analysis of the functional competency factor indicated that it can be regarded as reliable (Cronbach’s alpha $\alpha = 0.81$) and the average of all contributing items can consequently be used to represent this factor.

All competencies had a factor loading higher than 0.45, which indicates that these competencies can therefore be regarded as relevant to the functional competency factor. The mean score for this functionality factor is 2.57, which means that the functionality competencies are, according to the three-point Likert scale, regarded as very important for school sport managers to perform. With reference to
Table 4. Factor pattern matrix on the importance of core sport management competencies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competencies</th>
<th>Core competencies factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Drawing-up competition rosters</td>
<td>0.235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organising sporting events</td>
<td>0.809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing equipment</td>
<td>0.728</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conducting sport meetings</td>
<td>0.662</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organising league related issues</td>
<td>0.553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing use, maintenance and repairs of equipment</td>
<td>0.552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha</td>
<td>0.797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STD. Deviation</td>
<td>0.326</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Comparison of importance and actual performance of competencies by school sport managers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competency</th>
<th>Mean (X)</th>
<th>Std. dev. (s)</th>
<th>P-value (p)</th>
<th>Effect size (d)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Functional</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>0.35581</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>0.60705</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>0.31560</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>0.56572</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4, the core competency factor is also regarded as reliable with a Cronbach’s alpha α = 0.80, thereby indicating that the average of all contributing items can be used to represent this factor.

All competencies, except drawing-up competition rosters, have a loading higher than 0.55, which indicates that these competencies can therefore be regarded as relevant to the core competencies factor. With a mean score of 2.71, these core competencies can, according to the three-point Likert scale, be regarded as very important competencies for school sport managers to perform. Based on the mean, it seems that the respondents regard core competencies (mean 2.71) as more important than functional competencies (mean 2.57).

To determine whether there was a difference in the relative importance and actual performance of the functional and core competencies, a dependent t-test was performed. Both the importance and performance were measured on a three-point Likert scale. Table 5 provides a descriptive outline of the gap analysis and reveals that respondents regard the importance of functional competencies (mean 2.57) and core competencies (mean 2.71) as very important, but their actual performance of functional competencies (mean 2.09) and core competencies (mean 2.36) is lower. The gap between the importance and actual performance of functional and core competencies was found to be statistically significant (p<0.001) with a large practical significance (functional competencies, d=0.76, core competencies d=0.62).

Sport management training

For the purpose of the study, sport management training by means of presenting workshops can be regarded as a method of training for school sport managers in different sport-related areas. Results in Table 6 reveal that an average of only 18.2% of the respondents has attended related sport management workshops before, with sport officiating (35.4%) being the workshop most attended, and sport public relation (7.6%) being the least attended workshop. On average, 19.1% of respondents do not regard it as important to attend workshops related to sport management competencies, while the majority of respondents (80.9%) did reveal their need to attend such workshops in sport management competencies (some and large extent).

Table 6 also indicates that in six of the sport management related areas (sport public relations, human resource management, sport finances, sport marketing, sport organisation, and sport law); more than 50% of
respondents would to a large extent want to attend such workshops.

DISCUSSION

The functional competencies (managing public relations, compiling a code of conduct, addressing legal issues, recruiting and administering coaches, compiling a sport constitution, and scheduling training time-tables) and core competencies (organising sporting events, managing equipment, and conducting sport meetings) indicated as important by the sport managers in the North West schools are in line with that reported by Cuskel and Auld (1991), Hollander (2000) and Horch and Schutte (2003), which can contribute to more effective sport management. Cuskel and Auld (1991) revealed that public relations, financial management, programme planning and management and interpersonal communication were perceived as the most important competencies for sport managers, while Hollander (2000) identified functional management competencies (sport finance, human resource management, sport marketing, and operational management) as important competencies to manage sport. Horch and Schutte (2003) stated that interpersonal communication, public relations, advertising, and techniques of personal management are important competencies that sport managers should possess.

There are statistically significant differences (p<0.001) between the core and functional competencies respondents regard as very important and actually performing them. Possible reasons why school sport managers do not perform the competencies they see as important were not fully explored in this study, but might include lack of time, lack of enjoyment, role overload, role expectancies, distinct and differing reward systems, differing sport experiences, unavoidable conflict situations, and role stress (Millsagle and Morley, 2004). With regard to this study, a possible reason why respondents do not actually perform the competencies they perceive as important could be because of a lack of knowledge and training on how to perform these competencies. Not many of the respondents attended workshops before, which indicates a possible lack of knowledge in managing school sport. This concurs with Jackson and Rothmann (2006), who stated that a lack of training and development of teachers in the North West Province may contribute to the fear that their skills would become redundant. Results further showed that respondents would like, to a large extent, to attend workshops in sport finance, organising sporting facilities, human resource management, sport public relations, sport marketing, and sport management. These results concur with the scientific fields Hollander (2000) identified for training in sport management, namely training in sport finances, human resource management, sport marketing, and operational management (facility and event management).

Theoretical and practical contribution of this study relates to the specific training needs of school sport managers from selected secondary schools in the NWP. This is also the first study that determines the specific training needs of school sport managers from selected schools in the NWP. Competencies perceived as very important to manage school sport were identified as well as the need to attend workshops in sport management competencies. By identifying the specific training needs, workshops in sport finance, organising sporting facilities, human resource management, sport public relations, sport marketing, and sport management, will be developed and presented to school sport managers in the NWP to improve their competencies to manage school sport more effectively.

Conclusion

From the results of this study, it can be concluded that
the participating secondary schools in the North West Province in general make use of school teachers to manage school sport. School teachers already have a heavy workload in the classroom and must, additionally, manage school sport. It was indicated that these school sport managers lack the relevant competencies required to manage sport, thereby contributing to the insufficient and even non-existing management of school sport. The contemporary school sport manager needs to be properly trained to demonstrate skills and competencies, regardless of the specific school in which one is employed or the type of position one holds.

A possible limitation of this study is that not all schools are familiar with and have a good understanding of the type of position one holds.

Conflict of interests

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

REFERENCES


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