
By

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Declaration

I, Emmanuel Simo Mayeza, declare that this dissertation is my own original work. I acknowledge the work of others through references both in-text and bibliography. I also declare that this dissertation has not previously been submitted for a degree or examination in the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) or in any other university.

Signed:

Date:
Acknowledgements

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Abstract

There is a growing body of knowledge in the field of sociology of sports and education which speaks to the positive relationship between youth engagement in organised sports and school performance. These sources of knowledge are largely confined to the developed countries in Europe and North America addressing the impact of organised sports on Positive Youth Development (PYD). In a developing context such as South Africa, which is undergoing rapid transformation from the previous legacy of apartheid, youth are defined as being at risk especially in light of the vast levels of social and economic inequalities which threatens its newly found democracy. It is in this context, the study located in a historically disadvantaged high school in the township of Chesterville in the Metropolitan Area of Durban, examines the role of school sports engagement as an element of PYD in enhancing school performance.

The study seeks to assess the applicability of PYD principles in a developing and historically disadvantaged context within a school setting with the purpose of making contribution towards intervention programmes for the vast majority of South African youth who are considered to be at risk. Using a sample of 100 male and female learners in Grades 11 and 12 with an equal distribution of sports engaged and non-engaged, the study tests the principles of two PYD elements in respect of school Competence and Contribution to community. The study is of an exploratory nature on the applicability of PYD programmes in a context such as South Africa and does not purport to be conclusive, but instead the merit of a study of this nature is to set the foundation for future research studies in the fields of sociology of sports and education in order to intervene on the different social, political and economic volatility that South African youth are challenged within a democratic era.
List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

ABC - Abstain Be faithful and use a Condom
ANC - African National Congress
BC - Before Christ
CSS - Chesterville Secondary School
CSVR - Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation
DA - Democratic Alliance
DoE - Department of Education
DSR - Department of Sports and Recreation
EPWP - Expanded Public Works Programme
GPA - Grade Point Average
HIV/AIDS - Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HOD - Head of Department
HRW - Human Rights Watch
HSRC - Human Sciences Research Council
ICCPR - International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
ILO - International Labor Organization
IOC - International Olympic Committee
KZNDoE - KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education
MEC - Member of the Executive Committee
NOCSA - National Olympic Committee of South Africa
NP - National Party
NPA - National Prosecuting Authority
NQF - National Qualifications Framework
NSC - New Sociology of Childhood
NSC - National Sports Council
NYDA - National Youth Development Agency
NYP - National Youth Policy
OBE - Outcome Based Education
PASW - Predictive Analytic Software
PYD - Positive Youth Development
RDP - Reconstruction and Development Programme
SA - South Africa
SACOS - South African Council of Sports
SAFA - South African Football Association
SANOC - South African Olympic Committee
SANROC - South African Non-Racial Olympic Committee
SASA - South African Sports Association
SAT - Stanford Achievement Test
SES - Socio-economic Status
SETA - Sector Education and Training Authorities
SGB - School Governing Body
SMT - School Management Team
SPSS - Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UN - United Nations Organization
UNESCO - United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
USA - United States of America
VCT - Voluntary Counselling and Testing
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Chapter One

“The relationship between high school sport participation and educational achievement is one of the most discussed, debated, and researched topics in all of sport scholarship, particularly when one looks at the social scientific research focused on sport and society interactions and their consequences” (Hartmann, 2008: 3).

Introducing the Research Project

1.1 Introduction

Sport is an integral part of the social and cultural fabric of human life; values reflected in sporting activities such as striving for excellence, fair play, cooperation, hard work and commitment to goal attainment are inextricably linked to society’s mainstream cultural values (Jordan, 2000: 54). The past three decades have witnessed an increase in the number of research studies pointing to the positive outcomes of youth engagement in organised sports. In particular, a growing body of knowledge speaks to the positive relationship between youth engagement in organised interscholastic sports, and school performance (Grissom, 2005; Dwyer et al, 2001; Jordan, 2000).

However, many of these research studies originate from the developed countries of Europe and North America. Formal research of this nature in the southern African region is rare, if it exists at all. The research on sports in this region tends to focus on unequal sports opportunities across race, gender and social classes (Hargreaves, 2000) both in the apartheid years and in the new democratic dispensation. Other theorists, researchers and writers have focused on the role of youth sports engagement in enhancing physical health, reducing delinquency, creating responsible citizens and building the nation (Pelak, 2002).

This study aims to bridge this gap in scholarly research by assessing the relationship between youth school sports engagement and school performance in South Africa. The study sample largely involves youth from backgrounds characterised by poverty. Holding social class-related variables constant, the study will assess whether sports engagement has similar or different impacts on males and females in the study sample. This study is located in a historically disadvantaged high school in the township of Chesterville in the Metropolitan Area of Durban, which has been underdeveloped throughout its history. Given the many developmental challenges faced by this community, this
study examines how the present generation of youth in a disadvantaged neighbourhood, can be positively impacted on through sports engagement and concomitantly advance in their educational achievements, which will improve their life chances.

The relationship between low levels of education and the perpetuation of intergenerational poverty is widely acknowledged in the sociological literature (Chagunda, 2002; Mlatsheni and Rospabé, 2002; Everatt, 1995). In poverty studies, educational advancement is perceived to contribute to social capital within impoverished communities and to help break the cycle of intergenerational poverty. It is in this context that this study seeks to ascertain the positive role of sports engagement on the educational outcomes of youth in a historically disadvantaged community. The researcher, in conducting this study, wishes to contribute knowledge, not only to the development of sports sociology but also to the field of the sociology of education within the South African context.

1.2 Brief Introduction to the Context

The context of this study is Chesterville Secondary School (CSS), a public high school within the Chesterville Black Township. Moller et al (1978: i) describe townships as inexpensive public housing estates, which are home to the majority of permanently settled Africans in South Africa. Chesterville is a pre-World War Two township in the greater Cato Manor region of the eThekwini Metropolitan Area, about six kilometres from central Durban west of the N2 freeway.

Despite the progress made since South Africa’s democratic elections in 1994, many social issues still face the community of Chesterville. These include broken families, high poverty levels, youth unemployment, alcohol and drug abuse, a high prevalence of Human Immunodeficiency Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS), minimal opportunities for youth sports and poor educational standards. The majority of the residents are low-income earners, resulting in many forms of social and psychological deprivation (Chagunda, 2002).

CSS is located at number 3 Ngwenya Road, off Mahlathi Road, central Chesterville. The school caters for Grades 8 to 12 learners from Chesterville and surrounding areas. The school has a history of relatively poor standards of education; for example the Grade 12 pass rate in 2007 was only 58%. 
However, since 2008 Grade 12 examination results have improved, with a pass rate of 70% in 2008, 64% in 2009 and 68% in 2010\(^1\).

The school’s Vision and Mission Statement states that it is committed to producing fully developed future citizens through the provision of quality education. More specifically, it states that:

\[
\text{We, the CSS, commit ourselves to change and become a self-reliant school.}
\]
\[
\text{In doing this, we shall provide quality and relevant education that will develop}
\]
\[
\text{a learner to a more productive human being that will positively contribute}
\]
\[
\text{to the building of the community (Refer to Appendix H).}
\]

In order to achieve this, the school needs to foster relationships with the community it serves and share its resources for the upliftment of both the school and the community. It is postulated that through exploring possible positive roles for sporting activities in education, the school (and the community) could use sports to improve learner attachment to the school, reduce the number of learners leaving school before completing matriculation, and improve the standard of education within the school and hence the development of responsible citizens.

It is commonly accepted that a healthy school environment consists not only of academic teaching and learning, but extracurricular activities, including sports. Sports activities in particular are known to play an important role in positive youth development. CSS does offer some sporting activities, including basketball, netball, soccer, swimming and volleyball. A debating society, music, and speech and drama practices are also available. The range of activities on offer is somewhat limited, no doubt due to limited financial and other resources and the need to prioritise the basic education. Because of the significant contribution it is known to make to the educational development of learners (White Paper for the Department of Sports and Recreation, South Africa, 1998: 3), participation in sports is strongly encouraged.

Education is one of the factors that can improve citizens’ employability and reduce inter-generational poverty. Research by United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) has shown that investment in education supports the development of sustainable democracy and social and economic emancipation (UNESCO cited in Khumalo, 2011: 54). Social upliftment can be achieved in Chesterville through encouraging Chesterville youth to stay in school.

\(^1\) The pass rates were obtained via school administration notices of school performance following interviews enquiring about the school’s academic history with some members of the school management team.
and complete their high school education. Within schools, sporting activities are recognised as having the potential to increase learner attachment to school culture, and enhance competence at school, resulting in better school performance (Grisom, 2005). Hence a need exists for research that explores possible relationships between youth sports engagement and the successful academic development of young people, especially at-risk youth (Arnold, 1997) such as those living in the Chesterville Township.

1.3 CSS as a Research Locality

The study is school-based because it was considered that a school environment is a good setting for health promotion interventions among school-age people. Schools offer an environment where the majority of young people living in a community can be reached repeatedly and continuously (Mkhize, 2002), and where academic learning can be combined with essential life skills education and health-promoting lifestyles through exercise as well as other physical activity opportunities for learners (M elicich, 2007). It was with these assumptions in mind that CSS was selected as a research site for the study.

Other practical factors influenced the decision to base the study at CSS. The school is located within a historically marginalised Black township and provides an opportunity to test positive youth development principles in such a context, as opposed to previous studies undertaken in developed countries. As one of the oldest Black townships in KwaZulu-Natal province, Chesterville is a good research site to measure how Black communities have progressed socially, politically and economically since the advent of democracy, breaking away from the apartheid legacy of social disadvantage. It was envisaged that a study of this nature would highlight in particular youth development needs within this community since this category of the population has the most potential to break away from the social disadvantage borne by previous generations.

Much of the literature on the educational development of the youth through sports views participation in sport as a basic human right, which provides positive opportunities for youth empowerment in all situations; accordingly youth sport is often linked with what has come to be known as positive youth development (PYD) (Damon, 2004). The school provides an excellent research site to measure PYD for comparative purposes against North American and European studies on its general applicability, sustainability and prospects for adaptation to a third world context.
The study assumes that by revealing the various possible positive contributions sports can make to improved school performance within this particular community, school-going youth, and the school as well as the broader community can use sports activities as youth empowerment tools. Sports activities can be used as complementary activities in combination with other broader social efforts aimed at empowering township youth (Hegar, 1989), promoting PYD (Damon, 2004) and building social capital (Bourdieu, 1986).

1.4 Brief Introduction to the Research Design

This study employs a case study analysis as a methodological approach to collect, analyse and interpret data to inform the hypothesis underlying the subject under investigation. Apart from collecting primary data a case study aims to understand the units of the study as a whole rather than individually (De Vause, 2001). The units of analysis in this study include both Grade 11 and 12 learners engaged and not engaged in sports. School teachers, particularly the members of the school management team (SMT), including the school principal or deputy and heads of departments (HODs) and teachers involved in organising school sports are included in the sample as they are key stakeholders within the school. The aim is to build an understanding that is informed by the context in which the whole study exists. In this way one avoids examining just one constituent element.

The study sample comprises 100 randomly selected grade 11 and 12 registered CSS learners (both males and females) during the 2011 academic year. Within the sample of 100 learners, 50 comprise a group of learners who are engaged in school sports and a further 50 are learners who are not engaged in sports. In each group, 25 of the learners are male, and 25 are female. With an equal gender distribution, the study lends itself to further analysis based on gender diversity. This will help to understand the impact of sports engagement on the school performance of males and females respectively. Gender similarities and differences are examined and analysed in terms of the existing literature.

Self-administered survey questionnaires are used to collect primary data from learners. The questionnaires contain both closed- and open-ended questions in order to elicit both quantitative and qualitative data, thus allowing for the triangulation of data in the analysis and interpretation phase of the study. The purpose of 'triangulation' is to capture a more complete, holistic and contextual portrayal of the unit(s) under study (Denzin, 1978: 302).
In addition to the survey questionnaires, the study uses in-depth, one-on-one interviews with key stakeholders within the school. Included within the stakeholder sample are teachers within the SMT and teachers involved in school sports. The objective is to gain in-depth contextual information about the school itself and other dimensions related to the study. The profile of respondents, opinions concerning the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance and issues around the development of sporting skills among learners within the research locality were explored during the interviews.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

Existing literature suggests that youth sports engagement has a potentially positive impact on school performance (Dwyer et al, 2001; Jordan, 2000; Grissom, 2005). The objective of the current study is to assess the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance amongst learners at CSS, a research locality where a topic of this nature has not been explored through formal research.

The study aims to achieve the following specific objectives:

1. To assess the relationship, if it exists, between youth sports engagement and school performance amongst randomly selected grade 11 and 12 learners registered at CSS, Durban.

2. If any kind of relationship exists between the two variables in point one above, the objective will be to assess the strength of that relationship.

3. Holding social class-related variables constant, the third objective is to assess whether sports engagement has similar or different educational impact on males and females in the study sample.

4. The fourth and final objective of the study is to assess the extent to which desired PYD outcomes such as school competence and contribution to community through sports engagement are applicable in the context of the study.
1.6 Significance of the Study

Sport plays an important role in shaping youth identity throughout the world. It is a means of socialisation, and a process of mentorship that solidifies youth personality as social actors in later adult life (Arnold, 1997). Participation in constructive, learning-rich interscholastic or community sporting activities is known to advance school performance and thus helps to promote the youth’s socio-economic advancement (White Paper for the Department of Sport and Recreation, South Africa, 1998: 3-4).

South Africa is a youthful society. The government's National Youth Policy (NYP, 2009-2014: 11) notes that youth (people aged 14 to 35 years) form the largest age group in the country and that their numbers are increasing at a higher rate than the adult population. Youth is a population group often studied by sociologists because, ultimately, young people replace their elders in the economic and political spheres of life.

Young people are often described as finding themselves in vulnerable situations. The social issues that challenge their country often affect them more than their elders. Unemployment, poverty, alcohol and drug abuse, homelessness, HIV/AIDS and other communicable diseases, violence, crime, and unplanned pregnancy are some of the social issues that youth are susceptible to in contemporary South African society.

As a historically disadvantaged Black community, the Chesterville community, in common with many Black townships in South Africa, is faced with many social issues, which hamper efforts aimed at positive youth development. Low educational levels, broken families, poverty, youth unemployment, minimal opportunities for organised sports and recreation, alcohol and drug abuse, crime, a high prevalence of HIV/AIDS and other forms of social deprivation are some of the many challenges facing Chesterville youth. The development of the community's future generation calls for youth development initiatives and programmes. Youth sports and recreation is one such programme that needs attention. Research that explores possible relationships between youth sports engagement and school performance will make a positive contribution to youth health and educational development, resulting in an empowered future generation.

The historically under-privileged position occupied by Black urban township youth with regard to recreational, educational and occupational opportunities is well-documented and has given impetus to intervention programmes aimed at addressing the social imbalances created and entrenched by
apartheid's separate development policies. However, the lack of opportunities for youth to use discretionary time in a constructive manner has received little attention within the southern African region. More specifically, the field of youth sports engagement and school performance is underdeveloped in South Africa.

A study that explores avenues for promoting positive youth development is both needed and important because it can provide a glimpse into the future socio-economic and political landscape of South African society. Economic equity, political stability and social transformation in the South African context remain matters of key concern to youth, and thus the study is interested in the ways in which historically marginalised population groups become part of the new South Africa’s socio-economic and political activities.

1.7 Structure of Dissertation

This dissertation is divided into six chapters, with each chapter being further divided into separate sections.

The first chapter provides an overview of the topic under research. It discusses the nature, scope and extent of the study. The role of youth sports engagement in empowering the youth of Chesterville is briefly illustrated against the backdrop of the sociological theories that inform the current study. In addition, this chapter elaborates on the study's research design, identifies the main objectives of the study, and suggests why this topic requires research. It locates and describes the study area and also outlines the structure of the dissertation.

Chapter two provides both the literature review and theoretical framework. The chapter reviews selected and relevant studies that address the role of youth sports in enhancing school performance, the emerging PYD approach to youth empowerment and development and an analysis of social capital theory. These studies are located within the concepts of youth empowerment, building social capital and the emerging PYD literature in the western world with a view to adapting, modifying and applying it within a developing context such as South Africa. The main purpose of this chapter is to present what sociologists and practitioners from related disciplines have written on the subject, highlighting what knowledge already exists and some of the gaps and limitations in the literature. This chapter will also provide the theoretical framework against which the key assumptions of the study will be tested in the context of this study. The study will use three main theories, namely Youth Empowerment through Sports (Blinde and Taub, 1999), Positive Youth Development
(Damon, 2004) and Social Capital Theory (Bourdieu, 1986). These theories will be introduced in the literature review section, and detail on these theories will be provided in the theoretical framework section of Chapter two.

Chapter three undertakes a broader examination of the different dimensions of the topic under investigation, such as access to sporting opportunities within the South African context of racial oppression and discrimination during the apartheid years. It also explores the work of notable anti-apartheid sports movements, which opposed discrimination in sports and fought for equal sporting opportunities and a united, non-racial society. The chapter also highlights the fact that, despite progress in youth sports development among previously disadvantaged groups in the democratic dispensation, more work needs to be done regarding sports development in Black urban areas and the rural areas of South Africa. In keeping with the ideas of a ‘rainbow nation' South Africa needs to have more racially representative national teams across different sport codes. Schools offer an ideal environment to promote the culture of sports among young people.

This chapter also speaks to the issue of gender inequality in South Africa’s sporting arena. Many young females in South Africa especially in Black communities still find it very difficult to pursue their sporting interests due to a range of barriers, including patriarchal control, and perceptions and stereotypes that foster false ideas that sport is a male domain and that women are too weak for sports especially endurance sports like soccer, rugby, cycling and so on.

Chapter four describes both the case study design as well as the quantitative and qualitative approaches utilised in the study. It highlights data collection methods and steps and statistical measures undertaken for the analysis and interpretation of primary quantitative and qualitative forms of data arising from self-administered survey questionnaires and interviews conducted with teachers. The chapter explains why the methods and measures were deemed appropriate to understand the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance. The limitations of the methods adopted are also discussed in this chapter, as they provide insight into the extent to which the findings can be generalised.

Chapter five presents and analyses qualitative and quantitative data generated through empirical study. The chapter discuss the study findings, particularly in relation to the various ways in which sports engagement contributes to successful youth development and more specifically the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance. The data will be analysed using Pearson's R correlation coefficient in order to answer the question of whether a relationship
exists between youth sports engagement and school performance in the context of the study. If a relationship does exist, the strength of that relationship will also be measured. This will provide an indicator of the confidence with which the basic assumptions of the study can be either confirmed or refuted.

In the final chapter, a summary of the key research findings is provided. This chapter also provides a summary to the research project as a whole. Ways of advancing future research on the subject matter as well as sports development within the research locality are suggested.

1.8 Summary

The objective of this introductory chapter was to highlight the nature, scope and extent of the study. The chapter began by introducing the research project itself and outlined how the study bridges a gap in scholarly research by assessing the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance beyond those undertaken in major countries in Europe and North America. The study aims to localise research on this question and contribute knowledge not only to sports sociology but also in the field of the sociology of education in South Africa.

The role of youth sports engagement in empowering young people in the historically disadvantaged community of Chesterville was briefly illustrated against the assumptions of the sociological theories, which inform the current study. The chapter provided a brief outline of the study’s research design and the main objectives of the study were also highlighted. In addition, the chapter addressed the question of why the study is considered important. It contextualised and described the study area and also outlined the structure of the dissertation.

The objective of Chapter two is to review selected and relevant research as well as theoretical literature on the topic under investigation. By exploring existing knowledge, one is able to highlight the contribution one’s study makes to that knowledge. We locate a study within a particular theoretical framework as theories enable us to understand and interpret findings. The findings of the study are also used to test the applicability and variability of the theories which the study draws on, bearing in mind the different context of the current study compared to studies of this nature undertaken in the developed world.
Chapter Two

“The literature review places a research project in context - it shows the path of previous research and identifies the area of knowledge that the current study is intended to expand” (Neuman, 2000: 446).

Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section provides a review of selected and relevant research literature on the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance. The key objective is to understand what other researchers and theorists have written about the subject under investigation. Sources include books, journal articles, periodicals, dissertations, policy documents and newspapers. Exploring existing knowledge sets the parameters for investigation and helps provide direction in the formulation of a conceptual framework.

The concept of youth as defined in various regional, cultural, and material contexts, is examined. The construction of the concept ‘youth’ in contemporary South Africa is compared with constructions in other cultures and societies with a view to finding a common, universal understanding of the concept. Given the fact that research studies which explore the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance are rare in the southern African region, the first section of the chapter explores and evaluates selected case studies originating from the developed world, which attest to the prevalence of such a relationship. Findings and conclusions drawn from the existing literature help provide insight into the present study.

The second section of the chapter provides a review of the theoretical literature, which provides a theoretical framework upon which to ground and guide the study. This focuses on trends in young people's participation in sports and associated positive scholarly outcomes in their unique social context.

As briefly highlighted in the introductory chapter, the current study draws on three theories commonly cited in youth development research literature, namely Youth Empowerment through Sports (Blinde and Taub, 1999), Positive Youth Development (Damon, 2004) and Social Capital Theory (Bourdieu, 1986). These theories are briefly introduced in the literature review section, and
2.2 The Construction of the Concept ‘Youth’ in South Africa

The concept of ‘youth’ is defined in many different ways. Developmental psychologists generally define youth as a particular biological phase in the life cycle (Muuss, 1990). However, sociologists, especially those who are strongly influenced by the emerging New Sociology of Childhood (NSC) paradigm would argue that youth is a socially constructed idea (Prout and James, 1997; Montgomery, 2003), rather than a particular phase in life. NSC is premised on the assumption that youth is a particular developmental phase in one’s life cycle, and varies across cultures and societies. Although the United Nations (UN) (2004) defines youth as people in the 15 to 24-year age group, the operational classification varies from one country to another depending on cultural, institutional and political factors (O’Higgins, 2001). For example, ‘youth’ describes people aged 18-35 years in Egypt (Egypt-National Council of Youth, 2006), while in South Africa the National Youth Policy (2009-2014) classifies ‘youth’ as people within the 14 to 35-year age group. The definition of youth varies considerably depending on different economic, political and social factors, and rights and responsibilities accorded to the youth in different societies. Youth is neither a single category nor a homogeneous grouping but rather a complex stage in the life cycle. For this reason many sociologists working within the NSC paradigm treat the concept of youth as socially constructed: its meaning changes from one society to another (Prout and James, 1997).

Since this study is located in the South African context, it employs a broad understanding of youth as persons from the age of 14 up to 35 years, in keeping with the classification proposed by the National Youth Commission Act of 1996. This classification is considered appropriate because it takes into account the socio-economic and cultural realities of a country in transition. These realities include the high levels of youth unemployment, the widespread prevalence of HIV/AIDS, poor educational standards, unplanned teenage pregnancies, and drug and alcohol abuse. Equally important, many South Africans remain in the educational system through to the third decade of life. Although much has changed for young people since the democratic elections of 1994, the motivation for 35 years as the upper age limit of the youth has not yet changed, since historical imbalances in the country are yet to be fully addressed (NYP, 2009-2014: 11). It is also recognised that youth is a social construction; its meaning varies across societies and cultures where people make transitions from the dependency of childhood to assume independence and the responsibilities associated with adulthood.
2.3 Young People: Problem or Resource?

Throughout the twentieth century, public discussions about youth have consistently viewed young people as either vulnerable ‘victims’ or ‘problems’ that need to be managed or solved (Hallet and Prout, 2003), often by resorting to psychosocial interventions. The ‘youth as victim’ perspective sees young people as ‘innocent’, ‘vulnerable’ and ‘dependent on adults’ (Hallet and Prout, 2003; Prout and James, 1997). This view has been influential in the drafting of many social policies in South Africa and elsewhere in the world.

Catalano et al (1998) argue that this perspective emerged as many societies struggled with the costs associated with problem behaviour such as delinquency, early pregnancy, early school leaving, school failure, substance abuse and sexual diseases among the youth. Young people began to be seen as ‘problems’ that require certain psychosocial interventions in order to be ‘cured’ (Checkoway and Richard-Schuster, 2003). In keeping with these ideas, the ‘problem’ and ‘victim’ strands have also dominated South African research literature on youth.

South Africans use many different types of labels and phrases to describe youth (Everatt, 2000). These include ‘victims of apartheid’, ‘lost generation’, ‘violent teenagers’, ‘rebellious’, ‘aggressive teenagers’, ‘reckless people’ and ‘marginalised youth’ (Seekings, 1996; Everatt, 1995). In the post apartheid era, phrases like ‘care-free’, ‘...youth of today lack respect', '...youth of today lack discipline' and the phrase ‘born free generation’ has also become common in public discussions on the needs of young people and the developmental challenges they face in a country in transition. Despite many social problems such as unemployment and poverty, crime and HIV/AIDS that the South African youth is faced with, the findings of a study into the views of youth, from different social backgrounds, on their future in South Africa, suggests that a general spirit of optimism in relation to achieving one’s educational, economic and social goals exists (Steyn et al, 2010).

Along with such positive outlook on the future, recently, a new, alternative paradigm of youth has emerged, known as Positive Youth Development (PYD) (Damon, 2004). PYD contests the dominant paradigm of young people as victims and problems. Implicit in the PYD perspective is the importance of providing the opportunities and possibilities young people need in order to develop the different life skills necessary for them to assume the responsibilities and independence associated with adulthood. In the PYD perspective, young people are seen as ‘resources’, capable of making a valuable contribution to their own successful development, and improving the situation within their families, schools and community (Catalano et al, 1998). This theoretical perspective is strongly influenced by the widespread belief that emphasis needs to be placed on young people’s
positive strengths, abilities and skills rather than deficits (Pittman and Irby, 2000). Central to the ‘youth as resources’ perspective is the notion that all young people have the full potential to become successful in life, regardless of where they are in the world or the situation they live in (Damon, 2004). It is in this context that youth engagement in organised sports activities is positioned within the PYD perspective: the underlying assumption is that sports activities have a valuable contribution to make to the personal empowerment of youth (Blinde and Taub, 1999).

The idea of youth empowerment through sports rests on the assumption that youth engaged in sports not only stand to gain improved physical and psycho-social health, but they also stand to acquire important life skills, which they can apply to improve school performance. Enhanced psycho-social health and empowered consciousness may result in youth being better positioned to make good decisions with regard to their lives and the kind of future they want for themselves and their peers within their particular community. It is contended that empowered youth are unlikely to leave school early and fail at school (Guerra and Bradshaw, 2008). The relationship between sports engagement and youth empowerment underpins this study, which explores the influence of sports on youth scholarly development (Burnett, 2001). Sports engagement has the potential to enhance learners' school performance (Jordan, 2000). Research evidence suggests that sports engagement may contribute to the building of social capital amongst youth (Bourdieu, 1986) who over time become important societal resources.

The concept ‘social capital’ refers to benefits obtainable through positive social connectivity (Smart, 2000). Sports as a productive recreational activity are known to produce the required positive social connectivity among learners within an educational system. In a community context, this social connectivity may translate into different acts such as reciprocity, the building of positive relationships, the development of psychosocial skills and youth participation in community development projects (Coleman, 1994).

2.4 The Concepts of Sport, Leisure and Recreation

We can ask the question ‘what is sport and how is it related to leisure and recreation?’ The concept of sport is derived from the Latin root desporto, which means ‘to carry away’. Sport has been used throughout the ages to describe physical activities that are competitive and organised, which divert people from everyday activities associated with earning a living (Woods, 2007: 4-5). Sport has a long history and is probably as ancient as work itself; the literature on sporting activities dates back to ancient times as far back as 300 B.C. Aristotle’s view of games and sports was:
Happiness is thought to depend on leisure; for we are busy that we may have leisure, and make war that we may live in peace (Aristotle, cited in McLean, 2006: 37).

For Aristotle (384 B.C. - 322 B.C.), life was broadly divided into different components, ‘action and leisure, war and peace’. He argued that although people had to work for economic gain and to sustain life, sports and games were also vital elements of a healthy life. Sports and games (which Aristotle broadly defines as ‘leisure’) were very important aspects of ancient Greek civilisation. For example, the Greek philosopher, Plato (428/427 B.C.-348/347 B.C.) believed that constructive leisure time activities are the route to happiness and fulfilment. During ancient Greek civilisation, play was perceived to be essential for the healthy growth of children from a physical, psychological and social perspective (Ibrahim, cited in Kennedy et al, 2006: 19).

It is also important to consider the relationship between sports, leisure and recreation. We begin by defining the broad concept of leisure and exploring how recreation and sports fit within this definition.

The concept of leisure has been defined in many different ways including ‘discretionary’ time (Kelly, 1972: 51-62), when people free themselves from boredom through entertainment, and from functional specialisation by developing the aptitudes of body or mind (Burcher et al, 1984). The understanding of leisure as free time offers a possible explanation for the relationship between leisure and recreation: if leisure time is free time, then recreation can be understood as leisure time activity (Hendricks and Jones, 1992: 49).

Sport is therefore a subtopic within the scope of leisure and recreation. However, sport may be considered as an institutionalised game and as a social institution (Loy, 1968). Luschen (1967: 127) defines sport as an institutionalised type of competitive, physical activity that may be located on a continuum between leisure and sport. Edwards (1973) arranges the many free time activities on a continuum with leisure and sport as polar activities. As one moves from leisure toward sport the following usually occurs:

1. Formal rules, structural roles and position relationships and responsibilities within the activity assume predominance.

2. Individual liability and responsibility for the quality and character of one’s behaviour during the course of the activity is heightened.

3. Goals become diverse, complex, and more related to values emanating from outside of the
context of the activity.

4. The activity consumes a greater proportion of the individual’s time and attention due to the need for preparation and the degree of seriousness involved in the act. (Edwards, cited in Ball and Loy, 1975: 9-12).

Attempts to define sport outside the leisure domain are admittedly imprecise. Sport may be defined in terms of the participants’ motivation or by the nature of the activity itself. Sport is a leisure or recreational time activity for some people, while others participate in a competitive, goal-oriented context. Sport, then, may be considered as an organised physical activity within the field of leisure and recreation. Accordingly, Woods (2007: 5-7) argues that the most critical characteristic of sport is that it involves physical movement and skill. He adds that sport typically involves physical coordination, strength, speed, endurance and flexibility and this is what separates sport from other ‘passive’ leisure time activities. The following section explores the different ways in which sporting activities contribute to overall successful youth development.

2.5 Some Benefits Associated with Youth Sports Engagement

During ancient Greek civilisation, play was perceived as essential for the healthy physical, psychological, emotional and social development of children (Kennedy et al, 2006). This section outlines some of the more specific benefits of youth sport engagement within the three areas broadly identified earlier.

Youth involvement in physical activity is essential for their optimal development. Physical activities and sports facilitate normal growth and development in young people. Regular participation in organised physical activities and sports may help to prevent obesity and related diseases, type 2 diabetes, hypertension, arthritis, some cancers, cardiovascular diseases, osteoporosis, stroke and depression (Health Canada, 2003). Given that physical activity habits developed during youth are associated with physical activity habits in adulthood (Robertson-Wilson et al, 2003), youth involvement in physical activities is important, because this not only contributes to youth health, but may also reduce risks of chronic diseases later in life (Penedo and Dahn, 2005: 180). Participation in sports activities helps in weight management and contributes to the maintenance of healthy bones, muscles and joints. Skills development, improved muscular endurance and flexibility are additional benefits of sport and physical activity (Côté and Hay, 2002). Aaron et al (1995) have also argued that youth involved in organised, regular, physical activities and sports are less likely to smoke than those who do not participate.
In addition, the literature suggests that youth participation in any sports activity may facilitate good mental health and enhance school performance. Taylor et al (2005) believe that apart from enhancing physical health and an improved quality of life, sports activities facilitate good mental health; this is especially important for learners in senior school grades who are often faced with demanding work.

Students who are involved in organised physical activities tend to perform better in school assessments compared to the general student population (Dwyer et al, 2001). Participation in high school sport has been positively linked to school grades, school attendance, the choice of demanding courses, time spent on homework, educational aspirations during and after high school, and college attendance (Whitley, 1999). Further, the literature suggests the important role of sport in enhancing cognitive development among sport engaged youth, potentially contributing to school performance (Coalter, 1997). This may be because, unlike play or games, sport involves physical activity and skill. Physical activity is a key component of sports, which is known to have the potential of improving blood flow to the brain, and raises levels of norepinephrine and endorphins, all of which may reduce stress, induce a calming effect after exercise. Because this has an effect on learning concentration and memory, it contributes to improved cognitive abilities and hence school performance (Taras, 2005).

School sports and physical activities provide young people with opportunities to experience challenges, fun, and enjoyment, while promoting psychological and emotional development through building a positive self image and academic confidence. Sports activities build self-esteem, and they also help to reduce stress, anxiety, loneliness and depression (Byl, 2006). This is important, as levels of depression among learners usually increase around the school examination period and worsen upon the release of examination results, especially when students have failed (Andrews and Wilding, 2004). Young females in particular are known to be vulnerable to anxiety and depressive disorders and are significantly more likely to suffer than their male counterparts (Beautrais, 2000). This suggests the importance of creating an enabling environment, which promotes greater female student participation in school sports in needy schools and communities in South Africa. This could be achieved through the provision of sports infrastructure, and quality sports resources and facilities, as well as professional coaches in different kinds of female sports codes.
Gilman (2001) found that youth participation in organised extracurricular activities is associated with higher life satisfaction among youth, and that the more structured activities youth participated in, the higher their life satisfaction.

In addition to improvements in physical and psychological or emotional health, youth involved in sports stand to gain specific social benefits from participation. Participation in physical activities and sports promotes learners' development and encourages social ties amongst learners (Broh, 2002: 69). It offers increased opportunities for learners to connect with other learners socially, especially when new to the school. Sport may provide learners with an avenue for participation in the social and cultural life of the school, including freedom of expression, interpersonal networks, positive peer relationships, social status, social mobility, community integration, new opportunities and increased self-esteem (Byl, 2006).

Eccles and Barber (1999) suggest that student participation in school sports is associated with a range of positive outcomes such as reduced absenteeism, a stronger commitment to the school culture, improved discipline, and reduced school drop-out rates and delinquent behaviour. These traits carry over into other domains of life such as community and school (Carpenter, 2001), potentially contributing to improved student educational performance. Research also indicates that youth sport experiences provide an arena for the development of social skills such as cooperation, assertive behaviour, responsibility, leadership, commitment to a goal, empathy, and self-control (Côté, 2002).

In combination, the physiological, psychological, emotional and social benefits of inter-scholastic sports activities potentially contribute to better school performance and fewer problems during the adolescent years. Physically, psychologically, emotionally, and socially empowered youth grow into successful, responsible citizens, likely to initiate youth projects and organizations that will contribute to the social development of the next generation of youth, and in doing so, contributing to positive youth development.

The following sections provide a review of selected case studies, which explore the relationship between school sports engagement and learners' school performance. It is important, however, to first clarify what is meant by the relationship between sports engagement and school performance in this study.
The relationship between the two variables, youth sports and school performance, may be described as either direct or indirect. A direct relationship is one where the cause affects the outcome directly rather than via other variables. A relationship between sports engagement and school performance describes the way in which the two variables are connected. It is necessary to follow a co-variation approach in order to establish a causal relationship, but this does not always provide sufficient evidence to show that the two variables are casually related. When two variables are correlated but not casually related, the relationship is described as spurious (De Vaus, 2001) or coincidental.

An indirect causal relationship, on the other hand, is one where the cause has its effect by operating via its influence on other variable(s), which, in turn, produce the effect. The positive or negative effects of sports engagement on school performance may be due entirely to a third variable(s), including important student background characteristics such as social class, parents' level of education and availability of educational resources at home. Learners from relatively wealthy families are likely to perform better academically due to the availability of educational resources such as textbooks, encyclopaedias, dictionaries and computers that enhance school performance, compared to disadvantaged learners coming from financially struggling families (Eitle and Eitle, 2002). This may suggest that sports engaged learners who come from better economic family backgrounds are likely to perform better in school than sports non-engaged learners from less privileged backgrounds. These two patterns suggest that sports activity and school performance are correlated (sports engaged learners are likely to perform better academically than sports non-engaged learners). However, the link between sports engagement and school performance may be appropriately described as coincidental rather than causal. That is, learners from wealthy families may perform better academically even if they are not playing sports; alternatively learners from poor economic families may also perform better academically regardless of whether they play sport or not because of hard work, commitment to school work and the desire to change their family situation for the better.

Establishing the causal relationship between sports engagement and school performance is at the heart of this study; however this is not a simple task. The main reason why it is difficult to establish the causal relationship between the two variables is because the effects of sports engagement on school performance cannot actually be observed. Even though sport engagement might result in better school performance, there is no way of knowing for certain that it is sport and only sport that
produced this kind of academic outcome. Therefore in this study the causal relationship between sports engagement and school performance will be inferred rather than observed. This study follows a probabilistic approach to causation (De Vaus, 2001), and explores whether sport engagement increases or decreases the probability of better school performance between the case and the control.

2.7 Youth Sports Engagement and School Performance: Reviewing the Relationship in Grissom’s (2005) Study

Grissom’s (2005) study entitled “Physical Fitness and Academic Achievement” reports on the contribution of school sports engagement to school performance. The study reports on the relationship between physical activity and educational performance amongst a sample of grade nine Californian students. In line with the notion that sports engagement present the learner with various life skills that may not be obtainable from other extracurricular activities, the study suggests a consistent, statistically significant, positive relationship between overall physical fitness and overall educational performance (Grissom, 2005).

However, this relationship appears to be especially strong for learners who come from a higher socio-economic class than those that come from poor economic backgrounds (Eitle and Eitle, 2002). Woods (2007: 230) defines social class as a category of people who share similar positions in society based on their economic level, education, occupation, and social interaction. This suggests that the assumed relationship between sports engagement and school performance may be mediated by various cultural, social and economic factors which are traditionally known to be directly associated with better school performance (Eitle and Eitle, 2002). De Vaus (2001) describes these factors as ‘intervening variables’ which, when combined with school sports, potentially contribute to better school performance (Coalter, 2007). This is the logic contained in the indirect causal relationship in the co-variation studies described above. Willms (2003) clarifies this point when he states that irrespective of whether or not learners participate in school sports, higher socio-economic status (SES) is widely associated with better school performance and SES is recognised as the strongest predictor of youth participation in sports in many developing and developed economies. This may be due to the fact that the availability of sufficient financial resources allows people to easily afford and acquire the necessary educational resources, which are known to directly contribute to better school performance.

Grissom (2005) warns that it is not easy to ‘prove’ the assumed causal relationship between sports engagement and school performance, because “improved aerobic capacity by itself does not
improve reading or mathematics achievement” (Grissom, 2005: 24). However, as shown by several cross-sectional and longitudinal sociological studies examining the relationship between sports engagement and school performance trends, there is a positive relationship between the two variables (Jordan, 2000). It is also interesting to note that even though some of these studies did control for variables such as age, social class, race and gender, most of them found a positive relationship between school sports engagement and school performance (Nelson and Gordon-Larsen, 2006; Dwyer et al., 2001; Jordan, 2000).

2.8 Youth Sports Engagement and School Performance: Reviewing the Relationship in Jordan’s (2000) Study

The positive relationship found by Grissom (2005) is firmly confirmed in Jordan’s earlier study entitled “Black High School Students' Participation in School-sponsored Sports Activities: Effects on School Engagement and Achievement” (2000). The study found that student engagement in sports activities among a representative high school student population sample within the United States of America (USA) was associated with positive student academic achievements (Jordan, 2000).

Jordan (2000) analysed data collected during the 1988 Department of Education sponsored national longitudinal survey within the USA. A total of 25,000 high school students was surveyed alongside their teachers, parents, and principals across a number of high schools in the country. The study used grade eight data as a base to control for several student background characteristics such as gender, social class, race and ethnicity.

Grade 10 data was used to analyse the effects of student sports participation on several student outcome variables such as academic performance, general self-image, academic self-confidence and grade point average (GPA). The two data sets presented a representative sample size containing students from both public and private high schools from all regions and community contexts across the USA.

The results of Jordan's (2000) analysis show that a significant number of students do not participate in school sports activities. Sports engagement levels are strikingly low within the study sample. However, modest racial differences were noted in sports engagement trends: White students' rates of sports engagement were slightly higher than those of Black students. This set of analysis reveals that engagement in school sports activities appears to have a small, but consistent, positive impact
upon students' GPA, general self-image, and academic self-confidence within the sample and across all sub-sample racial and gender categories.

The effects of sports engagement on the various student outcomes for Black students were not fundamentally different from those noted for White students. The pattern of results was stable across racial groups when controlling for SES, prior academic achievement, and other potentially important social-class related factors. Racial differences in the relationship between student sports engagement and school performance were negligible and in some cases they were found not to exist. The study concluded that the effects of school sports engagement on student academic achievement (as measured by composite grade 10 test scores) for White students were almost identical to those for the full sample. Regression results for the effects of engagement in school sports on GPA shows that, among all students, participation in both team and individual sports had a significant positive relationship on students' grades.

The effects of sports engagement on school performance in the sample for this study involving primarily Black students of African origin will be treated indiscriminately since previous studies affirm that race is not a significant factor in mediating between sports and student academic outcomes.

2.9 Youth Sports Engagement and School Performance: Reviewing the Relationship in a Study by Purdy et al (1982)

Not all research studies have found a positive relationship between sports engagement and school performance. In a study entitled “Are Athletes also Students? The Educational Attainment of College Students” (1982), Purdy et al conclude that students who engage in sports are disadvantaged by their very participation. This may be because the hours spent on the sports field mean that these students do not receive an equal number of tuition hours as compared with the sports non-engaged, general student population. It is argued that this disadvantage is the explanation for the commonly cited problem of the low academic achievement of sports engaged students compared to their sports non-engaged counterparts.

Purdy et al’s (1982) study drew on a sample of more than 2 000 sports engaged students observed over a 10 year-period within a major western university campus. It suggests that sports engaged students are less prepared for college education and achieve less academically in college than their sports non-engaged counterparts (Purdy et al, 1982).
However, the study also found that sports engaged students do not all perform equally. Scholarship holders, Black students, and participants in major revenue-producing sports such as football and basketball have the poorest academic record within the study sample. The study presented different reasons to explain the negative impact of sports on student academic achievement.

Firstly, the study suggests that this is because scholarship student-athletes have almost become like employees of the university (Purdy et al., 1982). Sports engaged students feel as if they 'owe' their coaches their undivided attention because these coaches are like supervisors to whom students report to and work hard for to impress. This creates a role conflict for sports active students, with the student role often being neglected or de-emphasised.

This underpins some parents' and teachers' concerns about sports engaged students' tendency to focus too much of their attention, time, resources and energy on sports activities, compromising their academic work and performance (Coleman, 1961). Thus sports activities are viewed as acting against the primary goals of educational institutions.

Secondly, there is evidence to suggest that sports engaged students, especially in the male-dominated, revenue-generating sports of football and basketball have a relatively low probability of receiving a good education compared to non-athletes or athletes in other sports codes. Because of the revenue-producing potential of football and basketball, the pressures to win are intense (Odenkirk cited in Purdy et al., 1982). Coaches in these sports are likely to be excessive in their demands on the time of their athletes during and between sessions. The serious financial consequences of 'big-time' sports also increase the likelihood that coaches will recruit exceptional athletes who are unqualified for the academic demands of college.

However, the study finds that academic achievement by athletes in minor, non-revenue sports activities is similar to that of sports non-engaged students. Sports engaged female students also resemble their sports non-engaged peers in academic achievement. There is also some evidence that women's college sports activities are increasingly moving toward the direction of men's programmes with scandals, unethical practices, and an overemphasis on winning and revenue generation (Eitzen and Sage, 1982:342). If this trend continues, it is maintained that women's sports programmes will increasingly interfere with the educational achievements of female student athletes.
In summary, the study demonstrates that sports engaged students in one major university campus scored lower than sports non-engaged students over a 10-year period on the measures most commonly used to assess educational attainment. The study reports that sports engaged students entered college with poorer high school academic records, received lower grades than the general student population, and that very few of them were able to graduate in record time.

2.10 Youth Sports Engagement and School Performance: Different Conclusions Regarding the Nature of the Relationship

There are two key findings in Purdy et al's (1982) study, which potentially challenge those of Grissom's (2005) and Jordan's (2000) findings, which propose the educational value of sports activities. It should be noted, however, that Grissom's (2005) and Jordan's (2000) studies focus on the effects of school sports on student achievement. Purdy et al (1982), on the other hand, focus on the effects of engagement in collegiate sports activities on student academic outcomes. What brings these studies together is the fact they all aim to assess the impact of sports activities on education, both at high school and college level, providing a fairly holistic overview of the case under investigation.

There appears to be a positive relationship between sports activities and school performance at the school level (Grissom, 2005; Dwyer et al, 2001; Nelson and Gordon-Larsen, 2006; Jordan, 2000). However, the relationship appears to be negative at the college level (Purdy et al, 1982). Hence, there is a need for more research studies examining whether sports activities increase or decrease the educational performance of sports engaged students at post-high school educational institutions.

2.11 Theoretical Framework

The review of literature in the previous section suggests that the concept of youth has many definitions, which vary across contexts, cultures and societies. The elastic nature of the concept points to the need for a multi-perspective theoretical framework upon which to ground and guide the study.

2.11.1 Youth Empowerment through Sports

The concept of empowerment is broad and its meaning varies from one context to another. In this study, empowerment is used to mean competence and the self-efficacy associated with being able to control one’s own destiny and make good choices with regard to one’s own life (Hawe and Sheill,
Empowerment is also used to mean ‘enablement’ (Hagquist and Starrin, 1997: 229), suggesting a need for the creation of opportunities for youth engagement in school sports activities, as they are known to promote youth attachment to school culture and to contribute to upward mobility among socially disadvantaged youth.

In order to improve opportunities for participation in productive, organised sports activities, it is, however, necessary to make support structures, facilities and financial resources available to those in need (Rissel, 1994). Improved access to sporting activities will most likely result in greater opportunities for youth identified at risk in the current study to benefit through engagement in sporting activities associated with personal development and empowerment.

Sports engaged youth not only stand to gain improved physical and psycho-social health from sports engagement, but they also stand to acquire important life skills which they can apply beyond the sports field in classroom performance. Blinde and Taub (1999: 182) reveal the relationship between youth sports engagement and personal empowerment as demonstrated in the following quotation:

Personal empowerment results when feelings of powerlessness are reduced through the acquisition of skills and self-perceptions that encourage individuals to become causal agents in daily events. The development of qualities such as positive self-esteem, perceived competence, self-efficacy, and an internal locus of control facilitate empowerment at the personal level.

Empowered young people are unlikely to experience negative trajectories such as drugs, alcohol and crime. They are also unlikely to experience unplanned teenage pregnancies, early school-leaving and school failure (Guerra and Bradshaw, 2008).

Research suggests that youth participation in school sports contributes to the building and strengthening of a positive character and it is also believed that the socialising impact of school sports help to generate important skills and habits that are required in order to succeed academically and in life more generally (Larson, 1994). The role of youth sports engagement in enhancing mental health and self-esteem among the sports engaged high school student population is commonly cited in social-psychological literature. With regard to the role that school sports engagement play in enabling sustainable livelihoods, Barron et al (cited in Watson, 2009) states that school sports engagement is generally associated with higher post-high school income in the form of wages, salaries or other forms of remuneration in many parts of the world. This demonstrates that the “education” obtainable from school sports engagement has a positive impact on future wage
attainment (Watson, 2009: 35). In other words, sport can play a powerful role in producing economically empowered future citizens who are financially independent. It may be asserted that school sports engagement is likely to contribute positively to initiatives targeting at risk-youth, with the objective of breaking the cycle of intergenerational poverty within the research locality.

The literature on the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance supports the assumption that the promotion of school sports in the study locality will contribute to better school performance (Dwyer et al., 2001) and the overall successful development of youth within a community characterised by a history of social deprivation, social exclusion and marginalisation. Over time, it is assumed that this will foster social capital and contribute to building successful and responsible citizens (Burnett, 2001). Organised youth sports activities work to strengthen teamwork values and cooperative norms, thereby enhancing social capital and sociable behaviours among students. Hence youth school sports engagement is linked with what has come to be known as PYD (Damon, 2004).

2.11.2 Positive Youth Development (PYD): School Competence and Contribution to Community

Lerner et al. (2005: 10) describe PYD as a “new, positive, strength-based theoretical perspective”, due to the fact that PYD emphasises the promotion of strengths and competencies among youth in all situations. PYD is critical of traditional literature on youth, which has often treated youth as people at risk or people with certain deficits and as problems in need of psychosocial repair (Catalano et al., 2002). PYD, on the contrary, gives priority to the inherent potential of all young people and considers youth as resources to be fostered and developed, rather than as problems to be managed or solved (Damon, 2004).

Unlike traditional beliefs regarding the inevitable so-called ‘storm and stress’ of adolescent years and the predictable involvement in negative, anti-social behaviours, theorists and researchers working within the PYD theoretical perspective adopt a positive outlook regarding the potential of youth to overcome the challenges they face in their social contexts and take initiatives to empower themselves through education, resulting in better lives for themselves and their community more generally (Lerner et al., 2005: 10-11).

PYD focuses on creating opportunities and possibilities for optimising individual and group change by imparting important life skills, which may enable good decision making about their lives and
foster resilience in facing developmental challenges during the critical adolescent stage of
development.

PYD as a theoretical perspective has many roots, ranging from academic research, to the voices of
youth workers, and the implementation of international and national policies and initiatives aimed at
promoting sports activities in schools as they are associated with better scholastic performance. The
literature also suggests a strong relationship between PYD views and those held by contemporary
developmental systems theories. In this regard, Lerner et al (2005: 12-3) state that:

These models of human development eschew the reduction of individual and social behaviour
to fixed genetic influences and instead stress the relative plasticity of human development and
argue that this potential for systematic change in behaviour exists as a consequence of mutually
influential relationships between the developing person and his or her biology, psychological
characteristics, family, community, culture, physical and designed ecology, and historical niche.

The PYD theoretical perspective associated with developmental systems theory means that scholars,
practitioners, and policy makers may always remain optimistic about finding some interventions to
introduce initiatives and programmes that work to enhance successful youth development and
advance the well-being of young people in any social context in which they find themselves.

Other roots of PYD theory are to be found in developmental psychology research literature (Baltes
et al, 1998) and life-course sociology literature (Elder, 1998), which both demonstrate the
possibility of optimising individual and group change by promoting resilience in dealing with
developmental challenges during the adolescent years through to young adulthood.

Lerner et al (2003) delineate the ‘6Cs’ of PYD: cognitive and behavioural competence, positive
social connections, confidence, character and caring, leading to a sixth C: contribution to family,
school and community. PYD influenced research shows the relationship between youth sports
engagement and positive intra- and inter-personal growth represented by the 6Cs.

Of the 6Cs which are often recognised as pillars of PYD, the current study draws on only two Cs of
PYD namely, competence and contribution. These two concepts are more relevant to the topic
under investigation. In relation to youth psychosocial development and empowerment, competence
reflects effective youth adaptation in any given environment:

Competition can be understood as a mastery of key developmental tasks that
signal effective adaptation within a particular life stage, and as determined by
Within the context of PYD, school sports activities provide youth with many desired outcomes including competence in academic, social and vocational areas in youth development. Pittman et al (2003: 11) argue that enhanced cognitive abilities obtainable through organised sports activities are one of the key areas that sports engagement contributes to PYD. However, PYD aims not only to empower the individual; the skills, attitudes, knowledge and experiences the individual student acquires during school sports can also be used for the development of their communities, making valuable contributions to their respective families and schools (Pittman et al, 2003). It may therefore be asserted that the youth in this study can make a valuable contribution to the development of their community if they are consulted in decision-making processes on issues that affect them and their lives.

In PYD influenced thinking, contribution is primarily concerned with the promotion of youth-initiated projects that engage and address the needs of young people within their communities. One way in which young people can be contributors to the upliftment of their communities is when they perceive themselves to be ‘assets’ of their communities. Youniss et al (2001) highlight youth involvement in community-based activities as providing opportunities for the promotion of positive social identity and the formation of strong community bonds.

In combination, these propositions provide a solid foundation for the general hypothesis that school and community-based sports activities may promote successful youth development and contribute to the building of social capital.

2.11.3 Social Capital
The concept of social capital was first used by Glenn Loury in the 1970s in his effort to explain racial inequalities in American society during this period. He perceived that the failure of many African Americans to improve their socio-economic status was primarily due to the absence of the positive social connections and networks that most Americans used to access opportunities for advancing their life chances. He maintained that what was missing among African Americans was social capital.
This study uses the concept of social capital to mean:

...the sum of resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or a group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition (Bourdieu and Wacquant, cited in Burnett, 2006: 283).

Basically, social capital can be understood as the benefits obtainable through positive social connectivity, which facilitate people's behaviour within their particular social institution or setting (Burnett, 2006). The study locality, as with any other school, provides many opportunities for the development of students' social capital. Within a school setting, sports engagement provides a social structure within which interactions with other students and some teachers are frequent and repeated. This structure enables the strengthening of supportive and cooperative networks with peers, schoolmates, teachers, parents belonging to the School Governing Body (SGB) and sports coaches.

If this theory is valid then one can assume that participating in school sports potentially increases pro-social behaviour among students. A study by Shields (1995) found that teachers who were also sports coaches observed drug use among the general, non-sport engaged student population to be more of a problem than among students engaged in sports.

Although there are conflicting results on the direct effects of sports engagement on school performance, the relationship between poor school performance and youth crime is firmly established in the criminology literature (Segrave and Hastad, 1984). School sports engagement and good scholarly achievement reduce the likelihood of involvement in criminal activities and other negative trajectories during adolescence.

In the growing public discussions about social capital, the concept has come to represent the sum of a community's formal and informal associative networks, and respect and social trust among community members. Respect and trust at the community level can also translate into school classrooms. Respect and trust are important for productive teaching and learning. However, in order to foster respect and trust in the schooling context, it is important to recognise the critical component of reciprocity between teachers and learners, and among learners themselves. For example, if teachers treat learners as smart, capable and competent young people who can deal with challenging school work it is more than likely that learners would generally feel respected and rise to the challenge of demanding work. This will foster social capital at the school level, potentially contributing to a conducive learning environment and resulting in better school performance across
all students. However, the sports engaged student population would gain an added advantage through sports participation. A study by Silliker and Quirk (1997) found that sports-engaged students tend to have higher grade point averages in season than out of season.

Social capital can generate the desired social connectivity among CSS students, helping them to obtain the social benefits associated with positive relationships and networks. Social capital is typically measured in terms of peoples' levels of involvement in productive discretionary time activities such as voluntary, non-profit activities in the community and extracurricular activities such as school and community-based sports activities.

Within the community of Chesterville, this social connectivity can translate into different acts such as reciprocity, the strengthening of positive relationships, the development of psychosocial skills and participation in youth developmental community projects (Coleman, 1994). The CSS learners can help to foster social capital in the school through their engagement in sports activities creatively designed to allow learners to acquire not only sporting skills and physical fitness, but also various life skills including discipline, perseverance, sexual health and common problem solving skills through cooperative learning activities. In addition, community service values may be combined with sports in order to achieve the desired outcomes associated with educated, healthy and responsible future citizens of the country (Pelak, 2002). This will work towards achieving the Vision and Mission of CSS relating to the creation of fully functioning future citizens.

Examining the influence of youth sports on building and strengthening social capital within a community characterised by widespread poverty and many psychosocial deprivations, is at the heart of the current study. The contribution of youth school and community-based sports to the building of social capital constitutes grounded theory based on individuals, families, the school and the community as interrelated units of analysis. School and organised community-based sports activities have an influence on reducing the rate of early school leaving, school failure, unplanned teenage pregnancies, youth crime and other negative trajectories among youth in a historically disadvantaged community like Chesterville (Diana, 2000). This suggests a positive relationship between the availability of the opportunities and possibilities young people require in order to achieve the successful transition from the dependence of childhood to the independence and responsibilities associated with adulthood and experience fewer problems during this transitional process.
What can be learned from the concept of social capital, especially in the context of this study, is the necessity for youth to have a greater sense of belonging and acceptance, competence and usefulness (Bourdieu, 1986). The objective of promoting the development of school and community-based sports activities would be to contribute to the development of social capital and stimulate the associated positive social outcomes in a community that has historically been ravished by different levels of social disadvantage. A major assumption of this study is that when sporting activities are skills-based, normative and learning-rich they can contribute to the building and strengthening of social capital within the community of Chesterville.

2.12 Summary

The main objectives of this chapter were to review selected and relevant literature on the relationship between youth school sports engagement and school performance. The first section of the chapter reviewed the literature, and began by examining the concept of ‘youth’ in order to explore the various meanings the concept has in different societies and cultures. The construction of ‘youth’ in contemporary South African society was explored in comparison with the understanding of the construct in other contexts around the world. Before exploring the different ways in which modern day sports activities contribute to the healthy growth of children and adolescents, the section examined sports through the ages, highlighting the vital role games and sports played in ancient Greek civilisation.

The chapter then explored the various ways in which sports engagement could potentially contribute to overall successful youth development. Direct physiological, psychological and specific social benefits associated with youth sports engagement were also explored. It is believed that these various benefits of sports activities, whether individual or collective, potentially contribute to better school performance among the sports engaged student population.

The essence of this section was the review of three selected research studies, which assessed the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance. These studies presented different, yet interesting conclusions highlighting the complexity of the topic under investigation. The findings of these international research studies will be compared with those emerging from this study, in order to test the applicability of theories originating in the western context to third world social realities, which is one of the key objectives of this study.
The second section of the chapter provided a conceptual framework, further expounding on the theories briefly introduced in the first section of the chapter. The objective of this section was to explore the theoretical framework on which the study draws. The section began by discussing the concept of youth empowerment through sports and illustrated how this theory is relevant in terms of its applicability to the topic under investigation. It highlighted that ‘empowerment’ in terms of the study is used to mean ‘enablement’, suggesting a need for the creation of more opportunities for youth engagement in sporting activities, as they are known to promote youth attachment to school culture and to contribute to upward mobility among socially disadvantaged youth. Improved access to sporting activities seems it could lead to greater opportunities for the youth of Chesterville to participate in sporting activities associated with personal development and empowerment.

The section then went on to illustrate the applicability of PYD theory to the study and demonstrated how sports activities present youth with increased opportunities for achieving CSS’s mission of creating a successful, healthy and responsible future generation in a locale such as Chesterville. This section highlighted that school sports activities provide youth with many desired outcomes, including competence in academic, social and vocational areas of youth development. It was also argued that enhanced attachment to school culture, which may be achieved through sports activities, is one of the key areas that sports engagement contributes to PYD.

Finally, the section described the theory of social capital, highlighting the importance of positive social connections in addressing the social challenges facing youth in Black urban South African Townships like Chesterville. Youth school- and community-based sports can contribute to the building of social capital which could foster the school’s academic mission. In combination, these interrelated theoretical assumptions provide a solid foundation for the general hypothesis that organised school and community-based sports activities potentially promote empowered individuals, and successful youth development initiatives and contribute to the building of a community’s social capital.

The following chapter explores specific issues relating to youth sports development in the new South Africa. The chapter highlights the aspirations, dreams and needs of young people in contemporary South Africa in relation to equal sporting opportunities. The problems and challenges, which hinder the successful social and economic development of youth of South Africa, are also explored with reference to community and government responses to these challenges.
Chapter Three

“...Schools sport is the nursery for participants in senior competitions... We are strongly arguing here for a focussed attention on the schools and community clubs in building a broad base for talent scouting, developing and nurturing. This is the mass that will transform society and de-racialise it. We must go back to Wednesday afternoons as school sports days. But this cannot happen by chance” (Former SA Minister of Sport and Recreation, Makhenkesi Stofile, cited in Desai, 2010: 2).

Sports and Youth Development Challenges in South Africa

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a brief overview of the historical development of modern sports within the context of racial oppression and discrimination during the apartheid years. It explores the work of some notable anti-apartheid sports movements, which opposed discrimination in sports and fought for equal sporting opportunities and a united society. Despite some progress in the area of youth sports development among previously disadvantaged groups in the democratic state, more work needs to be done regarding the creation of racially representative national teams across different sport codes. The issue of gender equality in South Africa’s sporting arena needs much more attention. Many young African women in rural and urban township communities still regard sport as a male domain. In these communities opportunities for female sports are minimal and there is also little encouragement and support for female sports compared to the support given to the development of traditionally male sporting activities.

The chapter goes beyond merely exploring issues relating to the South African sporting arena; it highlights some of the key social and economic challenges facing South Africa’s youth. Violent crimes, which are often sexualised, the HIV/AIDS epidemic and mass unemployment, which perpetuates youth poverty are some of the challenges highlighted, as they pose a major threat to the economic and social security of the country. Youth issues are important to understand because they can directly or indirectly hamper efforts towards successful youth development projects. This is especially important to communities and youth development policy-makers who aim to formulate policy and strategies to address youth issues and promote successful youth development and social solidarity in the democratic South Africa.
3.2 A Brief Overview of Sport in the Apartheid Era

Sport has a long history. In South Africa, however, this history is marked by oppression, exclusion and discrimination against some groups of people by others. The history of sport in South Africa needs to placed in the context of the country’s history of industrialisation, set against the backdrop of colonisation and apartheid. Nineteenth century ideologies, which centred around racial and gender discrimination, served the interests of the White minority in many spheres of South African life, including sport. According to the Official Year Book of the Republic of South Africa (1974: 881):

For centuries the Whites, Coloureds, Indians and various Bantu peoples have administered and practised their sports separately at all levels of competition. It is only comparatively recently that the Bantu peoples have shown a marked interest in what may be called modern sporting activities. For many decades they have found their recreation in tribal activities such as hunting, tribal dances and various indigenous games.

Prior to the emergence of apartheid laws, sports development in many Black South African communities suffered from neglect (Booth, 1998). As apartheid policies developed in the 1950s, the oppression of Africans increased. After the National Party (NP) took office in 1948 it passed the Population Registration Act (1950), in terms of which people were racially classified as White, Black, and Indian. Later, a fourth category of Coloured was introduced to classify the offspring of racially mixed parents. The Population Registration Act was an all-encompassing law, which determined peoples’ rights and opportunities in every sphere of life. It also militated against the development of sporting activities in non-White communities and integrated sports. Non-White communities received little encouragement, opportunities and material resources and facilities to develop their sporting interests, skills and competencies in the apartheid system (Krotee, 1988). Although there was no specific, formal law which laid down racial segregation in sport, segregationist laws such as the Bantu Education Act (1953), the Reservation of Separate Amenities Act (1953), the Native (Urban Areas) Consolidation Act (1945) - notably sections 9 and 10 which determined African residency rights in the townships - and the Group Areas Act (1950), restricted the migration of Black people to urban areas and determined residential areas and schools according to racial groupings. This greatly hindered sport development in Black communities and schools.
In the 1960s, the NP leadership established a sports policy, which stated that:

Each racial group would form a separate controlling association in each sport; White associations would control the code, send representatives to world federations, and assist the development of Black associations; racially mixed teams would not represent South Africa, and sports officials would not invite racially mixed teams from abroad to play in the Republic (Booth, 1998: 61).

While it appeared that the apartheid government was willing to assist non-Whites to participate in sports, this would be in the context of separate development. The government made every effort to restrict racial mixing within sports and worked to maintain white dominance not only in sport, but in every socio-political sphere. The disparities in the distribution of sporting resources, facilities and opportunities between Whites and non-White communities were dramatic. These inequalities are illustrated in a 1982 study entitled Sport in the Republic of South Africa, conducted by Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC, cited in Booth, 1998: 67). The study reported that White schools owned 79.9% of the school-based athletic tracks, 88.6% of the cricket fields, 87.7% of the rugby fields and 72% of all school-based sports facilities in South Africa. In 1985 the HSRC published a report, which illustrated that in Pietermaritzburg alone, within the Province of KwaZulu-Natal, Whites had 17 bowling greens compared to none for Africans, 11 hockey fields, eight rugby fields, 18 squash courts, and three swimming pools, while Africans had none of these at all. Where Whites had nine soccer fields, there were eight for Africans. Whites enjoyed 44 tennis courts, and Africans only had six.

Given that Whites made up less than 20% of the total population, these reports represent vast racial inequalities in the distribution of sporting resources and facilities. Racial legislation and material deprivations resulted in the disadvantages suffered by non-Whites in terms of opportunities for sporting activities during the apartheid years (Booth, 1998: 71).

In the absence of different sporting activities for youth in urban Black Townships, many deprived youngsters resorted to street games, stone throwing, marbles, betting, smoking dagga, playing cards, and some engaged in various gang related activities for recreation. There were few employment opportunities for out-of-school youth, and work was confined to odd, low-paying part time jobs and selling newspapers. In the Bantustan homelands, territories designed by the apartheid government in order to regulate the movement of Black people within the country, conditions were much worse.
The lack of different sporting activities in Black schools may be linked to low levels of school performance among disadvantaged youth. For example, in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal, the annual matriculation pass rate in African schools during the 12 years after 1980 averaged 48.6% (Booth, 1998: 70). An overview of South Africa's matriculation pass rate between 1995 and 1996 shows that Whites had a pass rate of 96%, Indians 94%, Coloureds 84% and Africans only 42% (South African Institute of Race Relations, cited in Khan and Hemson, 2002: 292).

Establishing a relationship between minimal sporting activities in Black schools and low levels of school performance among youth in Black communities needs, however, to be treated with caution. The academic underachievement of African school youth may also have been caused by the shortage of educational resources such as textbooks, encyclopaedias, and computers and stationary, that contributes directly to better school performance. The positive relationship between youth engagement in organised sports and school performance is, however, also well established in the sociological literature (Shephard, 1997; Dwyer et al, 2001; Jordan, 2000).

Apartheid sport was associated with the White minority and the rest of the population was deprived of opportunities to participate in different sporting activities (Archer and Bouillon, 1982). Better opportunities for participation in sports amongst White youth reflected the general privileges accorded to the White population and the deprivation of their African counterparts; this inequality, however, existed between males and females in all racial groups (Hargreaves, 1997). In White communities sporting activities were closely associated with males. In Indian and Coloured communities, there were fewer sporting activities available to women. For Africans, sport facilities in the Townships and rural areas were impoverished and generally only catered for soccer, a sport traditionally played by young Black men in contemporary South Africa. Moreover, constraints such as high levels of poverty, domestic work, child rearing, and patriarchal controls and stereotypes such as being perceived too weak for sport, especially endurance sports, limited the participation of young females in sports, not only in Black communities but across racial groups (Aitchison, 2003). Crime, illegitimacy and other facets of social hopelessness such as the absence of neighbourliness and the absence of a community life in the Black townships and hostels (Booth, 1998: 64) left little room for constructive recreational activities and sports.

3.3 Working toward Non-racial Sport during Apartheid and Beyond

During apartheid many South Africans, especially those who valued the role of sports in promoting successful youth development among disadvantaged Black townships dwellers and in the rural
homelands opposed racial policies in sports. Various anti-apartheid sport organisations challenged racist legislation and structures in sport during NP rule. In 1958, not very long after the NP came to power, the first non-racial sports organisation in the country, the South African Sports Association (SASA) was established.

SASA’s objective was to challenge racial barriers in sports and to promote non-racial sports by influencing international sports federations to break ties with Whites-only sport organisations in South Africa (Booth, 1998: 75-76). The formation of SASA marked the beginning of a multifaceted anti-apartheid sports movement that operated both in South Africa and internationally.

After the apartheid government placed heavy restrictions on SASA and banned key leaders, some determined group leaders created the South African Non-racial Olympic Committee (SANROC) in 1963. The main objective of SANROC was to get the White dominated South African Olympic Committee (SANOC) expelled from the Olympic movement as long as race was used to determine eligibility for South African national teams. Due to high levels of repression, SANROC was forced to move its operations outside the country in 1966. The South African eligibility debate was highly contested within the International Olympic Committee (IOC). Although White South African sports leaders had considerable influence in the IOC, under great international pressure, the IOC withdrew South Africa's invitation to the 1964 Olympics in Tokyo and did not invite South Africa back into the Olympic movement until 1991 (Booth, 1998: 88).

In the 1970s, some non-racial sports activists expanded their protests to challenge the entire apartheid system, not just racism within sports. They felt that Blacks would continue to face discrimination in sports within the apartheid state and that there could be “no normal sport within an abnormal society” (Booth, 1998).

Within the context of this shifting philosophy, some non-racial sports activists formed the South African Council of Sport (SACOS). The primary principle of SACOS was the principle of non-collaboration with the White sport establishment. In the 1970s and 1980s, SACOS and SANROC were the two leading organisations in the anti-apartheid sport movement that promoted the international sports boycotts of South Africa.

In the early 1990s, with the dismantling of many apartheid laws, the international sporting boycott against South Africa ended and work towards racial transformation in sports began. In July 1994, the Department of Sports and Recreation (DSR) was established. Since the 1994 democratic
elections, there have been two macro sports organisations in control of sport in South Africa, namely the National Sports Council (NSC), a government funded umbrella organisation and the National Olympic Committee of South Africa (NOCSA).

The newly formed democratic government led by the African National Congress (ANC) appropriated the social institution of sport to assist in the nation building processes. However, this task was not uncomplicated. The controversy surrounding the retention of traditional apartheid sporting symbols such as the Springbok emblem, which was used by national sport teams under white minority rule, demonstrates some of the difficulties associated with the use of sport to unite previously segregated racial groups in South Africa (Booth, 1998: 218).

### 3.4 Development of Sports in the Democratic South Africa

The advent of democracy in 1994 and the establishment of the DSR brought significant changes in terms of sporting opportunities among previously disadvantaged racial groups. The primary goal of the DSR is to work towards the creation of national teams that are representative of the country's diverse population groups. The DSR also targets the development of female sports; this includes improving and encouraging female sport engagement in different codes including those traditionally associated with males. Young Black women in urban townships and rural areas are the most deprived social group with regard to opportunities for sporting activities due to past racial and gender biases in sports (Hargreaves, 1997). The ANC-led government plans to achieve greater gender equality and encourage women's empowerment and racial equality in sports. The new Constitution (1996) makes provision for a Gender Commission, and the ANC government has committed itself to a “Women’s Charter of Rights and Effective Equality between the Sexes” (Hargreaves, 1997: 202).

The development of comprehensive equality between gender groups and races has been slow, mainly because the availability of sporting resources and facilities in White and previously disadvantaged Black schools remains uneven and financial resources for organising sporting competitions are limited. In addition, sporting resources and facilities are often considered less of a priority compared to the provision of educational resources in academically under-achieving schools in Black townships and rural areas. Gender inequality, unemployment and youth poverty as

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2 The National Sport and Recreation Amendment Act, 2007 (Act No. 18 of 2007) provides for the disbanding of the South African Sport Commission, the National Olympic Committee of South Africa and other structures that have been closed down and recognises the Sports Confederation as the only macrostructure for sport in South Africa.
well as violence against women are some of the major issues that the ANC government needs to give more attention to in order to make it easier for young Black women to take advantage of the opportunities available in the democratic state institutions, including sports engagement.

According to the Constitution of South Africa (1996), all South Africans are equal. It does not necessarily follow, however, that there is equality of opportunity in all spheres and levels of society. Hargreaves (1997:198) observes that “there are massive gender inequalities in the sporting structures of the country, and a strong association between sport and masculinity”. This may be because few resources and facilities are available for female sports due to the issue of gender being considered less important than race.

The ANC government promised to address the situation of those who were disadvantaged during the apartheid years. This is captured in the simple yet evocative ANC slogan: “A Better Life For All”. The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) of 1994 promised a variety of measures to address the needs and problems of the majority of the country’s population, for whom poverty and minimal opportunities are a daily reality (ANC, 1994). The RDP specifically addressed issues in the country’s sporting structures, referring to these “as one of the cruellest legacies of apartheid” (Desai, 2001: 2) and promised to provide sporting activities at previously disadvantaged schools in communities where there are large concentrations of unemployed youth.

The RDP project aimed to fundamentally transform the way South African society was structured by apartheid. In sport the emphasis has been on the development of bottom-up, mass-based approaches to increase opportunities for sporting activities in Black communities and schools across the country. This is set out in the Sport and Recreation South Africa Strategic Plan (2011-2015: 1-2):

The Strategic Plan for 2011-2015 is aimed at creating increased opportunities that enable many more South Africans of varied socio-economic backgrounds to have access to sport and recreation activities, in particular the historically marginalised communities. This is in keeping with the fundamental characteristics of our developmental state which seeks to construct a national democratic society where everyone is fully absorbed into all walks of life, and functions as a productive citizenry. Sport and recreation anchors the renewed vision of the Department of Sport and Recreation on integration and transformation, which seeks to build an athletic nation of global competitors.
The DSR considers school sport as the bedrock for mass participation and talent identification. The DSR is working with the Department of Basic Education to decide which will be the lead Department in school sport and to sign an agreement to make schools accessible for participation and development in sport.

Creating access to sport in all schools and resuscitating the weekly league programmes in partnership with Federations, improving institutional and structural mechanisms for coordination and accessibility at national, provincial and local levels, and the interaction and participation of all social partners are some of the planned interventions to improve sporting activities in schools across the country (Sport and Recreation SA Strategic Plan, 2011-2015: 14).

Sporting skills, abilities, talents and interests need to be developed and nurtured at the school level; sports would need to be combined with academic learning where learners specialise in sports from primary through to high school level and even beyond school education. Research studies show that sports activities in schools increase learner attachment to school culture and may also contribute to the building of self-esteem, confidence, and a generally positive self-concept and academic self-concept among students. Although it is the intercollegiate sports that are often recognised as directly leading to professional sportsmanship, many successful sportspersons, both in South Africa and internationally, recognise the significant role of school sports in developing their professional sporting careers.

Different social challenges exist in South African schools, which hamper efforts towards successful youth development in sports and to the healthy growth of young people. These are explored below.

### 3.5 An Overview of Learners' Negative Experiences in School Sporting Activities: South Africa

Although many studies indicate a positive relationship between organised school sports activities and youth development, an emerging body of knowledge suggests that sports activities may sometimes produce negative experiences that interfere with learner’s positive development through sports.

A learner who is upset, distressed or angered by a sporting experience is unlikely to be psychologically engaged and to devote attention to learning the sporting skills needed to succeed in the specific sport. If this young person is simultaneously experiencing other personal negative
events, this can contribute to increased levels of stress; multiple simultaneous stressors contribute to depression, substance abuse, and other social problems, which sidetrack developmental processes in sports (Garber, 2004).

Youth participation in sports may expose them to subsistence abuse; smoking and experimenting with different kinds of drugs such as dagga. Sport injuries also constitute one of the negative consequences of sport engagement influencing parents’ decisions not to allow their children to play sport. Participation in school sports may create adverse levels of stress (Scanlan et al., 2005). Research suggests that peer interactions in these contexts can reinforce negative norms and behaviour patterns (Stattin et al., 2005). Some sports coaches may act in ways that promote inappropriate behaviour or have a negative influence on young people’s sense of self and faith in others (Grossman and Rhodes, 2002). Negative experiences with a sport coach are likely to interfere with the coach’s ability to shape a positive self-concept among youth in sports. Research on mentoring and youth sports suggests that a single negative experience with a mentor or coach often has proportionally more influence on that relationship than a single positive experience (Rhodes, 2002).

According to Brackenridge (2001) many female athletes in African countries experience sexual harassment and abuse as a matter of course from their male coaches. This issue has not been investigated extensively in South Africa. The shortage of female coaches for female sports contributes to the vulnerability to sexual harassment of young girls in sports. Under-reporting of harassment cases in South African sports may be due to different reasons including the taboos surrounding discussing the problem, and protecting the harassing culture. Uncovering the harassing culture in many social institutions even outside of sport is a complicated task for most young women due to their generally subordinate position in patriarchal societies (Brackenridge, 2001). In order to prevent such incidents from occurring and recurring it would be important that when authorities develop or improve female sporting activities in communities and schools, they also develop specific committees or persons to investigate and press complaints in sexual harassment cases or other forms of sexual violence in schools generally and in school sports more specifically.

When the situation involves a male coach and a young female student it may be difficult for the young girl to report it, because the relationship between an adult male and a young girl is characterised by unequal power relations. Female school athletes are young and may be afraid to express their concerns. This may be fuelled by cultural expectations, which require young girls and women to be respectful and submissive to adult males in many African communities. Some male
coaches may use their power to try and persuade the female athletes under their control to offer them sexual services. These coaches may promise the young, vulnerable athlete material rewards such as being selected to represent the school in sports competitions and tournaments.

The allegations of incidents of sexual harassment made against the coach of the national women's soccer team Banyana Banyana (The Girls) illustrate the negative experiences young people have within organised sports in South Africa. In January this year, the South African Football Association (SAFA) announced that it would not renew the contract of suspended Banyana Banyana coach Augustine Makalakalane. Makalakalane was suspended toward the end of year 2010 pending an investigation into allegations of sexual harassment and homophobia levelled against him (Baloyi, 2010). Complaints were reportedly made against Makalakalane by several Banyana Banyana players, including the goalkeeper, Nthabiseng Matshaba and former Banyana Banyana skipper, Portia Modise (ibid). If allegations of sexual harassment are reported in national teams, young girls engaged in school sports could well fall victim to sexual harassment and other forms of gender-based violence. At present the nature and extent of the problem is not clear due to under-reporting and the lack of independent structures to investigate such cases.

Research on negative experiences of youth in sports shows that silence has negative consequences. Being silent about sexual harassment and sexual violence may lead to depression and anxiety, contributing to low levels of school performance, dropping out of sports, alcoholism and early school-leaving (Scanlan et al., 2005). Given the potentially disruptive effects of negative experiences in youth sports, there is a need to systematically investigate ways in which to minimise the occurrence of such negative experiences and ways to deal with them when they are reported. Such research would also need to focus on protecting, supporting and empowering victims of abuse, rather than blaming them as having contributed to the incident, as often is the case with females who experience sexual violence within South Africa's criminal justice system. Knowledge of the variety of negative experiences that youth encounter and their consequences is important for the evaluation of the effectiveness of sports activities in contributing to the building of a positive academic self-concept among sport engaged students, resulting in better school performance.

Negative experiences are not confined to the sporting arena; South Africa’s schooling system faces different kinds of social challenges, which threaten the safety and healthy development of South African youth. Some of these challenges emanate from the Bantu Education ideology of the past. Research into educational standards in contemporary South Africa reveals that some schools have become unsafe for many South African youth, especially young girls (Human Rights Watch, 2001).
This issue and other critical youth development challenges in South African schools are explored in the sections to follow. Policy responses to youth development challenges in South Africa are also highlighted.

3.6 Some Critical Youth Development Challenges in South African Schools

The apartheid government’s introduction of the segregationist Bantu Education ideology and the Bantu Education Act (1953) in particular was intended to create inferior education for the majority of Africans through designing and enforcing racially segregated schools with an unequal curriculum quality. Bantu Education signified education for subservience and cultural domination by imposing outmoded tribal customs, languages and governance on the unwilling majority of African youth (Christie and Collins, 1982: 60). Educational provisions for African schools were inadequate. There was a shortage of teachers, many of whom were poorly qualified, some of whom were not qualified at all. School facilities were limited, buildings were usually rudimentary and inadequate and there were shortages of furniture, books and other school equipment (Christie and Collins, 1982: 62-63). African schools were systematically under-funded, under-resourced, and generally geared toward the mass production of a subservient labour force; people who would become peasants and under-paid general labourers in White households and firms.

A Marxist analysis can also be used to understand the education system in apartheid South Africa. A class analysis suggests that consideration of broad economic interests indicates real contradictions in apartheid South Africa. The real contradiction was not simply between the racist Whites and the oppressed Black majority; but rather, between White capitalists and the Black proletariat (Christie and Collins, 1982). In other words, Whites were not oppressing Blacks simply because they were racists, but because they needed them as non-competitive, cheap labour.

The end of apartheid marked the beginning of an era where all South Africans would have equal rights and opportunities in all spheres of social life, including education. Since the advent of democracy in 1994 educational standards for the majority of Africans have improved. The introduction of the Outcomes Based Education (2005) system was intended to revive the school education system and improve the quality of education across the country. Although, the democratic government did increase funding to open the doors of learning to the majority of young South Africans, many critical educational challenges remain. There is a wide range of youth development challenges in South Africa including significant levels of school failure, school drop-out, teenage pregnancy, smoking, crime, and drug and alcohol abuse among school-going youth. The problems
of violence in South African schools, the HIV/AIDS epidemic and youth unemployment and poverty are highlighted for the purposes of this study as they are considered the most pressing issues for educationists, policy makers and communities in South Africa.

3.6.1 A Brief Overview of the Issue of Violence in South African Schools

South African society emerged from a history of apartheid in which violence was routinely used by the state as a means of exerting power and control. Years of violent enforcement of apartheid policies and the violent struggle against state-led violence produced what has been termed a ‘culture of violence’ (Mathews et al, 1999). The crimes and strategies of intimidation committed in the name of the ‘struggle’ by anti-apartheid movements may be responsible for this ‘culture’. Between the apartheid state and the struggle for equality, young people grew up in a society surrounded by death, abuse, and violent crimes; hence violence came to be accepted as a normal way of life (Mathews et al, 1999). The use of violence, by both the former apartheid government and the liberation movement also taught many South Africans that violence is a powerful means of attaining change and redress.

Research by the Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSVR) suggests that this culture of violence affected popular thinking throughout South Africa and legitimised the further use of violence in different spheres of society, including schools (CSVR, 1994). The culture of violence describes a situation in which families, schools, and communities appear to be caught up in a victim-perpetrator cycle in which violence is seen as a valid means of exerting the patriarchal power of masculinities over femininities and some masculinities and as a means of conflict resolution in relationships between males and females. An overwhelming level of daily violence continues to traumatis and shape the lives of many young people and this situation seems to be worse in urban township communities.

The apartheid legacy presents a challenge to the democratic government, as violence levels remain high in many spheres of society, including schools. Schools are less equipped to deal with violent crimes than families, which are protected by the Domestic Violence Act (No. 116 of 1998) and many governmental and non-governmental organizations exist to address violence in families. There is no doubt that schools have become unsafe, violent places for many South African children.
Violence in schools is often sexualised, with devastating consequences for young girls who disproportionately bear the brunt of sexual violence, not only in schools but also in society at large. The Jules High School case in Johannesburg, in which a female student was allegedly gang-raped while her classmates watched and recorded the scene on a cellphone, represents one of many horrible incidents in our schools. In the Jules High School case, the National Prosecuting Authority (NPA) vowed to prosecute anybody who has a video clip of the incident or has distributed or sold it. The video clips constitute child pornography, which is illegal in terms of the Films and Publications Act (Van Wyk, 2010).

A Human Rights Watch (HRW, 2001) report suggests that the problem of sexual violence including sexual abuse and harassment of girls by both teachers and other students is widespread in the South African schooling environment. Girls who experience sexual violence at school are often raped in school toilets, in empty classrooms and hallways, and in hostels and dormitories. Girls are also fondled, subjected to aggressive sexual advances, and verbally degraded while at school.

Sexual violence in schools has many consequences, which may negatively affect the educational right of all children set out in the country's Constitution (1996). The HRW report states that sexual violence has a profoundly destabilising effect on the education of girl children. Many school-going rape survivors report that their school performance has suffered. It may become difficult to concentrate on school work after their assault. Some victims of sexual assault report losing interest in school altogether. Young girls who are sexually assaulted are likely to fail their matriculation exams and they may lose interest in extracurricular activities such as school sports. Rape victims, in particular, may become depressed, disruptive and anxious. Social workers, teachers and parents express concern that young girls they know to have experienced different forms of sexual violence are not performing to their full potential (HRW, 2001: 5-6).

Urban township youth and other disadvantaged populations bear the brunt of this violence; however they are not the only ones affected. Dovey’s (1996) surveys have shown that many young people in South Africa from all walks of life are living in a conflict-ridden culture, whether at intra-personal, inter-personal, inter-group, or broader societal level. To achieve redress and change, it will be necessary to break the cycle of violence that has become a systemic part of our family, school, and community way of life.
The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), which South Africa ratified on December 10, 1998, requires governments to ensure the rights to life and security of the person of all individuals in their jurisdictions. Similarly, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) enshrines the right to bodily and psychological integrity and the right to life, and recognises the inherent dignity of all human beings and the right to have that dignity respected and protected. In compliance with international and national laws, South Africa must take all appropriate steps to prevent acts of violence against young girls in South African schools.

Sexual violence not only has negative consequences on the educational rights of young people, but also contributes to the spread of diseases such as HIV/AIDS, which has become the leading cause of death among the youth of South Africa.

3.6.2 HIV/AIDS Epidemic: A Challenge for South Africa's Youth

In 2004, it was estimated that 70% of deaths among people aged 15 to 49 years were due to AIDS-related causes (Everatt, 2007). HIV/AIDS has far reaching consequences on other pillars of life such as education, economic participation and family structure. Any disruption to these can mean an insecure future for South African society, as youth are expected to assume economic and political leadership in the future. In many Black urban township communities contracting the HIV virus is seen more or less as part of growing up, surely not something to be eagerly anticipated, but accepted nonetheless as an almost inevitable consequence of being an adult, a status which presupposes being sexually active (Leclerc-Madlala, 1997: 367-368). When people are sick for more than a day or two, or cough in public, lose weight, or just admit to feeling weak, it is speculated that HIV/AIDS is the cause.

Fear of HIV/AIDS and talk about the diseases related to AIDS abound among young people in many Black urban townships. It is rare to find young individuals who want to confirm their HIV status. Many young people are convinced that they are already carrying the virus, while most are satisfied with not knowing whether they are or are not infected. The general feeling is that it is just a matter of time until one becomes infected, and many are sure that their peers in the community have contracted the virus (Leclerc-Madlala, 1997).

Taking the above into cognisance, the National Youth Policy (NYP, 2009-2014), an essential planning tool guiding the country's approach to youth development, views youth health problems
from a socio-economic and life cycle perspective. The objective is to address issues of livelihoods and the social circumstances of young people, thus ensuring that their health remains a priority.

The success of HIV/AIDS prevention programmes will depend on effective collaboration between various stakeholders, and between state departments. In this regard the Departments of Health, Social Development and Education should expand school health services, so that they can be accessed by youth in schools to obtain, among other things, counselling services, contraceptives, antenatal services, and information on HIV prevention (NYP, 2009-2014: 25). The Department of Health should provide more information on sexuality, reproductive health and risky behaviour and produce age-appropriate information packages targeted towards at-risk youth. Different media types might prove useful. Love Life campaigns and Abstain Be faithful and use a Condom (ABC) messages have played an important role in spreading information about HIV/AIDS, living a healthy lifestyle with HIV/AIDS and measures to prevent the spread of the HIV virus. The Department of Education should ensure that education around sexuality forms part of the life skills curriculum from an early age in primary schools to empower youth to prevent risky behaviour that exposes them to HIV infection later in life (NYP, 2009-2014). The Departments of Health and Social Development should ensure that young people are able to access condoms, and voluntary counselling and testing (VCT) services at local clinics and within youth organisations dealing with HIV/AIDS in their communities.

3.6.3 Youth Unemployment and Poverty in South Africa

In this study ‘youth’ has been defined in accordance with the NYP (2009-2014) definition as people within the 14 - 35-year age group. Unemployment, on the other hand, is defined in accordance with the International Labor Organization (ILO) definition, which states that the unemployed are those people who have not worked for more than one hour during a short reference period (generally the previous week), but who are available for work and actively seeking work. Hence youth unemployment is understood as young people who are willing and able to work but cannot find employment. In South Africa, however, the definition of youth unemployment is elastic as it includes discouraged job seekers - people who wish to work but are not actively looking for a job (Kingdon and Knight as cited in Mlatsheni and Rospabé, 2002).

Unemployment generally leads to increased levels of poverty. Hellmann (cited in Booth, 1998: 68) defines poverty as living on minimum subsistence, that is, the minimum income, barring sickness or any other exigencies, on which physical efficiency can be maintained. The available income is spent...
on basic necessities like food, clothing, lighting, and fuel. This is not a human standard of living, as it does not allow anything for entertainment, sports, medicine, education, saving, and for holidays.

It is estimated that one third of all South African youth live in poverty, and approximately half of this one third lives in extreme poverty. According to the Labour Force Survey (2007) nearly two-thirds of youth in the 15-24-year age group live in households with expenditure of less than R1 200 per month, as do approximately 60% of youth aged 25 to 34 years.

Morrow et al (cited in NYP, 2009-2014: 14) identify two general causes of youth poverty in South Africa: continuous reliance on poor households and unemployment. Poverty tends to reproduce itself among young people from already impoverished families. Conditions of poverty further hamper access to basic services for large numbers of young people living in poor households and constrain their ability to take up opportunities offered in South Africa’s Social Development Programmes.

Evidence exists to show that the problem of youth unemployment is unequally distributed among racial groups and between males and females in South Africa. Young economically active Africans suffer from very low access to participation in the labour market, as 60% of them are unemployed, which is double the unemployment rate of Coloureds and Indians. Young Whites appear to be relatively less affected by unemployment as less than 10 percent of this group are jobless (Mlatsheni and Rospabé, 2002: 4). In addition, young women suffer more from unemployment than men; 57% of young females, compared to 44% of the male labour force are unemployed (ibid).

However, these statistics need to be read with caution especially the data that indicate that unemployment is unequally distributed among races. Africans are the majority of South Africa's population, so figures suggesting that more young Africans are unemployed may be indicative of the disproportional distribution of racial groups in the country.

Unemployment tends to be accompanied by a number of social problems, including: crime, drug and alcohol abuse, unwanted pregnancies, poor health and the loss of the self-esteem and the confidence needed to participate in the broader society. Unemployed youth struggle to participate meaningfully in the economy and require assistance in dealing with the wide range of concerns and problems they experience in finding employment (Ngcaweni and Moleke, 2007).
The causes of youth unemployment have been widely studied in the economic literature and have been classified in many different ways across countries. In South Africa, poor educational standards and lack of skills are widely recognised as the main causes of youth unemployment.

Young people with low educational achievements experience more difficulty in finding employment (Giret, cited in Mlatsheni and Rospabé, 2002). In many developing economies in the southern African region as well as in the Far East, the quality of education is a major issue. The poor quality of teaching staff, the physical environment and material teaching resources discourage youth from regular attendance at school and increase the drop-out rates. In addition, the efficiency and effectiveness of the education system in providing adequate productive person-power is characterised by a “mismatch” between the qualifications of the youth and the types of work available in the labour market (Khan and Hemson, 2002). Traditional education is not always capable of bridging the gap between school and the world of work nor encouraging young people to take up self-employment (UN ESCAP, cited in Khan and Hemson, 2002: 294-296). The introduction of Outcome Based Education (OBE) in 2005 was aimed at addressing the shortage of some of the critical technical skills required in South Africa’s developing economy. It was envisaged that the new system would contribute to increased prospects for youth employment and employability and provide learners with the skills they need to take up opportunities for self-employment. The measure of success of the OBE system is yet to be fully understood and a number of criticisms have been leveled against the system, particularly regarding the level of teachers’ preparedness for teaching the New Curriculum.

Education and critical skills development among youth is important for the success of strategies that aim to address the issue of unemployed and unemployable youth of South African. According to Nelson Mandela’s dictum on education and humanity:

Education is the greatest engine of personal development. It is through education that the daughter of a peasant can become a doctor, that a son of a mineworker can become a head of a mine, that a child of farmworkers can become the president of a great nation. It is what we make out of what we have, not what we are given, that separates one person from another (Mandela, 1995:194).

One of the African National Congress (ANC)’s Youth League’s campaigns is for free education, from primary to tertiary level. The League has visited disadvantaged schools to help improve conditions and to encourage students to excel in their studies. The free education campaign demonstrates an element of long-term thinking. This strategy is relevant in South Africa, where a
critical lack of skills, particularly among the youth, is combined with high levels of poverty. Indeed, if properly carried out, this could be a programme that could leave a lasting legacy for the ANC Youth League in the post-apartheid era (Khumalo, 2011).

Unemployment may also result from imperfect information on the labour market. The theory of job search (Johnson, 1978) explains the different strategies of job seeking and the duration of unemployment by youth-specific preferences and constraints. The theory stipulates that a young job seeker must first try out a job before deciding if he or she is going to keep it or start a new search. However, in the South African context some graduates may not take the jobs available in the labour market if they feel that the jobs are beneath their standards; in other words, some would choose to remain unemployed rather than doing jobs they consider odd or inferior. This certainly contributes to augmented statistics of youth unemployment in South Africa.

There is a need for more accurate labour market information to assist in formulating policies and programmes for young people to make informed decisions in the labour market and avoid 'mismatches' in the labour market. This will facilitate informed decisions on education, career choices and methods of job search (Khan and Hemson, 2002). The Skills Development Act of 1999 provides for Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) made up of employers, trade unions and government in both the formal and informal sectors. SETAs are a key mechanism for addressing the skills shortages in the country, but have been heavily criticized for not delivering on their mandate to develop skills.

Youth should be encouraged to pursue vocational training programmes that meet the needs of the job market. This will enable South Africa to address challenges such as flexibility in training and adaptation to new technological means of production that have been posed by globalisation (ILO World Employment Report, 1998-1999, cited in Khan and Hemson, 2002: 299). In South Africa, the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) was established to create apprentice-like qualifications and accreditation in order to keep abreast of globalisation and changes in labour market demands. While globalisation has many negative effects, on the positive front, it forces developing countries to constantly upgrade skills and training standards to meet the challenges of competition (Khan and Hemson, 2002: 299).

The South African government makes continuous efforts to promote critical skills development among the youth in order to increase youth participation in the labour market. The National Youth Policy (NYP, 2009-2014) recognises the need to intensify current interventions that seek to address
youth unemployment by bringing other key role players across different sectors on board. The NYP specifically targets the private sector in order to mobilise resources to support initiatives that seek to develop the youth (Ngcaweni, 2006). Central to this are initiatives such as the Youth Development Forum, Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP), Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa, Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition, and others, which work to address youth unemployment, among other youth developmental issues. It is, however, crucial that these interventions are massified in terms of scale and impact, so that they also address the employment needs of young people with no post-matric education in urban townships and the rural areas of South Africa. Policy plans should also target the development needs of youth living with disabilities and those confined in Correctional Centres across the country.

3.7 South Africa’s Youth Development Policies

The ANC Youth League was formed as an autonomous youth wing within the ANC in 1944. The formation of the Youth League brought fundamental changes to its mother body with its slogan “Freedom in our lifetime”. This generation’s dedication ensured that it was at the forefront of negotiating political liberation for the people of South Africa.

In the post-apartheid South Africa, the ANC Youth League began to focus its energies more on governance issues, particularly relating to youth affairs. This is evident in a number of issues it has taken up and the formulation of ambitious and radical policies. Its policy of “economic freedom in our lifetime” raises important issues of redistribution and economic justice in South Africa. However, controversial pronouncements such as the “Shoot the Boer” song and a demand for “generational mix” in the leadership of the ANC are likely to contribute to divisions within the leading party itself and among racial groups in the country; this is the antithesis of democracy (Khumalo, 2011).

On the education front, there have been some improvements but many schools in former Black communities are still characterised by rudimentary buildings, poor quality teaching, lack of educational and recreational resources, low levels of school performance and violent crime. Tertiary education remains inaccessible for many young people, particularly Black youth in rural areas and urban townships, largely due to low school academic achievements, lack of information about alternative access options and lack of finances.
In order to address youth issues at the social level, the ANC Youth League works very closely with the National Youth Development Agency (NYDA). The NYDA is the result of a merger of the National Youth Commission and Umsobomvu Youth Fund. The NYDA was formally launched on 16 June 2009, as pronounced by His Excellency President Jacob Zuma in his 2009 State of the Nation Address. The NYDA is a South African youth development agency mandated to create, promote and facilitate coordination of youth development programmes and interventions aimed at reducing youth unemployment and poverty, and promoting social cohesion (National Youth Development Agency Act No. 54 of 2008).

Although the NYDA was established to integrate the youth into the economy and society in general, it has achieved very little in terms of its specific functions and mandates. In its 2010 presentation to Parliament, the NYDA claimed to have created 33 000 jobs for the youth of South Africa. However, the Democratic Alliance (DA) leadership argued that the report should be read with caution since the agency has been unable to provide clear details on how this figure was calculated. Some researchers have also expressed concern regarding the agency’s silence on the low levels of school performance among many Black youth in rural and township schools. This is a factor widely known to contribute to increased levels of under-employment and unemployment and poverty among youth; in this regard the agency seems to have no clear strategy for youth development (Khumalo, 2011).

Accomplishing economic freedom for all South Africans is the ANC Youth League’s macroeconomic strategy towards South Africa’s youth development. The League believes that the majority share of the economy is still in the hands of the few while the majority is still economically marginalised (Khumalo, 2011). The “Economic freedom in our lifetime” campaign supports the nationalisation of mines and monopoly industries in order to realise economic freedom for all. The programme is based on the basic policy document of the ANC, the Freedom Charter, which states that: “the mineral wealth beneath the soil, the banks and monopoly industry shall be transferred to the ownership of the people”.

Among the indirect benefits of nationalisation for the youth would be an increased budget for social programmes such as job creation, better health care and faster progress towards free education (Khumalo, 2011). However, the nationalisation campaign is not without its critics. Commentators point out that nationalisation did not work in other countries and that it could have dire consequences for South Africa’s developing economy.
The radical attitude of the ANC Youth League could be seen as appropriate, because restructuring the economy requires revolutionary thinkers who are not afraid to speak the truth. However, the criticisms are also valid and the government should be commended for resolving to conduct intensive research on the possible costs and benefits of state ownership before it makes a final decision.

3.8 Summary

The objective of this chapter was to provide a brief historical account of the development of sports within the context of apartheid racial oppression and discrimination. Key social challenges facing South Africa’s youth in the democratic state were also explored.

The chapter began by examining the dimensions of racial discrimination and exclusion in South African sports during the apartheid years and also explored the work of some notable anti-apartheid sports movements, which opposed discrimination and exclusion and fought for equal opportunities in sports.

Despite the progress made in increasing sporting opportunities in previously marginalised communities, there is still much work to be done to create racially representative national teams across different sport codes in South Africa. The issue of gender equality in South Africa’s sporting arena warrants much more attention than is currently the case.

The chapter also outlined some of the key social challenges facing South Africa’s youth. These challenges are important to understand, as they may hamper efforts towards successful youth development. Violent crimes in urban township schools, mass youth unemployment and poverty and the HIV/AIDS epidemic are some of the most pressing challenges. Current policy directions aimed at addressing these were highlighted and critiqued in terms of the particular conditions prevailing in contemporary South Africa.

The following chapter describes the research methods and strategies used to select the sample for the study, and collect, present and analyse the data that is presented in Chapter five.
Chapter Four

“Irrespective of what you want to find out, or what you want to discover, or what facts you want to acquire, there is a process involved - a process of scientific enquiry, a way of learning and knowing things about the world around us” (Fouché and Delport, 2002:77).

Methodology

4.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to describe the methodology and methods utilised in conducting the case study. The chapter describes how primary data arising from both self-administered (by learners) survey questionnaires and interviews with school teachers is analysed and interpreted using Predictive Analytic Soft-Ware (PASW) 18.0 (formerly SPSS) in order to assess the presumed relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance. In-depth interviews were conducted with some of the teachers at the school, with the objective of gaining a holistic understanding of the context of the study as well as other dimensions of the topic under investigation. This set of data is thematically analysed to test the assumptions on which the study is based.

This chapter also explains why particular research methods for selecting participants were deemed appropriate for the study: it provides a rationale for the selection of particular methods and various techniques. Steps taken in accordance with social science research protocols involving young people as research subjects are also explained.

The limitations of the study design as well as the particular data analysis methods adopted in the study form an integral part of this chapter. By revealing some of the limitations of the study it is envisaged that the prospects for its future replication will be enhanced. This is especially important in light of the fact that this study is modelled on theoretical notions on PYD as espoused in western, developed countries. The following section describes how the applicability of the elements of the PYD theory is tested for the purposes of this study.
4.2 Positive Youth Development (PYD): School Competence and Contribution to community

As noted in the literature review in Chapter two, youth engaged in sports stand to gain various benefits that contribute to positive youth development. Enhanced general physical health, psychological or emotional development, and intellectual and social development are among these benefits (Fraser-Thomas et al, 2005). Since most PYD research originates from Europe and North America, it may be inadequate for the purposes of policy formulation and practice in the developing South African context. If youth sport is to be successfully employed as a means to promote positive development among youth in the community of Chesterville, which is characterised by different kinds of social disadvantage, there is a need for PYD - influenced research which considers the local socio-economic realities associated with the challenges of everyday living. Exploring youth programmes that contribute to PYD in the local developing context is important because it helps to fill a gap in the body of knowledge by testing the applicability of PYD assumptions through sporting activities in a locality other than the major countries in Europe and America. The objective is to enhance the scope and focus of PYD research, while at the same time exploring avenues for developing and promoting the healthy development of young people through organised sporting activities within historically disadvantaged Black communities in South Africa.

Within the field of youth sports, Lerner et al’s Model of National Youth Policy (2000) offers a comprehensive framework for positive youth development through sports engagement. As noted in the literature review, the six Cs of PYD are broad and varied; for this reason this study tests only the two major Cs of the PYD theory: Competence in academia and respondents’ perceptions about youth Contribution to family, school and community as desired PYD outcomes through sports engagement.

Lerner et al’s Model (2000) suggests that families and communities need to support youth engagement in activities that promote different aspects of growth. If youth feel supported in what they do, they are likely to work hard and succeed in that activity and in life in general. If this occurs they will in turn demonstrate the desired Cs of PYD (Damon, 2004). Youth sports engagement is known to contribute to physically, socially, psychologically, emotionally, and intellectually healthy youth who will grow into responsible citizens who will make choices of benefit to themselves and others in their families and communities. This is enshrined in the African concept of ubuntu where people are encouraged to be considerate and care for others in need in different ways, including charitable work contributing to social upliftment and empowerment.
In this study reliable and valid self-administered survey questionnaires are used to assess Competence and Contribution as desired youth positive outcomes through sports engagement. In order to assess the applicability of several components of perceived and actual competence, particularly academic competence (which is measured through school performance), and self-worth (which reflects feelings of self-esteem), learners were asked to choose between five pre-determined responses arranged in a Likert-type scale to assess actual or perceived school competence. Each response is weighted from 1 to 5, where a score of 1 indicates low perceived competence and a score of 5 reflects perceived high competence in various areas. Overall scores are computed for each of the questions testing competence and compared in order to explore variability in response between sports engaged and non-engaged learners in the study.

In order to assess the C of youth Contribution to family, school and community, questions in a Likert-type scale were also designed to assess the extent to which learners in the sample exhibit the desired positive outcomes of youth sports engagement. Questions were designed to assess learners’ perceptions about youth contribution to family and community. Pre-determined responses are arranged from 1 = strongly disagree through to 5 = strongly agree, indicating the highest level of social responsibility among the categories of learners in the study. Examples of questions designed to assess the philosophy regarding family and community contribution include: “When young people become financially independent it is important that they contribute to family expenses in order to reduce the financial burden on parents”, and “Young people need to work hard so that they become successful in life so that they may become meaningful members of their community”. Answers from both sports engaged and non-engaged learners are computed and analysed in order to explore variations in response. In addition, variations in response between males and females, both within and across the two groups of learners in the sample, are analysed.

4.3 The Case Study Design

The study is school-based because it is considered that the school environment is a good setting for early youth interventions and the promotion of all facets of a healthy lifestyle. Schools offer an environment where academic learning can be combined with essential life skills education and health promoting lifestyles through sporting activities as well as other extracurricular opportunities for learner development (Melich, 2007).

This study employs a case study analysis as a methodological approach to collect, analyse and interpret data to inform the assumptions underlying the subject under investigation. A part from
collecting primary data, a case study aims to understand the units of study as a whole, rather than as individual factors (De Vause, 2001). Units of analysis in this study include sports engaged and non-engaged learners in grades 11 and 12, as well as school teachers. The aim is to build an understanding that is informed by the context in which the whole case exists.

As noted earlier, this case study consists of various components of analysis, which will help to provide a clearer and more complete picture of the school's sporting culture and academic achievements, including its complexity in a context where nothing has been documented through formal research. A full picture of the study locality can only be obtained if data is collected from a wide range of constituent elements. In this way one avoids examining just one or some of the constituent elements. Although it is anticipated that information gained from different categories of learners and teachers will probably differ, in combination it is more than likely to provide a much wider and more in-depth understanding of the topic under investigation than any one particular element of the school.

A combination of quantitative and qualitative forms of social inquiry is undertaken making use of self-administered survey questionnaires and in-depth interviews as primary data collection instruments. Such a methodological approach is in keeping with what Denzin (1978: 302) alludes to as ‘triangulation’, the purpose of which is to capture a more complete, holistic and contextual portrayal of the units under study.

4.4 Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity are regarded as very important concepts in research. This section defines these two concepts and describes how maximal reliability and validity is maintained in the current study. The self-administered survey questionnaires and in-depth interviews for this study are designed in such a way that valid and relevant quantitative and qualitative data from different categories of learners and teachers are collected.

4.4.1 Reliability

If the instrument for collecting data is reliable it suggests an increased possibility of obtaining similar results if the researcher repeats the study in a similar context or when other interested researchers replicate the study (Wimmer and Dominick, 2003). Reliability, therefore, can be
understood as the extent to which data collection methods and procedures produce consistent results in repeated trials. In this study, the same survey questionnaire that was administered to sport engaged learners was also administered to sports non-engaged learners for the purposes of comparative analysis. In this way the reliability of the questionnaire is estimated by examining the consistency of the responses between the two groups of learners in the survey stage of the project. As results show logically consistent patterns of response with regard to the role of sports in producing desired PYD outcomes and advancing school performance, they highlight the reliability of the survey questionnaire design used to collect data from learners in the study. In addition, the fact that standardised instruments are used in the study provides a level of reliability, because all respondents in the study are tested equally for standardised responses for comparative purposes.

However, one needs to be mindful that even if exact research methods and procedures are followed, it would still be unlikely that one survey questionnaire produces 100 percent identical results in different trials. This is due to the fact that people’s experiences and opinions change over time. For example, the sport non-engaged learner in the first trial might have joined sports in subsequent trials and so responds differently to the questions in the replicated questionnaire. The replicated study may involve different group of learners and results may also differ due to different contexts if the study is replicated in another school.

4.4.2 Validity

While reliability is concerned with the accuracy of actual data collection methods and procedures, validity on other hand, is concerned with the success of the study in measuring what it is supposed to measure (Wimmer and Dominick, 2003). The level of validity in the study is estimated on the basis of the consistency of the data collected. In the survey phase of the study, self-administered questionnaires were used in order to encourage respondents to record their responses themselves, rather than the researcher writing on their behalf. At the initial data gathering phase respondents were briefed about the nature and extent of the study and were requested to provide honest responses on their level of involvement in sporting activities and school performance.

In the case of the in-depth interviews with selected teachers in the school, the researcher recorded exactly what the interviewees said without omitting anything or adding personal opinions and assumptions about what was said. Where clarity was needed, the researcher asked for a repeat response so that the interviewee was clear on what was being recorded. In addition to note taking, a
tape recorder was used to record interviews with interviewees who gave permission to use the tape recorder. The research subjects were provided with a copy of the written response in order to validate whether it was recorded accurately.

De Vause (2001) speaks about two forms of validity in research, that is, internal and external validity. These question the possibility and extent of generalisability of the results of the study beyond the study setting. The following section describes the measures taken to ensure and maintain both internal and external validity in the study.

4.4.2.1 Internal Validity

Internal validity is about the validity of results within a study. This usually concerns causality, that is, the strength of assigning causes to outcomes (De Vause, 2001). For experimental research designs within tightly controlled conditions, it is usually easy to achieve high internal validity. However, in exploratory case study designs such as this one, it becomes difficult to control the environment and research subjects in order to observe the effects of sporting activities causing change in school performance amongst sport engaged learners, so that the study can claim high internal validity. Claiming high internal validity basically means that the researcher assigns causes to effects unambiguously. The study used probability sampling procedures in order to improve randomness in the sample selection process as a method of increasing internal validity. The objective was to isolate the effects of sports engagement on school performance from the effects of other intervening variables. It was important to isolate the effects of intervening variables between sports engagement and school performance because they do not form part of the real relationship between sports engagement and school performance. However, intervening variables may predict learner school performance.

In research one can only control for intervening variables that one knows and that are in fact measurable (Wimmer and Dominick, 2003). In the study only social class-related variables were controlled for. Social class-related variables such as family economic background, parents' educational achievements and availability of educational resources at home may potentially confound our thinking about learners' scholarly performance, because parents' level of academic achievement, for example, may not be a real factor in a learner's school performance. To reduce the effects of social class-related variables stratified and systematic research strategies were used. The aim was to achieve a representative distribution of learners from different socio-economic family
backgrounds. The sample includes learners whose parents are well educated, have university or college degrees and diplomas and those whose parents have only a matriculation certificate. Some learners reported that their parents have no high school education at all.

In addition to explanations of alternative causal relationships, De Vause (2001) identifies another important component of internal validity, which is the rigour with which the study was conducted. In order to improve levels of internal validity in the study this component of validity was taken into consideration. Self-administered survey questionnaires were first administered to the group of sports engaged learners in order to assess the impact of sporting activities on their school performance. A wide range of questions were included in the survey questionnaire and inconsistent questions with respect to the sports non-engaged learners were omitted after the control group had answered the questionnaire. However, in the process of amending the questionnaire so that it became relevant to sport non-engaged learners some questions in the control group questionnaire were repeated in order to consistently measure academic self-concept, confidence, school performance and other PYD-related variables in the sports non-engaged learners for comparative purposes. Responses from sport engaged and non-engaged learners are compared and analysed in order to explore ways in which responses differ to similar questions. The more learners responded differently to similar questions, the more the researcher is able to identify the potential effects of sports engagement on school performance amongst learners participating in the study.

4.4.2.2 External Validity

External validity may be defined as the extent to which the results of a study are generalizable to other groups of people external to the setting of the study sample (Wimmer and Dominick, 2003). However, some small-scale case study designs such as this one, may suffer from a lack of statistical generalization, reducing the external validity of the research project (De Vaus, 2001). Although small-scale case studies may not be able to create sufficient statistical generalization beyond the study setting, they can create theoretical generalization through the logic of replication. If researchers are careful with their research designs then it should follow that the processes used to obtain results can be replicated in other studies, even if it means different answers result due to different contexts (Baker, 2008). This case study attempts to achieve this form of external validity by selecting a representative sample of learners from different socio-economic family backgrounds, males and females, and sports engaged as well as sports non-engaged learners. The research design has been carefully documented and the survey questionnaire is included as an appendix. As a result of the sample used and the documentation of the questionnaire design, it is hoped that results will
not vary to any significant extent for other grade 11 and 12 learners in other high schools. This will produce not only the possibility of replicating the study, but also enhance the possibility of theoretical generalization (De Vause, 2001).

4.5 Considerations in the Choice of Research Locality

As stated in the introductory chapter one of the objectives of the study is to ascertain the applicability of PYD programmes as practised in the first world in the South African context which faces many youth challenges inherited from the apartheid legacy. The literature review strongly suggests that sports engagement is a catalyst for youth development initiatives (Fraser-Thomas et al, 2005). Given the different kinds of youth challenges in South Africa and noting that former Black townships place youth at risk due to high levels of underdevelopment, the Chesterville community within the Metropolitan Area of Durban, an urban Black settlement, is targeted to test the applicability of some PYD theory components through sports engagement. Like other Black townships in the post-apartheid South Africa, Chesterville is in need of major socio-economic redevelopment, including its community infrastructure so that the next generation of social capital through the present day youth can be reproduced. Besides such physical intervention, a need exists to break through the psychological deprivation trap that perpetuated itself over generations of poverty, social marginalisation and social exclusion. It is in this context, that Chesterville presents an ideal research site to test the impact of youth sports engagement on school performance in a historically disadvantaged community. It also provides an opportunity to test PYD principles through youth sports engagement and to establish what can be done to promote such opportunity within the socially disadvantaged Chesterville community. Lastly, through this case study, it is hoped that windows of opportunity will be opened to influence youth development policies through further research.

4.6 Sampling Design

Researchers study a sample in an effort to understand the population from which it was drawn. As such researchers are interested in describing the sample not primarily as an end in itself, but rather as a means of helping us to explain some facets of the population (Strydom and Venter, 2002:199). A sample, therefore, can be understood as a subset of measurements drawn from a population in which we are interested. Samples are used because we are unable to use the entire population for various pragmatic reasons. Samples save time and money for the researcher. The following section
describes the steps and processes used to select the sample of learners as well the sample for the in-depth interviews for this study.

4.6.1 Sampling Frame and Sample Selection

The sampling frame is the target population from which the sample is drawn and to which the research data would be generalised (Gorard, 2003). The sampling frame for this study is a list of all registered grade 11 and 12 learners classified as either sports engaged or non-engaged at CSS in 2011.

By and large, the study used probability sampling techniques; however, the process began by identifying sports engaged and non-engaged learners in the sampling frame for comparative purposes. The purposive sampling technique was deemed appropriate to achieve the goal of identifying and classifying learners into such broad categories. Purposive sampling ensures that particular persons are carefully selected for the important information they can provide, that cannot otherwise be obtained from other sampling choices (Maxwell, 1997: 87). In the study sports engaged learners were identified with the help of a panel of teachers at the school, especially those who are involved in school sports at different levels, including sport coaches and members of the school's sports committee.

After sports engaged learners were purposively identified and classified and a sampling frame was formulated, the study used probability sampling procedures to randomly select the required number of learners from the purposively generated list of sports engaged learners. Likewise, another list of sports non-engaged learners was generated from learners who answered “No” to the question: Do you play sports in the school? which was posed by the researcher to every learner in grade 11 and 12. However, learners who responded that they play sports organised outside the school in the community were taken as sports engaged and they were accordingly included in the list of sports engaged learners.

From the two lists of learners marked either as sport engaged or non-engaged probability sampling methods were used to select learners from each category to participate in the study. Probability sampling methods ensure that all elements in the sampling frame have an equal chance of being selected (McNeill and Chapman, 2005). The method also ensures that in each sampling frame, each learner has a non-zero chance of being selected into the study sample. The study used stratified and systematic random sampling. The sampling frames in the study conform to stratified random
sampling techniques, as in each group of learners (stratum), 50 learners were systematically selected. The sample comprises 100 systematically selected grade 11 and 12 learners. Within the sample of 100 learners, 50 comprise a group of learners who participate in school sports and a further 50 a group of learners who do not participate at all in sporting activities within the school or outside it. Steps were taken to further stratify the sample by gender, comprising 25 males, and 25 females for the two groups. With an equal distribution of 50 males and 50 females in the study sample the study lends itself to further analysis based on gender diversity. Systematic sampling consisted of selecting every Nth learner from each stratum. The first learner was selected at random and thereafter the interval \( N \) used to select subsequent learners was calculated by dividing the population size by the sample size (Grimm and Wozniak, 1990: 207). Hence the formula is:

\[
\text{Interval (N)} = \frac{\text{Population Size (i.e., the number of students in each stratum)}}{\text{Sample Size (i.e., the number of students needed from each stratum)}}
\]

\[
= \frac{120}{50} = 2 \text{ for sports engaged learners}
\]

\[
= \frac{160}{50} = 3 \text{ for sports non-engaged learners}
\]

Taking the above interval calculations into cognisance, in the list of sports engaged learners in the study, the random start is 3 and keeping the interval 2, the 50 selected numbers are 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, 19, 21, 23, 25, 27, 29, 31, 33, 35, 37, 39, 41, 43, 45, 47, 49, 51, 53, 55, 57, 59, 61, 63, 65, 67, 69, 71, 73, 75, 77, 79, 81, 83, 85, 87, 89, 91, 93, 95, 97, 99 and the final number is 101.

In the list of sport non-engaged learners in the study the random start is 4 and keeping the interval 3, the 50 selected numbers are 4, 7, 10, 13, 16, 19, 22, 25, 28, 31, 34, 37, 40, 43, 46, 49, 52, 55, 58, 61, 64, 67, 70, 73, 76, 79, 82, 85, 88, 91, 94, 97, 100, 103, 106, 109, 112, 115, 118, 121, 124, 127, 130, 133, 136, 139, 142, 145, 148 and the final number is 151.

The objective behind these calculations was to select sample learners at equidistant points on each stratum. In order to achieve a representative sample in terms of gender, some corrective measures were taken: once 25 males had been reached from each stratum the researcher stopped selecting
males and when the N was male in subsequent selections, that selection was rejected in order to achieve gender balance in the study.

With regard to in-depth interviews, interviewees were selected using the purposive sampling technique. As noted above this type of sample is based entirely on the judgement of the researcher with regard to the characteristics and attributes of the population. In this study interviewees were selected based on several factors relating to the topic under investigation. The interviewees are teachers in the school. The interviewees needed to be involved in school sports either as coaches, Physical Education facilitators or members of the school’s sports committee responsible for the organisation of particular sport codes in the school. The researcher met grade 11 and 12 teachers for the first time during a survey of Class Averages in different school subjects and when a teacher was asked to record the class average in his/her specific subject he/she was also asked if he/she would be interested in being interviewed later. Those who indicated interest were then contacted to arrange dates and times for interviews.

A total of seven interviews were undertaken. A higher number was desired, but was unfortunately not achieved due to some teachers initially agreeing to participate in the study, but not being available on the date and time of the interview because of teaching responsibilities and personal commitments. However, the achieved sample of interviewees is considered by the researcher to be capable of providing views and opinions that are representative of CSS teachers and parents of sports engaged school-going youth in the study.

4.7 Methods of Data Collection

Field observations, questionnaires and interviews are used as methods of data collection for the purposes of the study.

4.7.1 Direct Observations

Although questionnaires and interviews are the main methods of data collection in the study, repeated observation visits to the school were made when preparing for the actual data collection phases. Direct observation involves examining the environment and people very carefully in order to discover particular information about the context and its people (Bryman, 2001). Observations relating to the characteristics of the school, the kinds of sport facilities available to learners, the state and quality of these facilities and many other details helped the researcher to obtain a clearer
and fuller picture of the school's sporting culture and needs associated with the development of learners sporting skills. Photographs and field notes relating to the school environment, physical infrastructure and the general conditions were documented and these helped in aiding the construction of the contextual setting in which the study is based. Field observations were used to formulate some of the questions in the survey questionnaire as well as in the interview schedule.

4.7.2 Self-administered Questionnaires

The study used self-administered survey questionnaires, formulated from an in-depth review of selected literature on youth sports engagement and various desired PYD outcomes, as the primary data collection tool with learners in the sample. Questionnaires were self-administered in order to allow learners to engage with the questions without the researcher influencing responses (McNabb, 2004: 150). Learners were encouraged to write their own responses to avoid undue influence and misinterpretation. Although the presence of the researcher while respondents engaged with the questionnaire may have potentially influenced responses, it was essential that the researcher be present so that he could clarify any questions learners did not understand.

The questionnaire contained different sections. The generic section was designed to generate essential background information about the learners themselves and the socio-economic status of their respective families. The objective was to isolate the impact of sporting activities on school performance, hence eliminating the impact of other mediating variables outside of the school setting. The remaining sections contained both closed- and open-ended questions relevant to the respondents' social worlds as they see them, their involvement in sports (or opportunities for involvement in sports) and the potentially positive contribution of sporting activities in empowering their lives in different respects. These questions were largely adapted from the PYD model as discussed in the literature review. As stated earlier the applicability of the PYD theory was tested among learners; different questions are designed to test the applicability of certain PYD elements. Since the theory of PYD is generally broad and still emerging in the developing world only two components of the theory are tested in the study: Competence in academia and Contribution to family, school and community as desired PYD outcomes through youth sports engagement (Damon, 2004). In addition, the researcher explored perceptions on youth sports engagement and associated psychological/emotional development as organised youth sports programmes are linked not only to physical health but also psychological and emotional health among sports engaged youth (Fraser-Thomas et al, 2005). Questions designed to test the extent of the applicability of some PYD elements are asked in a Likert-type scale whereby learners read a statement and then rate their
response on a scale of agreement. The scales have five points starting from strongly disagree at 1 up to strongly agree at 5. Responses are weighted and compared between sports engaged and non-engaged respondents to explore the extent to which responses vary between the different categories of learners in the sample.

Closed-ended questions involved structured questions with responses pre-determined and standardised. This means that the same questions were asked in the same order for all the learners in the survey phase of the study, which according to Grimm and Wozniak, (1990: 236) helps to standardise responses for ease of data analysis and interpretation. For example, one of the questions in the survey questionnaire was:

Young people need to work hard so that they become successful in life so that they may become meaningful members of their community?

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Neutral response
4. Agree
5. Strongly agree

Closed-ended questions are pre-coded, meaning that the answers are numbered so that the number of the answer chosen by the respondent is circled for ease of recording data on the statistical software package for analysis.

However, a pre-fixed list of responses is known to have the potential to suggest answers to respondents, thus limiting them in terms of what they feel is an important response to a particular question. In the study, part of this limitation was overcome through the balance of open-ended questions, which helped to give greater weight to the analysis and interpretation of data (McNabb, 2004: 159). Gorard (2003) and McNabb (2004) confirm the importance of open-ended questions in a survey questionnaire. They argue that a fixed list as provided in closed-ended questions has the potential to limit variety in responses. Responses from open-ended questions thus helped to further explain the responses provided in the closed-ended questions. Combining both closed- and open-ended questions in the questionnaire helped the researcher focus on the strengths of each questioning technique in generating different kinds of responses.

Open-ended questions helped in validating the accuracy of closed-ended question responses in the questionnaire. Open-ended questions allowed respondents an opportunity to elaborate further on the responses they gave in closed-ended questions and to add any other information they regard as
important in relation to the topic under investigation. They helped the researcher gain an in-depth understanding of the issues raised by different categories of learners in the study (Delport, 2002).

Quantitative data is presented in the form of numbers in rated scales. This enabled the researcher to aggregate the responses and triangulate the findings in the analysis and interpretation phase of the study. Qualitative data, on the other hand, represents the views, opinions and meanings learners themselves attribute to their sense of their school and community in relation to opportunities for sporting activities and personal growth in different respects.

4.7.3 In-depth One-on-One Interviews

Following the administration of the questionnaires, in-depth interviews were conducted with some members of the School Management Team (SMT) and teachers involved in school sports in order to develop a fuller picture of the school, school sports, school performance and other information relevant to the study. In order to respect the time constraints experienced by interviewees, many interview questions were given to interviewees two days prior to the actual interview. The objective was for them to prepare for the kinds of questions to expect in the interview and also for them to think about and thoroughly prepare responses during their own time. Some interviewees prepared their responses in writing, which not only helped overcome time limitations, but also assisted in reducing transcription errors (Baker, 2008). The interviews with those who prepared written responses essentially became a review of the responses and follow-up questions asked by the researcher who sought clarity where it was needed. This allowed the researcher to gain a deeper understanding of the answers. Interviewees were also asked to add any other information not covered in the interview that they consider important for discussion.

As noted earlier, a tape-recorder was used to record the interviews providing the researcher with a much fuller record of the interviews. Using a tape recorder during interviews also meant that the researcher was able to concentrate on how the interview discussions proceeded without disturbing the flow through note taking (Greeff, 2002: 304). However, in cases where interviewees felt uncomfortable being recorded the tape-recorder was switched off and the interview continued with the researcher relying on note taking, memory, and interviewees’ prepared written responses, if they were available, in the data analysis phase of the study.

These interviews provided the researcher with rich detail on the potential roles for sporting activities in advancing school performance and promoting PYD among youth in a socially
disadvantaged community. Issues relating to the development of increased sporting activities, sporting skills, resources and prospects for infrastructure development within the research locality were also explored in greater detail during the interviews. Such rich qualitative data could not have been obtained through the student survey questionnaires alone.

4.8 Analysis and Interpretation of Data

Researchers need to systematically examine data in order to discover patterns and possible relationships between variables (Baker, 2008). Both quantitative and qualitative analyses aim to achieve this goal; however, specific methods of analysis may differ to some degree. Quantitative analysis places emphasis on prediction and testing of relationships between variables by using various statistical measures. Qualitative analysis, on the other hand, combines context and meaning, concentrating on fitting data together as a whole.

In this study, quantitative primary data is analysed statistically using SPSS, version 18. SPSS is a computer application that provides statistical analysis of quantitative data (Grimm and Wozniak, 1990). It allows for ease of access to data, analytical reporting, graphics and modelling. In 2009 SPSS Inc changed their product name from SPSS to Predictive Analytic SoftWare (PASW). However, since many social science researchers still use the old name, the study refers to SPSS, rather than PASW.

SPSS allows the researcher to correlate the statistics relevant to the study and the interpretation of data using one or multiple variables. The analysed data is presented by means of tables and graphs for ease of interpretation.

An effort is made to isolate sports activities' contribution to school performance from that of other anticipated intervening variables such as SES, commitment to school work, availability of educational resources at home and the educational achievement of parents, which may also contribute to better school performance. Important intervening variables are controlled in the questionnaire design whereby sports engaged and non-engaged learners were asked to rate the significance of the influence of some intervening variables on school performance. Hence the researcher is able to assess the impact of sports engagement on school performance while controlling for mediating variables that the researcher is aware of (Wimmer and Dominick, 2003).
Pearson’s R correlation coefficient is computed to assess the relationship between the amount of time (hours per week) learners normally spend on sporting activities and their school performance in IsiZulu a randomly selected common school subject during the first term examinations of 2011. The value of R gives an indication of the nature and strength of the relationship (Gorard, 2003: 202-210). R has value between -1 and +1. A value of 0 shows no relationship at all. A value of +1 shows perfect positive correlation between the two variables, meaning that they both increase or decrease in relation to each other. A value of -1 shows a perfect negative correlation between the two variables, meaning that as one increases the other decreases in relation to it. The correlations are also presented and analysed using tables showing respondents' school performance within their specific categories as either sports engaged or non-engaged, and male or female in order to summarize the survey results in the study and the conclusions drawn.

Certain factors were considered in the choice of IsiZulu as a learning area to assess performance in the study. Language proficiency is necessary both for the overall successful educational development of learners and meaningful functioning in everyday life. In a multilingual society like South Africa, learners need to achieve high levels of proficiency in at least two languages and be able to communicate in other languages (South African National Department of Education, 2002: 20). In the community of Chesterville IsiZulu is the home language to the majority of residents, therefore at CSS IsiZulu is a first language and as such it is compulsory to all learners.

Research shows that parents' educational statuses influence and shape learners' literacy development (Gratz, 2006). If, for example, parents are not educated or have only very basic education it is likely that their English proficiency is lower compared to that of more educated parents who are in possession of diplomas or degrees. Parents' higher English proficiency could help children perform better at school especially in exams and tests assessing knowledge of the English subject content or other English medium learning areas in the school. Well educated parents usually assist their children in overcoming their reading, writing and counting difficulties in the foundational phases of education influencing and shaping success at school in senior school grades (Gratz, 2006). This in itself results in major disadvantages experienced by learners whose parents are not well educated negatively affecting such learners' overall educational success given the English medium of the school. The South African report on the Annual National Assessments (2011) aimed at strengthening foundational skills of literacy and numeracy in order to improve quality of educational outcomes among South African learners suggests there exists a relationship between poverty and poor school performance.
Using IsiZulu exam results to assess school performance for purposes of the study counters the potential bias that could arise due to parents' unequal educational levels. Although IsiZulu is chosen at random (among other common learning areas such as English and Life Orientation) to assess performance, its qualities such being a mother tongue to the majority of learners qualifies it as a fair learning area to measure performance compared to the other variety of learning areas in the school in which the medium is English. As school performance is assessed using one and the same common learning area to all respondents, performance is assessed as independent of individual family educational profiles, ensuring a certain level of standardisation in the measure of performance.

Sports engaged and non-engaged learners' responses to questions designed to test the applicability of PYD elements in the study are compared to assess variability, so that the assumptions of the theory can be compared or rejected in the study context. Further tests on gender difference are undertaken using bivariate analysis to ascertain whether any significant differences exist in the role of youth sports engagement in advancing school performance.

Qualitative data originating from in-depth interviews with teachers at the school is arranged thematically for a deeper analysis of issues emerging from the interviews. In-depth interviews are designed to explore perceptions, views and opinions regarding the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance amongst learners and other topics of interest relating to the role of sports in contributing to other aspects of PYD. These interviews provide insights on the value attached to sports in enhancing school performance and positive development amongst learners at CSS. The interviews also helped to identify some of the challenges and constraints experienced by these stakeholder groups in promoting sports engagement and recreational activities and some of the future plans to do so.

4.9 Ethical Considerations

According to Williams et al (cited in Strydom, 2002: 63) data should never be obtained at the expense of respondents. The word ‘ethics’ is variously defined; however in this study it is used to refer to a set of accepted moral principles that offer rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards respondents in research (Creswell, 2007). Since human beings are the object of study in many social science research projects, researchers must respect ethical principles and allow them to guide research decisions throughout the research process. To promote adherence to ethical requirements relating to the study, certain steps and procedures were followed in order to
obtain autonomous respondents, and ensure the protection of information they provided as well as their identities.

Considering that this study deals with young people who may be considered ‘vulnerable’ ethically, certain ethical considerations had to be factored into the pre-research phase. Ethical protocols as prescribed within the institutional research policy were conformed with, followed by further clearance from the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education (KZNDoE). In the process of obtaining approval and permission to conduct the study in the school, adequate information on the goal of the investigation, the procedures that would be followed during the investigation, the possible advantages, disadvantages and dangers to which respondents might be exposed, as well as the credibility of the researcher were presented (Williams et al, cited in Strydom, 2002: 65). All learners were required to sign an informed consent form before they were allowed to participate in the study, with the stipulation that participation was purely voluntary and that respondents were free to withdraw from the study at any time without any negative consequences to themselves (Babbie, 2001). In cases where learners reported that they were younger than 18, their parents or legal guardians were required to sign informed consent forms giving their children permission to participate in the study. The objective of informed consent is to provide participants with all necessary information so that they fully comprehend the investigation and are consequently able to make a voluntary, thoroughly reasoned decision about their possible participation (Strydom, 2002:65).

To protect confidentiality, a system of coding is used. Each survey questionnaire is identified with a unique code and that code is used to identify respondents rather than referring to them by name. Where necessary, pseudonyms instead of participants' real names are used, especially for those interviewed.

4.10 Limitations

One of the strengths of the study is that it is able to isolate the effects and significance of certain socio-economic variables, which may affect learners’ sports engagement as well as school performance. The study allowed for the effective assessment of the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance as independent and dependant variables, which is the central theme. However, the study is not without its weaknesses and limitations.
Firstly, the case study design adopted means that the empirical data and conclusions drawn from the study cannot be generalised beyond the study sampling frame, because the student sample in the study is limited to 11th and 12th graders and is not representative of the entire population of CSS. However, the findings of this study can be tested against the theoretical and conceptual literature, hence contributing new knowledge to existing research studies. De Vause (2001: 247) argues that case studies are primarily used to generalise to existing theories rather than to other population groups.

Secondly, the study relied heavily on teachers' subjective marking of learners' term examinations in a selected common school subject, IsiZulu, in order to assess the school performance of sports engaged and non-engaged learners in the study. The study did not use any specific, standardised, comparable, norm-referenced measure of learner academic achievement such as the Stanford Achievement Test (SAT 10) in order to measure learners' knowledge of the subject in question. SAT results could have provided a more objective basis to evaluate learners' school performance. Further research will need to incorporate such rigorous academic tests in order to achieve more reliable learner achievement data beyond term examination results. Some of the main reasons why standardised learner achievement tests were not used is the costs attached to administering these, as they may require personnel with extensive expertise and knowledge about how these tests work. In addition, these tests take a considerable amount of time, as they sometimes need to be repeated several times until investigators are confident of the outcomes (Hoxby, 2002).

Limited finance resources and time constraints also meant that the study was unable to include multiple cases for comparative purposes. The sample was selected from one high school rather than different schools in and around the Durban Metropolitan Area. Multiple case studies would have increased the sample population size, leading to statistical generalisation to other populations with a greater level of confidence.

Thirdly, the study's adoption of case study design, as opposed to experimental design, means that the study is unable to control for pre-existing student academic achievements, with the result that it is not known for sure how well the sports engaged group of learners' performed prior to sports engagement. Future studies of this nature need to examine sports engaged learners' school performance pre- and post-sports engagement and compare this with that of the general sports non-engaged group of learners. Such studies would need to be experimental in design as opposed to the case study design used in this study.
The weaknesses and limitations mentioned above relate to the case study design adopted in the study. Beyond these there are other limitations associated more specifically with the methods of data collection with learners in the study. As already noted, the study used self-administered survey questionnaires because they are effective in studies exploring youth sports engagement trends and associated learner outcomes including school performance. However, the weakness of these questionnaires is that they generated self-reported term examination results in the selected school subject. The study relied heavily on these results since learner’s report cards are confidential and the school cannot release a learner’s results to a third party without the consent of learners themselves. In an effort to counter this limitation and obtain a general picture of learners' school performance in the study, class averages were obtained from subject teachers in order to compare how different categories of learners in the study performed against the averages in the subject.

4.11 Summary

The objective of this chapter was to describe the research processes and procedures followed in undertaking the study. The chapter began by describing the case study design in the form adopted in the study, addressed the question of what is a case study and why a case study was deemed appropriate for the topic under investigation. A brief literature review on the elements of the PYD theory being tested in the study was conducted in order to highlight the specific elements of the theory the study focuses on as well as to describe how the applicability of such elements is tested and evaluated.

The chapter then described the sampling design and techniques used in the study, highlighting the way in which the different categories of participants were selected for primary data collection purposes. Self-administered survey questionnaires to collect data from selected learners and interviews with key stakeholders in the school were key instruments for data collection. Practical steps and the rationale contained in their construction were outlined.

The quantitative and qualitative methods used for analysing research data, which is presented and discussed in the next chapter, were also described in this chapter. The chapter also outlined specific steps and measures undertaken to comply with ethical requirements and adherence to relevant research protocols within the research site.
Finally, the limitations and weaknesses of the study design itself and related specific research methods adopted in the study were highlighted. It is believed that raising these would enhance the prospects for the future replication of the study.
Chapter Five

“The purpose of analysis is to reduce data to an intelligible and interpretable form so that the relations of research problems can be studied, tested and conclusions drawn” (De Vos et al., 2002: 223).

Analysis and Interpretation of Data

5.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to analyse the data generated through the self-administered survey questionnaires with learners and the interviews conducted with teachers. The chapter begins by analysing the profile of the research locality in order to provide the context in which the study is based. This is followed by the bivariate analyses of the survey questionnaire in order to describe the demographics of both sports engaged and non-engaged learners in the sample. Other social class related variables that provide greater insight into the socio-economic backgrounds of respondents are also analysed.

In keeping with the main objective of the study, the chapter analyses the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance. This relationship is assessed at two levels. Firstly, the relationship is tested using Pearson's R correlation coefficient statistic, where the number of hours respondents spend in sporting activities (per week) is compared with their level of performance in the IsiZulu examination in the first term of 2011. IsiZulu is a randomly selected learning area used to assess school performance in the study. The objective is to assess whether the two variables: sports engagement and school performance are correlated, and if they are, what the direction and strength of this relationship is. Secondly, the relationship involving both sports engaged and non-engaged respondents is assessed with a view to examining the impact of youth sports engagement on school performance in the same learning area and term. For this purpose grade 11 and 12 class averages were obtained from teachers and are used as a benchmark against which sports engaged and non-engaged respondents' school performance are measured in order to explore whether any variations in school performance exists on a randomly selected subject. Since sports engagement may have a different impact on males and females, gender variations in the study are also analysed.
The relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance is not only analysed in terms of existing literature but also against the elements of the PYD theory being tested in the study. The analysis includes a discussion on the extent of applicability of the 2Cs of PYD: school Competence and Contribution to community as desired positive outcomes of youth engagement in organised sporting activities. The purpose of this analysis is to assess the extent to which these PYD elements are applicable, considering that it is conducted outside the major countries in Europe and North America, where much PYD research has been undertaken.

5.2 Profile of the Research Locality

Chesterville is one of the oldest Black townships in the Metropolitan Area of Durban and the Province of KwaZulu-Natal. The township was officially recognised after the forced removals from the neighbouring area of Cato Manor in the 1930s. However, in 1959 parts of the Cato Manor informal shack settlements and Chesterville community were moved to KwaMashu Township, a residential area established to accommodate urban working Blacks under the apartheid government's policy of urban relocation to keep the city exclusively for White self preservation (Maylam, 1983). The population of Chesterville increased in line with the demand for skilled labour in the Durban inner city, which saw increased migration of rural, Zulu-speaking people to seek employment opportunities. Today, the Chesterville township has three additional 'extensions', commonly known as Chesterville Extension 1, 2 and 3 with an estimated population of 30 000 in each extension, and about 42 000 people live in the old Chesterville township.

The study locality is the main Chesterville Township where CSS is located. Due to segregationist laws such as the Group Areas Act (1950), Separate Amenities Act (1955) and other racist policies of the apartheid government, Chesterville, along with other Black townships in apartheid South Africa suffered from underdevelopment during the apartheid years (Maylam, 1983). In the post-apartheid era the new democratic government sought to address the imbalances of the past through various interventions, including the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and other urban renewal projects aimed at improving the social infrastructure of urban Black areas. However, many social issues persist. These include high levels of poverty, crime, inadequate housing, unplanned teenage pregnancies, drug and alcohol abuse, a high prevalence of HIV/AIDS, especially amongst youth, youth unemployment, low educational achievements and reduced opportunities for youth engagement in organised sporting activities. These and many other challenges hamper the democratic government's efforts to address social inequalities in the country.
In order to understand the nature of the schooling environment in which the study is based, a sample of teachers at the school were asked an open-ended question, which asked them to describe in detail the school in which they work. The responses below summarise teachers' descriptions of the school, as they know it:

The school has a large student body from grade 8 to 12. Children in this school are from different backgrounds and situations in the Chesterville area. Most children stay with their grandparents who live on pension funds, some come from two-room houses others come from four-room houses, and there is crime in this area. If the household is not stable it is more likely that they (learners) will perform poor at school (Interview number two, 20/07/2011).

It is a school with it share of challenges, packed with deep historical events. In the past, prior 1994 political struggle meetings were held in the school. The school is also proud of the contribution it has made in the struggle to promote freedom for all. Lot of people died here fighting for freedom. Academically things (school performance) are improving. I can say that to a certain extent we are resourceful compared to other schools in Black townships and rural areas. Learners should be motivated to excel academically; their motivational levels to achieve more academically are very low... (Interview number four, 20/07/2011).

It is partially conducive to learning in terms of basic educational resources such as desks, chairs, computers, textbooks, chalks and chalkboards. Learners are respectful to their teachers. As it is a school in a Black township so we do not have many school resources compared to other schools in former White areas. With regard to sport, teachers have to come up with money from their own pockets to support school sports... (Interview number five, 20/07/2011).

These responses suggest that the school is not well equipped in terms of both the material and professional resources necessary for achieving improved school performance. Learners are described as lacking motivation to achieve more educationally. Perhaps this is due to the teachers’ observations that the youth in the community complete high school education and then stay at home due to lack of finances to further their education. There are also few decent employment opportunities. If there is nothing to look forward to after matriculation, learners will not be motivated to excel at school.

CSS is the main high school, providing secondary education to the youth of Chesterville for more than 40 years until recently, when newly-built secondary schools such as Chesterville Extension Secondary School in Chesterville Extension 1 began to admit youth from Chesterville and the surrounding communities. The building of these new schools helped to reduce overcrowding at CSS.
Clearly CSS is very old; it is old as the Chesterville Township itself. Located at number 3 Ngwenya Road, off Mahlathi Road, central Chesterville, the school was established in the early 1940s as a Black co-education public primary school which later, due to an increase in the number of people in the area and the demand for secondary education, developed into a high school to provide education for many of the youth of Chesterville. The school operated in the context of both apartheid’s Group Areas Act (1950) and the Bantu Education Act (1950). Under apartheid, racially mixed residential areas and schools were not allowed and there were major inequalities in terms of educational as well as recreational opportunities for youth. Black schools received very little support from the apartheid government for educational development compared to White and some Indian and Coloured communities (Booth, 1998). If support for education was meagre, then it follows that there was even less or no support for sports developments at Black schools.

Despite the hardships and disadvantages experienced by many Black youth during the apartheid years, the youth of that time was more committed and attached greater value to education than the youth of today, who are sometimes described as the ‘lost generation’. Qualities like respect for teachers, and commitment and focus to achieve goals enabled the youth of the previous generation to succeed against adversity. CSS, like any other old Black township school, has produced leaders in different sectors of the South African society. Among the leaders schooled at CSS, are Willis Mchunu, the member of the provincial executive committee (MEC) responsible for Transport, Safety and Security in KwaZulu-Natal, well-known artist Paul Sibisi, who matriculated from CSS in 1965, as well as both former Councillor for Chesterville, Nigel Gumede, and current Councillor Bajabulisile Mbongwa.

At the beginning of the 2011 academic year there were more than 30 teachers, including the school principal assisted by a deputy principal. Various Heads of Departments (HODs) are responsible for a variety of subjects. Teachers and parents interact through occasional meetings organised by the School Governing Body (SGB): a body established to foster relationships between parents of learners in the school and teachers. The SGB provides a platform where issues concerning overall learner development within the school are discussed and addressed.

The school caters for Grades 8 to 12, and at the beginning of the academic year the learner population size was estimated to be 884. In keeping with the recently introduced Outcomes Based Education (OBE) system all learners in the school are required to take a subject load of at least eight learning areas. One of the ultimate objectives of the new OBE system is to develop learners’ problem solving skills, provide them with market related subjects and skills that would increase
their employability, and also help them identify and utilise opportunities for self employment at the end of their educational experience (Spady, 1994). In this regard, the school has introduced different trade subjects to provide learners with important social and economic skills that the different sectors of South Africa’s developing economy needs. The aim is to produce future citizens who not only want to seek employment but who can also take advantage of the many entrepreneurial opportunities which become available as the economy of the country develops.

5.3 Demographic Profile of Respondents

The survey questionnaire was designed to explore how sporting activities influence school performance amongst learners in the sample. Both sports engaged and non-engaged learners were surveyed in order to measure school performance trends between the two groups. The sample comprised 100 respondents in grades 11 and 12. Of those surveyed, 50% were sports engaged and another group of 50% respondents was not engaged in sports. Within each category there was an equal distribution of 50% males and 50% females, ensuring the equal representation of both genders for analytical purposes. The respondents’ socio-economic backgrounds are presented in Table 1 below.

Sports engaged and non-engaged respondents in the study share relatively similar socio-economic backgrounds. This allows the study to effectively assess the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance, while the possible impact of such social class related variables is eliminated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1 Demographic Profile of Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Respondents Demographic Profile</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grade</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Racial Category</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 indicates the distribution of both sports engaged and non-engaged respondents in the sample. There is an equal gender distribution, with 50% males and females in each group. In terms of age distribution, all the sports engaged respondents are 18 years of age and above. In the sports non-engaged sample, all the respondents are 16 years old and above, with the exception of a few learners (2%) who are 15 years old. However, the majority of respondents in the sports engaged sample are 19 years old. It is worrying that there are a significant number of respondents who are 20 years old and above in the sports engaged sample. There could be a number of reasons for respondents in their 20s still being at high school. Some respondents may have started school late. Some might have had to repeat some grades due to failing. Others may have dropped out of school for periods of time due to illness, unplanned pregnancies, family migration or the death of their parents. There is a high prevalence of HIV/AIDS in the Chesterville community. When parents die they leave behind their children. Some learners are obliged to take on the role of head of the household. The number of child-headed households continues to increase in many parts of South Africa. Affected youth often interrupt their schooling to seek employment to support both themselves as well as their younger siblings. This negatively affects the child's educational process, resulting in an increased number of older learners at high schools.

Although the sample is equally representative of both genders, the same cannot be said about the grades in which the respondents are located. Within the sports engaged sample, only 4% of respondents are doing grade 11 with the overwhelming majority in grade 12. This bias within this sample may be due to the fact that data collection with the sports engaged respondents was completed during winter classes in June 2011. Grade 12 learners are at the exit level of their high school career and they take education more seriously, as they want to achieve better marks to enable them to compete in the job market as well as meet tertiary education entry requirements. For these reasons, many grade 12 learners attended compulsory extra tuition during the school holidays and
were therefore available in greater numbers during the times of data collection than grade 11s. It was unforeseen that the number of grade 11s present at school during June holidays will be low due to the fact that for them extra tuition is voluntary and largely depends on availability of teaching staff and workload in each subject. Since a primary objective of the study was to ensure a sample of learners who play sports at the school, the grade that the learner is doing becomes secondary. It is also advantageous that more grade 12 learners are involved in the study because they have most likely been at the school longer and, if playing sports, have played school sports longer than learners from other grades.

Overall more respondents are in grade 12, but in the sports non-engaged sample there is a slight difference. While 4% of respondents in the sport engaged sample are in grade 11, 20% of the sports non-engaged sample is in this grade. The randomised sampling techniques could have created this bias in the grade distribution of respondents. However, the fact that data collection with the sport engaged sample was completed during winter classes, with fewer grade 11 learners present at the school could be another explanation. The researcher met sport non-engaged learners during the first week of the second term. At this time, there were more grade 11 learners present.

In terms of racial classification, more respondents in the sports engaged sample (58%) classified themselves as 'South African', rather than 'Black/African'. This latter category is a construction created by apartheid's Population Registration Act (1949). For the researcher, the term ‘South African’ signifies a move towards a non-racial society as laid out in the country’s new Constitution (1996). However, learners may also prefer to identify themselves in this way because of lack of pride in being Black, as this is sometimes associated with negative connotations and as inferior compared with other race groups. It might be worthwhile to research how the offspring of people previously classified as White or Indian would identify themselves if given a similar list of options to choose from. If more identify themselves as 'South African' as opposed to their racially given classifications, one could assert with greater level of confidence that South Africa is moving toward a non-racial state, where race no longer exists in terms of peoples' sense of identity beyond racial colour codes. This is an ideal South African society that the new democracy continuously works to achieve. In a similar vein, more respondents (66%) in the sports non-engaged sample identified themselves as 'South African' avoiding the racial category of 'Black'.

In order to understand the kinds of socio-economic backgrounds sample respondents come from, respondents were asked to choose one of three pre-determined responses to describe their family's economic background. Most learners (74%) in the sports engaged sample described their family
Similarly, in the sports non-engaged sample the majority of respondents (66%) responded that they come from poor economic backgrounds, where money is an issue. In families where parents are low-income earners, the little money available is spent on basic necessities such as food, clothing, lighting and water. Such families find it very difficult to pay school fees, buy textbooks and provide for educational resources for their children. Money for sports may not be available. This discourages learners' enthusiasm for and interest in sporting activities. Given that they almost all come from relatively similar economic backgrounds it becomes possible to effectively assess whether playing sports has a negative or positive impact on the respondents' scholarly performance without considering the effects of differences in socio-economic status.

Research suggests that parents' level of educational achievement may positively influence learner's school performance (Gratz, 2006). If parents have a high level of academic achievement, their children may be inspired to also achieve high academic qualifications. However, many respondents (44%) in the sports engaged sample reported that their parents do not even have a matric certificate and only 8% of respondents reported that their parents have a tertiary qualification. Similarly, a large percentage (48%) in the sports non-engaged sample reported that their parent(s) do not have a matric certificate and only 8% of respondents' parents in this sample have a tertiary qualification. Therefore respondents' school performance levels in the study are based largely on individual learners' commitment to school work and to achieving their goals in life. Again, these relatively common (in Black South African society) levels of education among parents enable this study to effectively assess sport engagement as an independent variable and school performance as an outcome of learner commitment to academic achievement, while discounting the possible effects of parental educational achievement mediating between youth sports engagement and school performance.

The relatively homogeneous characteristics of socio-economic backgrounds between the two groups of respondents mean that the influence of such socio-economic variables on respondents' school performance is addressed. In the study it is assumed that the way that the individual respondent performs at school is solely the result of the respondent him or herself taking school work seriously and being committed and determined to achieve his or her academic goals. The effects of social class related variables on school performance are eliminated. However, the weakness of the study is that it is unable to 'prove' causation, as the researcher is unable to 'observe' sporting activities causing a change in learners' school performance. Studies in physical science and biology may be of help in this regard.
5.4 Sports Profile of Respondents

There are seven different types of sport codes that respondents could choose to participate in at the school. Out of the seven, soccer and netball appear to be the most popular among respondents in the sample. It is misleading to suggest that the other sports are actually available to respondents at the school. It would seem that male learners have the option of soccer and females are limited to netball. Pelak’s (2002) research suggests a strong correlation between one’s gender and the kinds of sporting opportunities available to many young South Africans. She finds that young Black males’ sporting opportunities are largely limited to soccer while females are limited to netball. The sports profile of respondents is summarised in Table 2 below.

Table 2 Sports Profile of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sports Preference</th>
<th>% Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netball</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rugby</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cricket</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athletics</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Sport Played by Gender</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netball</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rugby</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cricket</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When did you start to play organised sports?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When (per week) spent on Sports by Gender</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than an hour</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 hour</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 hours</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 hours</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 3 hours</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Financial constraints prevent the building of more sporting facilities and the provision of professional training in the form of coaches in historically disadvantaged communities like Chesterville. An interview with the school teacher who is also a sports coach highlighted that the respondents have very limited sports options and that the sporting activities available in the school are also segregated according to gender:

Like in any other Black township school, the (sport) code that is most fundamental in the school is soccer... Soccer is popular amongst boys and netball is most popular amongst girls (Interview number four, 20/07/2011).

The basketball and netball facility available within the school grounds needs some maintenance work in order to reach the desired standards and attract more learners in the school to play basketball and netball. The soccer field used by boys for soccer training and competitions is found outside of the school premises in the Chesterville community sports fields, but sometimes learners use the soccer field available in the nearby Chesterville Extension Secondary School. Also the school does not have its own swimming pool; the few respondents who indicated that they swim as a sport probably use the Chesterville community swimming pool, which is some 10 minutes walk...
from the school. Along with soccer and swimming, the few learners who play rugby, it is organised outside of the school in community clubs and facilities are arranged outside of the school premises. With regard to cricket and athletics, these sport codes were being planned for the future to compliment the existing categories. One of the main challenges facing the successful development of these sport codes is the lack of teachers who could coach these sports. The lack of sufficient financial resources to build more sports facilities and hire more coaches imposes a further constraint.

Table 2 indicates that 46% of the respondents began sporting activities more than three years ago. This is not surprising since the majority of the sports engaged sample is in grade 12; this means that the sample consists of youth who have greater experience in sports than young people who have just begun sports.

Table 2 also shows that the majority of respondents spend more than three hours per week on sporting activities. However, there are noted gender differences. While 30% of males report that they spend more than three hours per week engaged in sports, a low 22% of females spend the same amount of time engaged in sports. The increased opportunities for sports for males are also confirmed by the data. More females (10%) than males (4%) spend only two hours on sporting activities per week. Males appear to have increased opportunities for sporting activities compared to their female counterparts. Young females in Black townships and the rural areas of South Africa face many barriers to sports engagement. Common barriers include a shortage of human and material resources due to financial constraints. However, given that society tends to generalise sport as a male-dominated interest (Hargreaves, 1997), female learners at CSS may feel that participation in certain sports violates traditional expectations of what is ‘female’. Women’s sports engagement has been negatively influenced by the perception that they are ‘too weak for sport’ especially endurance sports like soccer or rugby. Not only are males construed as more sporty than females, but women are socialized into being less physical and into less aggressive forms of play from early childhood, which shapes and influence later life patterns.

5.5 Constraints to Sports Engagement amongst Respondents

An understanding of what keeps people away from sporting activities is essential for the identification of appropriate points of intervention and the development of a focused sports policy within CSS. Commonly cited reasons for sports non-engagement amongst respondents are summarised in Table 3 below.
Table 3 Constraints to Sports Engagement amongst Respondents in Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents' Sport Constraints</th>
<th>% Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The sport of my choice is not offered in my school</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is no facility for my favourite sport in the school</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not like sport</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not have time for sport</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing sports is costly</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not good at sport</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other reason(s)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leisure Time Activities</th>
<th>% Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I use my leisure time to complete my school work, do my readings, tutorials and so on.</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I go to the sports fields to give support to those who play</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I hang around with my friends and chat; this is my time to relax</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I leave school early and go home</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I participate in other extracurricular activities other than sports</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reasons cited for sports non-engagement are numerous and vary from one individual respondent to another. However, Table 3 suggests that 'time' is a major constraint, with a significant number of respondents (32%) citing this reason. The Grade 12 respondents are learners at the exit level of their high school career; they may be faced with more demanding work than learners in lower school grades. They tend to dedicate most of their time to their studies so that they achieve better marks and are able to meet university entry requirements should they wish to study further.
matric certificate with good marks places one at an advantage when applying for study loans, scholarships and bursaries. It also helps when applying for jobs if one is not keen or able to study further. Respondents in the sports non-engaged sample do not play sports because they feel their studies should take priority, especially at matric level.

However, a significant number (24%) of respondents said that the reason they do not play sports is that the sport they prefer is not offered at the school. This is due to a lack of financial and other resources. Even if sporting facilities and resources are available, they may not always be maintained according to the desired decent standard. The non-availability of trained sports coaches in different sports codes to help develop learners' skills limits the number of sporting options available to learners, decreases enthusiasm for sports and further hinders sports development initiatives at the school.

Many respondents (56%) who do not participate in sports report that they spend their leisure time completing school work. It could be anticipated that sports non-engaged learners would perform better at school than their sports engaged counterparts who spend their leisure time on sports-related activities. However, the study confirms that this is not always the case. The study reveals that sports engagement has no negative consequences on respondents’ school performance. In fact other studies have confirmed that sports engaged learners may outperform sports non-engaged learners at school (Grissom, 2005). This is despite the fact that those not involved in sports appear to spend more time on school work than those engaged in sporting activities. Sporting activities do no harm to learners' school performance; perhaps more importantly sporting activities contribute to keeping people physically healthy, with the potential to live longer, healthy lives. Sports engaged youth are further diverted from negative activities such as drug and alcohol abuse, and crime, which are leading causes of many different social problems in the socially disadvantaged Black townships in South Africa.

5.6 Access to Educational Resources amongst Respondents

This section provides a bivariate analysis of access to educational resources amongst sports engaged and non-engaged respondents in the study. Data in this regard is summarised in Table 4 below.
Another social class related variable in the study relates to the availability of family educational resources to the two groups of respondents. As indicated in Table 4 above, the responses do not differ to any significant extent. Most respondents (52%) in the sports engaged sample indicate that they have some educational resources but that these are not enough, while a significant number of respondents (40%) indicate that they have very few basic educational resources at home. Only 8% of learners in the sports engaged sample report having all the educational resources they need at home. Similar trends are noted in the responses of the sports non-engaged sample: the majority of respondents come from relatively similar economic backgrounds where the availability of educational resources at home is an issue. Only 10% of respondents in this sample report having sufficient educational resources at home. More than half (56%) of respondents report that they have very few basic educational resources at home. As noted earlier, many learners come from families where parents do not have enough money; therefore it is not surprising that most learners in the study report limited educational resources at home. The study deals with a group of learners living in quite a different context as compared to learners researched in previous studies of this nature in major European and North American countries and seek to answer the question as to whether the PYD theory is flexible enough to be applied in the South African context. The analysis that follow in the chapter will help answer this important question.
5.7 Learner and Teacher Perceptions on the Adequacy of Sports at CSS

Learner participation in different sporting activities forms an important part of the school culture. It is widely acknowledged that a healthy school environment does not only consist of academic teaching and learning; sporting activities are also an important component. As noted in the introductory chapter, sporting activities play an important role toward overall positive youth development.

However, when sports engaged respondents were asked to describe sporting activities in their school, it became evident that much more needs to be done in terms of increasing opportunities for learner engagement in sports. Only 26% of respondents in the sample rating sporting activities at the school as excellent; 24% described them as adequate; and half (50%) of the respondents felt that the sporting activities at the school were poor. This data suggests that there is a need to create more sporting opportunities at the school. This could be achieved by increasing the number of sporting activities currently available to learners, as well as improving the quality and organisation of the available activities. Limited financial resources hamper the development of school sporting opportunities, particularly where primary educational resources to ensure that day-to-day teaching and learning take place are a priority.

Similar trends were also noted in the responses of sports non-engaged respondents. Only 14% of learners in this sample found sporting activities at the school excellent; 28% felt that they were adequate and the majority, that is, 58% rated sporting activities at the school as poor. This helps one understand some of the factors that preclude learner engagement in school sports. These results are summarised in Table 5 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5 Respondents’ Perceptions of School Sporting Activities in Percentages</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perceptions of Respondents</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports Engaged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Engaged</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The perceptions of respondents summarised in Table 5 above are confirmed by the views of the teachers interviewed for the study on the reasons for poor sports development in the school.
Teachers attributed learner non-engagement in sporting activities to the minimal financial resources dedicated to sports development by the school administration. This was among many factors contributing to poor quality of sporting facilities. In response to the question How sports are funded in the school? the Sport Organiser at the school, a person leading the group of teachers responsible for developing, promoting and organising sporting activities commented as follows:

We do receive money from government but then sport is not much of a priority. If parents are told that a particular exam was not written because educational resources like paper, ink, chalk were not available and there was not enough money to buy these things because money was spent on sports, this will be a problem (Interview number three, 20/07/2011).

Asked about the most important thing that needs to be done in order to improve sporting activities at the school, the same respondent commented that the DoE in the province needed to allocate money specifically for sports development and monitor how this was spent. As a public high school, CSS receives annual budgets from the DoE. This budget, however, may not be specifically directed to the development of school sports. Rather, the school decides how the money is spent. In a context where the school fees are relatively low and where many parents/guardians fail to pay school fees in full and on time, it is not surprising that priority is given to budgeting for the achievement of academic goals. The school uses almost all the money received for primary educational resources. Sporting activities are secondary, as they are perceived to fall outside of academic objectives. The development of youth sporting skills, talents and interests suffers, and the true potential of youth engagement in sporting activities and the associated array of positive outcomes including school competence, resulting in better school performance, are lost.

Although the relationship between sports engagement and school performance is known to have a positive impact on learners, the level of significance of this relationship in this study is not very impressive.

5.8 Assessing the Relationships between Learner Engagement in Sports and School Performance

Pearson’s R correlation coefficient is computed in order to assess the relationship between the number of hours that sports engaged respondents spend on sporting activities per week and their first term examination performance in IsiZulu, a randomly chosen common learning area among grade 11 and 12 learners during 2011.
The results suggest a positive relationship between the two variables, \( R = 0.220 \), \( \text{Sig (2-Tailed)} = 0.125 \), \( N = 50 \). Although \( R \) is positive, the relationship between the hours (per week) respondents spend on sporting activities and school performance in the learning area is not statistically impressive. An increase in the number of hours (per week) learners spend on sporting activities is not strongly correlated with better performance in the IsiZulu examination amongst respondents in the study.

Although the level of significance is not very impressive, the positive relationship between sports engagement and school performance emphasizes the idea that youth engagement in organised sporting activities provides a fertile context for positive youth development (Larson, 2000; Taras, 2005; Grissom, 2005). Of particular importance to the objectives of the study is the potential role for youth sporting involvement in contributing to the development of school competence. Competence may be understood as a positive view of one’s self and actions in domain-specific areas including school. School competence, therefore, is represented by a general positive attitude toward school work, better school marks, better attendance at school and positive test and assignment results. Youth sports engagement facilitates school competence in learners because during sporting activities learners experience unique, intrinsic motivation to goal attainment and, after exercise, concentration may improve (Taras, 2005). These positive outcomes are rarely obtainable from other, less organised leisure time activities (Larson, 2000). It may be asserted that the conditions that make youth organised sporting activities a fertile ground for the development of school competence also make them a rich context for the development of an array of other positive qualities, such as hard work, improved self-discipline and the ability to work well with other people, and an increased sense of overall positive self-worth and self-efficacy.

This positive relationship between sports engagement and school performance may be attributed to pre-existing superior cognitive abilities among sports engaged respondents which would have provided them with the confidence to take part in sports in the first place. It is also possible to enhance such learners’ performance at school prior to participating in sporting activities. Hence, studying sports engaged respondents’ school performance is inadequate for understanding the real role of sporting activities in advancing school performance.

Tables 6 and 7 below provide a summary of sports engaged and non-engaged respondents’ examination performance in the same learning area and term. The mark achieved by individual respondents is measured against the class average in order to effectively assess variations in school
performance between sports engaged and non-engaged respondents. Emerging gender differences between the two samples in terms of school performance will also be analysed.

**Table 6 Comparison of Males’ IsiZulu Exam Performance to the Class Average for the First Term 2011**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sports Engaged Males</th>
<th>Non-Engaged Males</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents</td>
<td>Mark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>68</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>48</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>49</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
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<td>22</td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
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<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 indicate all the male respondents’ IsiZulu performance in the sample. It should be emphasized that this table, as well as Table 7 below, have very little to do with the Pearson’s R calculations dealt with earlier. Pearson’s R assessed the relationship between the hours respondents spend in sports and school performance. However, Tables 6 and 7 provide a comparison of school performance between sports engaged and non-engaged males and females respectively in order to assess whether school performance varies between the genders in the study.
In order to analyse Table 6, only the ‘Variance’ columns are considered, as they specifically provide insight into how individual respondents are performing at school against the class average. A positive number indicates a difference in school performance that is greater than the class average. On the other hand, a negative number indicates a difference that is below the class average. The ‘Variance’ provides insight into the size of the gap between the class average and the individual respondent’s mark. Where the number is close to the class average, this indicates a minimal difference between the respondent’s school performance and the class average. A bigger number indicates how much further away the respondent’s mark is from the class average. A difference equivalent to the class average indicates two situations: either the respondent did not write the IsiZulu examination due to reasons such as illness, or it could be that the respondent wrote the exam but felt that the school mark is confidential and could not disclose it. In keeping with research ethics, such decisions by research subjects had to be respected.

Table 6 shows that there are no major differences in school performance between sports engaged and non-engaged males in the sample. When counting the number of negative numbers, which indicates a school performance below class average (indicated by a – sign before the number) in the ‘Variance’ columns, the difference in totals between sports engaged and non-engaged males is only 1. While there are seven negative numbers in the sports engaged sample, the sports non-engaged sample has six negative numbers.

The lack of a significant difference in terms of the number of negative differences in the sample indicates that sports engagement does not have negative impacts on respondents’ school performance. Indeed sporting activities at CSS do not take place during normal school hours but after school and sometimes over weekends. Sports engaged respondents are not disadvantaged in terms of missing lessons because they were away playing sports. In addition, spending leisure time on sporting activities is beneficial to youth health; it helps relax the mind and provides youth with increased opportunities to connect socially with other learners at the school, and make more friends and build strong relationships with teachers at the school. These positive aspects of sports engagement are addressed in subsequent sections in this chapter.

At this juncture, it is important to briefly highlight some of the qualitative responses from teachers relating to the role of sporting activities in empowering respondents with different social skills. The following quotations illustrate teachers’ perceptions on what learners who engage in sports stand to gain:
There are many things you learn through sport. You gain lot of skills and it develops discipline in learners. Sport add more discipline to any individual, so as to learners. They learn discipline, respect, responsibility, leadership roles, communication skills, problem solving skills, time management, commitment and hard work. They learn how to work with others and that through hard work they can succeed in life, in sport as they learn about the rules of the game and hard work this also helps in school performance (Interview number two, 20/07/2011).

...when learners participate in sports, they learn many social skills e.g., good communication skills, sportsmanship etc... they learn life skills, they make friends (Interview number one, 20/07/2011).

Learners learn more as we all know that sport add more discipline to any individual, so as to learners (Interview number six, 26/07/2011).

It is clear that participation in sport enables learners to learn more than just the rules of the game. Although the study does not find a very strong relationship between sports engagement and school performance, the role of sporting activities in empowering learners with a range of different social skills is affirmed. Before exploring some of the specific social benefits of youth sports engagement, a table summarising females’ school performance in the sample is analysed. Again, the performance of sports engaged and non-engaged female respondents is measured against the average class mark in order to assess variations in school performance. However, a comparison of sports engaged males and females’ school performance is provided in order to assess the impact of sporting activities on school performance between genders.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Mark %</th>
<th>Class Average (Mean)</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Mark %</th>
<th>Class Average (Mean)</th>
<th>Variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>-18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>51</td>
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<td>16</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>54</td>
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<td>11</td>
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<td>54</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 Comparison of Females’ IsiZulu Exam Performance to the Class Average for the First Term 2011
The data presented in Table 7 suggests that there are no major differences in the way the two samples perform at school. While sports engaged females have six negative numbers in the ‘Variance’ column, non-engaged learners have five. Although sports engaged female respondents have an added commitment in the form of sporting activities, this does not have a negative impact on their school performance.

The number of sports engaged females who perform above the class average is not very different from that of females who do not engage in school sports. Key findings emerging from these sets of data suggest that sports engaged and non-engaged female respondents perform relatively equally; it appears that sporting activities as a whole have no negative impact on learners’ school performance.

In a similar vein, a comparison of sports engaged males and females' school performance reveal only a very minimal difference. For example, while sports engaged males have 7 negative numbers in the ‘Variance' column, sports engaged females have 6. This is a negligible difference of 1. Therefore, it may be asserted that sports engagement has similar educational impact on males and females in the study sample. Improved and equal access to sporting opportunities for both males and females in the CSS need to be ensured, not only for participation within the school context but also in the community, allowing Chesterville youth increased opportunities to engage in sports even outside the school grounds after school, over weekends and during school holidays. It is believed in developing countries that for each R1.00 spent on sport and recreation, the health bill is lowered by R100.00 (White Paper for the Department of Sports and Recreation, 1998: 2).

In addition to the analysis of Tables 6 and 7, sports engaged respondents were asked to explain how sports might improve school performance. Some of their responses are recorded below:

<p>| | | | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
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<tbody>
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<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
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<td>25</td>
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<td>28</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It (sport) makes me active all the time and I even don't become lazy. If we come to school work, and there are some subjects asking about the sports, it becomes easy for me to deal with them (Grade 12 sports engaged respondent).

...sports and exercise improves the functioning of your brain and it teaches discipline and commitment to achieving goals and I think it gives us confidence in many things (Grade 12 sports engaged respondent).

By playing sport you take time to relax your mind in such a way that you become fresh to study (Grade 12 sports engaged respondent).

It (sport) makes you feel good and it makes you become flexible and your mind is always good, fresh and if you are doing sport you always come out with new ideas (Grade 11 sports engaged respondent).

Although the respondents feel that sports make a positive contribution to school performance, the study finds the relationship between sports engagement and school performance not very impressive statistically. The weak positive relationship between sports engagement and school performance is perhaps indicative of the possible correlation between the quality of school sporting activities, which results in a minimal positive impact of these sporting activities on school performance. The level of commitment of learners to both their school work and sporting activities and the skill of balancing the two so that sporting activities do not jeopardise the main educational goals of learners is a topic worthy of study in its own right.

5.9 Youth Physical Health Development through Sports Engagement

Sports engagement is positively associated with improved general physical health. Both sports engaged and non-engaged respondents were asked to rate their general physical health on a scale ranging from excellent at 1, indicating optimal health, and poor at 6, indicating general ill-health. In order to help respondents make accurate ratings of physical health conditions, respondents were asked to try to remember the number of times they visited the clinic or doctor in the past six months. Graph 1 below presents the respondents' ratings of their general physical health.
Data presented in Graph 1 illustrates that 44% of sports engaged respondents rate their health as excellent, as compared to only 28% of non-sports-engaged respondents. A negligible difference in rating (4%) is noted between sports engaged (20%) and sports non-engaged respondents in the rating category of Very Good. Despite this difference, the findings in this study are consistent with the literature review that asserts a positive relationship between youth sports engagement and physical health as noted by Penedo and Dahn (2005) and Côté and Hay (2002). School sports therefore needs to be promoted as it contributes to better physical health.

5.10 Youth Sports Engagement as a Fertile Context for Promoting Positive Psychological/Emotional Development

According to Gilman (2001) youth sports engagement is associated with higher life satisfaction. The more organised the sporting activity youth participate in, the higher their life satisfaction. Both sports engaged and non-engaged respondents were asked to either agree or disagree with the statement: ‘Playing sports makes learners feel happy at school’. ‘Strongly agree’ indicates a higher level of happiness, while ‘Strongly disagree’ indicates strong feelings of unhappiness at school. Table 8 below provides a summary of the results in this regard.
Table 8 Comparison of Learners’ Perceptions of Sports Engagement and Feelings of Happiness at School by Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral Response</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sport Engaged Male</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Engaged Male</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport Engaged Female</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Engaged Female</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 8 it will be noted that there are no marked differences in terms of responses about feelings of happiness between sports engaged and non-engaged male respondents in the sample. Both sports engaged and non-engaged male and female respondents generally agree that participation in sports contributes to increased happiness at school. Although the differences are relatively insignificant, this suggests that even if respondents are not engaged in sports, they acknowledge the significant potential for sporting activities to increasing their level of happiness. Working on the assumption that the identified constraints preventing respondents from engaging fully in sports were addressed, it may be assumed that sports non-engaged respondents would likely participate in sports and experience more fun, enjoyment and happiness, leading to increased levels of life satisfaction as postulated by Byl (2006). Similarly, Andrews and Wilding (2004) maintain that sporting activities helps build learners’ self-esteem, keep them happy at school and reduce stress, anxiety, loneliness and depression.

5.11 Some Social Benefits of Youth Sports Engagement

Table 9 below shows that there are no marked differences in responses amongst respondents in the different categories analysed. Nearly 60% (58%) of respondents both in the sports engaged and non-engaged group agree that sports engagement helps in building and maintaining a good relationship between learners and teachers. However, Table 9 also indicates that sports engaged respondents seem to have a stronger relationship with their teachers at school, and this is probably because they also engage with the teachers in sports beyond the classroom. This finding is consistent for both genders. For example, sports engaged males, who agree that sports engagement helps them maintain close relationships with teachers have a frequency count of 13 compared to 12 for the non-engaged males. Similarly, sports engaged females have a frequency count of 17.
compared to 16 for their non-engaged female counterparts. Sports engaged respondents are more likely to have personal contact with their teachers, as most sports coaches in the school are also teachers. Therefore, while sports non-engaged respondents only make contact with teachers in the classroom, sports engaged respondents are more likely to form close relationships with teachers as they meet both in the classroom and on the sports fields. This is likely to contribute to increased social bonds between sports engaged respondents and their teachers at school, especially in light of the fact that the sports field is an open, more relaxed environment where strict rules are relaxed compared to the classroom situation. Teachers are likely to be more friendly and allow learners to get to know them. On the sports field, teachers have the flexibility to talk to learners about issues beyond the school curriculum, counsel and mentor them, and serve as role models in a relaxed, informal and supportive environment. Such additional learning opportunities may not always be available to sports non-engaged learners.

| Perceptions of Relationship with Teachers amongst Sports Engaged and non-Engaged Respondents |
|-----------------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender                                      | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral Response | Agree | Strongly Agree |
| Sport Engaged Male                          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 13 | 6 |
| Non-Engaged Male                            | 1 | 3 | 2 | 12 | 7 |
| Sport Engaged Female                        | 0 | 3 | 2 | 17 | 3 |
| Non-Engaged Female                          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 16 | 3 |
| Total                                       | 3 | 10 | 10 | 58 | 19 |

Broh (2002) confirms that sports engagement promotes the positive development of learners, while promoting stronger social ties amongst learners themselves and their teachers. Sports engagement provides learners with increased opportunities to connect with other learners and teachers socially. This is especially important when a learner is new to the school. Sports provide learners with an avenue for participation in the social and cultural life of the school: freedom of expression, interpersonal networks, positive peer relationships, social status, social mobility, community integration, new opportunities and increased self-esteem are available to them. Carpenter (2001) asserts that sports engagement provides youth with various social benefits. Youth school sports engagement promotes a range of positive outcomes such as reduced absenteeism, a stronger commitment to the school culture, pro-social relationships with fellow learners and teachers, improved discipline, and a reduction in drop-out rates and delinquent behaviours. These traits are
known to carry over into other domains of social life such as the community, hence contributing to the building of fully functioning and responsible future citizens. Research undertaken by Côté and Hay (2002) also affirms that youth sports engagement provides an arena for the development of many essential social skills such as cooperation, assertion, responsibility, and leadership, commitment to a goal, empathy, and self-control. In combination these traits contribute to overall positive youth development.

5.12 Sports Engagement and Perceived PYD Outcomes in Enabling School Competence and Contribution to Community

Table 10 below illustrates that almost a third of the respondents (62%) had very strong perceptions describing that sports engagement enhances their school performance, while 36% of the respondents had moderate perceptions. An important observation is the responses from female respondents in both sports engaged and non-engaged categories, with female learners recording much higher levels of confidence than male respondents that sports engagement enhances their school performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sport Engaged Male</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Engaged Male</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport Engaged Female</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Engaged Female</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These results suggest that even respondents who do not engage in sports perceive that sports activeness can enhance their school performance. This finding is in line with studies cited in the literature which confirm that PYD through sports engagement allows youth to thrive, to work to overcome the developmental challenges they face in their social contexts, and to take initiatives to empower themselves through education, resulting in better lives for themselves and their community (Lerner et al, 2005). Considering that the quality of matriculation results at CSS has long been an issue of concern to the provincial Department of Education, teachers and parents, such a perception amongst youth can lead to positive learner outcomes through sports engagement in the
future. It is common knowledge that low educational standards have many negative consequences for learners’ life chances. Inadequate school performance results in difficulty in gaining admission to tertiary institutions and in securing better-paid jobs among those who are not educated beyond high school. Given the negative consequences of poor school performance, this finding suggests the need to advance the skills and capabilities necessary for youth to succeed at school (Ma et al., 2009).

It must be noted that PYD outcomes through sports engagement do not only include empowering the individual learner him or herself but the skills, capabilities, attitudes, knowledge and experiences learners acquire during school sports contribute to the development of their communities (Pittman et al., 2003). Almost 50% (48%) of the total study sample (sports engaged and non-engaged males and females) expressed either agreement or strong agreement that young people need to work hard so that they become successful in life and can become meaningful members of their community. This finding is illustrated in Table 11:

**Table 11 Desired PYD Outcomes: Youth Contribution to Community in Percentages**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceptions of Respondents as Contributing Members of their Community</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport Engaged Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Engaged Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport Engaged Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Engaged Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This finding corroborates the assertion that, within the context of PYD, contribution is primarily concerned with the promotion of youth-initiated projects that engage and address the needs of young people within their communities. It is founded on the assumption that youth contribute to the upliftment of their communities when they perceive themselves to be ‘assets’ for their communities. Youniss et al (2001) confirm that youth involvement in community-based activities provides an opportunity for the promotion of a positive social identity and the formation of strong community bonds.

In so far as the Chesterville community is concerned, data presented in Table 11 suggests the existence of a genuine desire amongst the respondents to develop themselves as youth within their
community, as learners of CSS and as leaders of tomorrow who will serve their community. It may be asserted that being at school and working hard to complete high school education, combined with active engagement in organised sporting activities, potentially allows them to make a future contribution to the development of their families and community and break the cycle of intergenerational poverty that is prevalent in Chesterville.

5.13 Youth Empowerment through Sports

The concept of ‘empowerment’ has been variously defined. In this study empowerment is viewed as 'enablement' (Hagquist and Starrin, 1997), suggesting a need for the creation of increased opportunities for youth engagement in organised sporting activities, as this is known to promote youth attachment to the school culture and contributes to upward mobility among socially disadvantaged youth. Table 12 below shows that the majority of respondents disagreed with the notion that sporting activities empower youth to take on leadership roles at school. Cumulatively 58% of the respondents in all categories disagreed, compared with the cumulative frequency response rate of 34% amongst respondents who displayed levels of agreement.

Table 12 Assessing the Role for Sports in Empowering Youth to take on Leadership Roles in Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral Response</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sport Engaged Male</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Engaged Male</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport Engaged Female</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Engaged Female</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Considering the sociological context of the CSS, which is characterised by high levels of socio-political and economic disadvantage, such a finding is not insignificant when one considers the disempowerment perpetrated by chronic poverty. Despite the fact that a relatively small percentage of respondents record positive attitudes towards leadership roles, this is in itself evidence that a direct correlation exists between sports engagement and youth empowerment. This finding is supported by the literature review, which asserts that leadership roles at school can be regarded as an indicator of the likelihood of involvement in leadership activities as adults. This may be because
sporting activities teach learners life skills such as communication skills, responsibility, discipline, self-control, working with other people and co-operation (Larson, 1994).

In addition, there is increasing evidence that school sports engagement is associated with sustainable livelihoods especially in contexts where youth are exposed to social and economic deprivation, resulting in higher post-high school wages and salaries (Watson, 2009). This suggests a powerful role for sporting activities in contributing to work that produces economically empowered future citizens who are financially independent.

5.14 Strengthening Social Capital through Youth Sports Engagement

As highlighted in the literature review, social capital describes the features of social life, such as networks, norms and trust, that enable people to act together to pursue shared objectives (Cox, 1995: 15). In this study, social capital is viewed as the positive social connections between learners themselves and their teachers at school, making the school a fertile ground that facilitates overall learner development. An overwhelmingly high (80%) number of the sports engaged respondents confirmed that they shared positive social relationships with significant others in the school, such as peers and teachers, as illustrated in Graph 2.

Graph 2 Frequency of Social Relationships Prevalence amongst Respondents

Asked to respond to the statement: ‘If I am to leave school I will miss my friends with whom I have engaged in sports at school’, 80% of respondents answered in the affirmative. School sports engagement provided increased opportunities for learners to connect socially and experience fun and enjoyment. Hence, it may be concluded that youth school sports has the potential to increase learner attachment to school and school culture and to carry this attachment into the post-school
situation, which can be further solidified within the community, resulting in increasing levels of
social capital. Such a finding is supported by Jarvie (2003) who asserts that youth school sports
engagement provides a context for the development of social capital and Putnam (2000) who argues
that the increasing tendency not to belong to traditional sports clubs results in a decline in social
capital. He maintains that school sports foster new friendships and enhance social connectivity
across class, religious and gender boundaries. Friendships formed in sports may facilitate the spread
of the norms and values of trust, respect and reciprocity. They serve as a ‘sociological super-glue’,
bonding learners and teachers together through a sense of pride, common purpose, and commitment
to place (Putnam, 2000: 23). Moreover, school sports create a sense of shared identity and enhance
the strength of attachment to the locality.

This finding was confirmed by a teacher who works very closely with parents in the School
Governing Body (SGB). Responding to the question: ‘What do you think motivates learners to
participate in sporting activities in the school?’ the teacher said:

The promise of fun and a distraction from their daily problems and
possible success in sports. In sports children get to integrate with other learners
and children from other schools. They get away from bad things like drug abuse,
and if a learner is good at sport that learner will get bursary to study further
(Interview number two, 20/07/2011).

Other teachers responded as follows:

The passion they have for outdoors, they are very keen and it is the dream of mine that
the same enthusiasm they show in sports could be also shown in school work
(Interview number five, 20/07/11).

Educators in the sports committee do a lot in motivating learners as sporting activities
keep them away from the streets, away from the wrong doing and they help their minds
to do better in their studies (Interview number seven, 26/07/2011).

Normally learners play sport for fun, but some are motivated by people outside the school
e.g., Caster Semenya (one female learner, who is a marathon runner in the school told me
upon interviewing her that she wanted to be like Caster) so role models such as successful
sports stars may help in motivating learners to play sports...
(Interview number one, 20/07/2011).

Sporting activities provide learners with opportunities to experience fun and more so, make friends,
which contributes to overall life satisfaction. In addition the study suggests that sports engagement
helps to create tightly bonded social groups. Putnam (2000) argues that this provides further
evidence that youth sports engagement provides increased opportunities for the development of
social capital.
5.15 Improving Capacity for Sporting Activities at CSS

Clearly youth sports engagement is important because it contributes to PYD. However, the majority of respondents' perceptions about the quality of sporting activities at CSS speak to the need for major improvements in sporting facilities at the school. School capacity for youth sports means having sufficient sports facilities, resources and materials, fully trained sports coaches, and increased commitment from parents, teachers and learners themselves to promote school sports. The outcome will be a school that is better equipped to provide increased opportunities to all its learners, regardless of gender, grade, or level of sporting ability or competence, to engage fully in different sporting activities. Respondents were asked an open-ended question: What do you think needs to be done in order to improve sporting activities in your school? A sample of their responses is provided below:

I think we should put more sporting activities like volleyball so that other kids can learn more different sport and show young kids that it's not only soccer and netball that you can play but there are lots of sports that can make money for you... (Grade 12 sports engaged respondent).

They must put more focus in basketball and rugby because they don't usually put more effort in these sports, there is a lot of people in the school that like to play these sports but because of ignorant of teachers they don't get chance to improve their talent (Grade 12 sports non-engaged respondent).

I want to see more people to sponsor the school with sports equipments, we need training and we must compete more often with other schools and we need more time for sports and exercise, more space for playing sports is also needed... (Grade 12 sports non-engaged respondent).

I think they need to give support to children and they have to encourage children to do sport, children should be told how sports helps, what do you get from sport participation and what can you become if you do sport... (Grade 12 sports engaged respondent).

I personally think they should make more time for sport and they need to motivate children to play sport and last and not least they need to take us more out and visit other schools and other schools should also visit us... (Grade 12 sports engaged respondent).

I would like us to be successful in sports and get the support we need in the school, I would also like to see myself as a successful netball player so that my parents, school and community can all be proud of me, the school need to encourage students to play sports... (Grade 12 sports engaged respondent).
These responses suggest a significant need to create more sporting opportunities in the school. This could be achieved through increasing the facilities and resources for sports, and the number of sporting activities currently available to learners, as well as improving the quality and organisation of the available sporting activities. However, limited financial resources often hamper the successful development of school sports, especially when the school’s main source of income is student fees. Due to high levels of poverty, many Chesterville parents are unable to pay fees in full and on time. The limited school income is spent on primary educational needs so that day-to-day teaching and learning proceed smoothly. Sporting activities take second place. The development of youth sporting skills, talents and interests suffers accordingly. The provincial DoE needs to increase the budgets it allocates to former Black schools so that money for sports developments becomes available. Increasing budget allocations to historically marginalised Black schools will help narrow the gap in the distribution of sporting activities between former White schools and predominantly Black schools in the rural areas and townships in South Africa. However, the school may also need to be creative and think of ways in which additional funds could be raised, such as seeking donations from businesses in and around the area to support sports development. The following chapter provides more detail on some of the creative ways that schools can work to improve capacity for youth sports engagement: the goal is to promote increased opportunities for sports engagement amongst learners at CSS.

5.16 Summary

The objective of this chapter was to provide analysis and interpretation of data obtained for the purposes of this study. The chapter began by analysing the context of the study and the profile of the different categories of respondents. The data analysed in the chapter is generated from a survey questionnaire administered to grade 11 and 12 learners and interviews conducted with teachers at the school.

In accordance with the findings identified in the literature review, the results of the data analysis suggest that youth sports engagement contributes to the overall healthy development of young people in different respects. The data confirms previous findings, particularly in PYD research, that youth sports engagement contributes to the healthy physical, psychological and social growth of youth. Although sports engaged and non-engaged respondents appear to hold similar views on the role of sports in empowering them in different ways, the conclusion is reached that sports engaged respondents have greater opportunities to forge strong relationships with other learners as well as
teachers at the school and that they are more likely to experience fun and enjoyment, which contributes to increased feelings of happiness at school, than their sports non-engaged counterparts.

PYD theory was utilised with the objective of assessing the extent to which the two PYD elements, school competence and contribution to community, are applicable in a study involving youth in a Black South African township, where PYD studies of this nature have not previously been conducted. The study confirms the applicability of the PYD theory in a context other than the major countries in Europe and North America. The conclusion is drawn that the applicability of the 2Cs of PYD is not limited to developed countries, but the theory is flexible enough to be utilized in studying youth in different regional, material and cultural contexts. PYD emphasizes the strength present within all youth and involves concepts such as well-being, civic engagement and thriving. Every young person has the potential for successful, healthy, positive development.

In keeping with the main objective of the study, this chapter assessed the relationship between sports engagement and school performance amongst respondents. The number of hours respondents spend on sporting activities was measured against their school performance in the IsiZulu exam during the first term of 2011. Pearson's R correlation coefficient suggests that the relationship is positive; however the strength of this relationship is not significant. As with previous studies, the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance is positive, but the level of significance may vary due to samples sizes and various contextual differences in relation to the quality of both sporting and educational resources in the context of the study.

Furthermore, the impact of sports engagement on school performance was assessed among sports engaged and non-engaged respondents. To measure this effectively, class averages obtained from teachers were used to compare how sports engaged and non-engaged respondents perform against the class average. School performance is compared between the two groups of respondents in order to assess variations in school performance. Negligible differences were noted between sports engaged and non-engaged respondents; overall the conclusion is that youth engagement in organised sports does not have negative consequences on their school performance.

The final chapter presents a conclusion and recommendations. The main objectives of the study are revisited in order to show the extent to which the study has achieved its objectives. The chapter also provides a summary of the key findings of the study as well as the conclusion to the study as a whole. Recommendations with regard to the improvement of sporting activities at CSS are provided and the direction future research of this nature could take is identified.
Chapter Six

“A research report should conclude with a statement of what has been discovered about the subject matter and where future research might be directed” (Strydom, 2002: 255).

Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides conclusions on the findings of the study and the research project as a whole. Drawing on international studies, there is wide agreement to suggest that a correlation exists between youth school sports engagement and better physical, psychological and social health, resulting in improved school performance and the achievement of educational aspirations. It is for these reasons that school sports at CSS, which is located in a historically disadvantaged community, need to be promoted. Whilst this may be the case, it is of concern that the majority of study respondents describe sporting activities in the school as poor. This requires that concrete recommendations be formulated with regard to the steps that need to be taken in order to improve sporting facilities at CSS. It is hoped that these recommendations will enable more learners to be provided with the opportunity to gain from the benefits associated with sports engagement. The recommendations provided in this chapter focus not only on the improvement of sporting facilities at CSS, but also suggest the direction future research studies of this nature could take elsewhere in South Africa and in similar contexts in other parts of the world.

One of the primary objectives of the study was to assess the extent to which the PYD framework can be applied in contexts outside of the major countries of Europe and North America, where PYD research of this nature has not been conducted in the past. While the study confirms the flexibility of the theory, it is also important to note that the applicability of only 2Cs of PYD: school Competence and Contribution to community as desired positive outcomes of youth sports engagement, are tested within the parameters of this study. The applicability of the other 4Cs of PYD through youth sports engagement needs to be explored further so that the flexibility of the PYD theory in its entirety can be confirmed. Future research studies will therefore need to be experimental in design and use larger samples drawn from more schools to counter some of the limitations and weaknesses encountered in this study, while at the same time effectively investigating the influence of sports engagement on learners' school success and overall successful
development among youth from South Africa’s diverse population groups. Considering that a study on the applicability of PYD through sports engagement has not been conducted in South Africa in the past, the findings of this study can be considered as a baseline to promote future studies of this nature with a greater level of certainty. In its present exploratory form, this study provided an opportunity for the different elements of PYD to be tested and applied, given the enormous challenges facing South Africa’s youth.

6.2 Revisiting the Objectives of the Study

The introductory chapter outlined the key objectives to guide the study. In this section the extent to which the objectives have been achieved are discussed, based on the key findings of the study. Arising out of this discussion, the conclusions that can be drawn from this study are formulated.

6.2.1 Assessing the Nature of the Relationship between Youth Sports Engagement and School Performance

Pearson’s R correlation coefficient was computed in order to assess whether there exists any relationship between sports engagement and school performance. The relationship between the number of hours that sports engaged learners spent on sporting activities (per week) and their first term examination performance in IsiZulu was tested. The Pearson’s R tests suggested a positive relationship between the two variables, \( R = 0.220, \text{Sig. (2-Tailed)} = 0.125, N = 50. \)

These results, however, need to be read with caution as it is likely that this positive relationship may be attributed to pre-existing, superior cognitive abilities among sports engaged learners. In other words, it is possible that they were performing better than sports non-engaged learners prior to engagement in sporting activities. Hence studying sports engaged learners’ school performance alone proved inadequate for understanding the role of sporting activities in advancing school competence, resulting in better school performance.

In order to address this issue further, a summary of sports engaged and non-engaged learners’ examination performance in the same learning area and term was analysed and compared against the class average. This comparison revealed minimal differences in school performance for the two sample groups. In both samples the difference in school performance as measured against the class average showed an insignificant difference of 1. Based on this finding, two major conclusions may be drawn. Firstly, as both sports engaged and non-engaged learners perform relatively equally, it is
concluded that sports participation does not have negative effects on learners’ school performance. Secondly, unlike sports non-engaged learners, sports engaged learners are more likely to experience improved physical, psychological and social health as they experience more fun and enjoyment at school, contributing to improved life satisfaction.

6.2.2 Assessing the Significance of the Relationship between Youth Sports Engagement and School Performance

The study finds a positive relationship between sports engagement and school performance, although the level of significance of the relationship is not significant statistically to draw very firm conclusions. It is possible that if this study was repeated with a larger sample, a stronger conclusion could be formulated. Although the findings of this study suggest a weak relationship, it may be argued that a relationship does in fact exist. While this finding corroborates the more extensive studies undertaken by Larson (2000) and Dwyer et al (2001), the study highlights, within a developing country context, the potential role of youth sporting activities in contributing towards the development of learners’ school competence, resulting in better school performance.

6.2.3 Assessing School Competence as a Desired Positive Outcome of Youth Sports Engagement

Within the context of PYD, it is argued that school sports engagement provides learners with many positive outcomes, including school competence, which are represented by actual or self-perceived school success (Ma et al, 2009). The findings of the study indicate that more males in the sports engaged sample feel that their chances of passing their current grade are 'High' compared to males in the sports non-engaged sample. Among sports engaged males, the inclusion of sporting activities in their daily routine does not prevent them from having greater school success expectations and overall educational aspirations. In addition, the findings of the study suggest that school sports engagement does not have negative consequences for learners’ scholarly goals. This finding confirms that youth school sports engagement does promote essential positive school outcomes, which is in line with the study undertaken by Fox (2000), who asserts that disengagement from sporting activities potentially predicts negative developmental outcomes such as smoking, drug and alcohol abuse, and involvement in anti-social behaviour.
6.2.4 Assessing Youth Contribution to Community as a Desired Positive Outcome of Sports Engagement

As noted in the literature review, sports engagement among youth has the potential to promote youth-initiated projects that engage and address the needs of young people within their specific communities. When youth perceive themselves to be ‘assets’ in their communities, they contribute to community upliftment.

The study highlights the existence of a genuine desire amongst learners to develop themselves as youth in the Chesterville community, as CSS learners and as the leaders of the future. The study confirms that PYD is applicable in a historically disadvantaged community, because the respondents displayed a generally positive attitude that being at school and working hard to complete their high school education will not only impact on their own personal growth and development, but on their respective families and the community as a whole. This finding is further qualified by the respondents’ perceptions that participation in school sporting activities will help them realise their scholarly goals in life. It may be concluded that such positive attitudes amongst respondents hold out the promise of advancing their life chances and breaking away from the inter-generational poverty that grips the community of Chesterville. Such an assertion is founded on studies undertaken by Pittman et al., (2003), which found that school sporting facilitate appropriate educational processes which equip, empower and inspire youth to contribute to the upliftment of their families, school and community. To this extent, it may be confirmed that considering the social context of the research locality, PYD outcomes through sports engagement not only have the potential to empower the individual learner, but also that the skills, capabilities, attitudes, knowledge and experiences learners acquired during organised school sports can be used to develop their community, making valuable contributions to their respective families and schools in the long term.

6.2.5 Assessing the Educational Impact of Sports Engagement on Males and Females

In order to assess whether sport engagement has similar or different educational impact on males and females in the study, Tables 6 and 7 were used as they provided a summary of sports engaged and non-engaged respondents' school performance in a common learning area among the respondents. Table 6 suggested that sports engaged and non-engaged males' school performance was not very different for the two samples. In a similar vein, Table 7, which summarised sports engaged and non-engaged females' school performance suggested minimal differences in the way
the samples perform at school. For example, while sports engaged females had six negative numbers in the 'Variance' column, non-engaged females had five.

The conclusion on the analysis of the relationship between sports engagement and school performance of males and females in the study is that both genders perform relatively equally at school. Although sports engaged males and females have an added commitment in the form of sporting activities, this does not have a negative impact on their school performance. In addition, youth sports engagement is beneficial to youth health.

6.2.6 Exploring the Role of Youth Sports Engagement in Strengthening Social Capital

In order to measure the level of social capital in the research locality, the strength of friendship relationships between sports engaged learners was assessed. Eighty percent of these learners confirmed that they will miss their friends and the fun that sports has provided them with at school when they leave school upon matriculation. This finding confirms that youth school sports provide learners with many opportunities for the development of social capital. Sports provide a social structure within which increased interactions with other learners and teachers are frequent and repeated. This enables the strengthening and extension of supportive and cooperative networks with peers, schoolmates, teachers and parents in the community. This finding is similar to that of Putnam (2000: 23) who argues that school sporting activities act as a ‘sociological super-glue’, bonding learners and teachers together through a sense of pride, common purpose, and commitment to place. He asserts that friendships formed in sports may facilitate the spread of social norms and the values of trust, respect and reciprocity.

Based on the above finding it may be asserted that learners at CSS can help foster social capital in the school by their increased engagement in organised sporting activities creatively designed to allow them to learn not only the skills associated with particular sports, but also various life skills including discipline, perseverance, conflict management, sexual health and problem-solving skills through cooperative learning activities. In addition community service values may be combined with sports in order to achieve an educated, healthy and responsible future citizenry of Chesterville.

6.2.7 Importance of Sports Engagement for CSS Learners

While previous research highlights the positive association between youth school sports engagement and an array of desirable school behaviours, including good conduct, improved
attendance at school, discipline, school competence, better school performance, and good social skills (Larson, 2000), only partial conclusions can be drawn in this study, especially in light of certain structural limitations within the learning environment. In both the sports and non-sports engaged groups of respondents more than half of the sample described the learning environment as needing major improvements in so far as sport resources are concerned. For instance, 50% of sports engaged respondents found sporting activities Poor in the school, whereas in the sports non-engaged sample 58% had similar perceptions. The poor quality of sporting facilities at the school is not atypical in many of the public schools to be found in the former apartheid townships. Such a finding suggests a need for investment in sporting facilities in township schools if the historical social, psychological and economic deprivations of the past are to be surmounted and the current generation of youth are to be given an opportunity to make a difference to their communities through better school performance inspired by positive sports engagement activities.

6.3 Recommendations for Better Sports Development at CSS

The recommendations presented in this section are intended to increase opportunities for youth sports engagement and encourage learners to participate in sporting activities, hence contributing towards increasing levels of sports engagement among learners at CSS. These recommendations will also enable evidence-informed action by the school to increase its capacity to achieve a health-promoting environment through sports as well as to inform the school sports policy at a Provincial Education Department level. The recommendations also provide opportunities for education policy makers to further explore the potential of PYD programmes in disadvantaged schools, given the challenges facing South African youth.

6.3.1 Sports Resource Building within the School

Access to adequate, quality and convenient sporting facilities, resources and equipment is known to increase sports engagement levels. School sports facilities should also cater for the needs, interests, and number of learners at the school. The study showed that the lack of sufficient school sports facilities at CSS is a major barrier to youth sports engagement.

In order to improve sporting activities at CSS a variety of different sports facilities should be made available to learners either at or near the school. These should include indoor and outdoor facilities and the use of community sports facilities in cases where there is not enough space for sports within the school. Both indoor and outdoor school sports facilities should be made available to all learners
at various times, not only during school hours but also outside normal school hours. This includes time before and after the school day, over weekends, and during school holidays, so that the youth of Chesterville have productive activities to participate in during leisure time. This will help reduce the risk of delinquency and other anti-social behaviours such as drug and alcohol abuse.

The general community sports facilities should be improved both in terms of maintenance and increasing variety of sports categories so that they meet desirable sporting standards. This will encourage youth engagement in sports and more importantly CSS learners can participate in sporting activities that are not available at school. It will also encourage learners to engage in sporting activities over weekends and during school holidays when school facilities may be closed. Where sports facilities of decent standards are not available in the community, the youth of Chesterville should be able to use sporting facilities in affluent neighbouring areas such as Westville at minimal or no cost. Transportation to and from sports grounds and sports competition trips should be provided at minimal or no cost to learners engaged in sports activities. This will encourage sports engagement on the part of all learners, regardless of their financial circumstances (Reid et al, 2011).

Other opportunities and events that promote youth engagement in sports include more frequent school sport days, and sport trips. Fund-raising events for the school should include sporting activities. Alumni of the school should be invited to fund-raise for sports. Sports personalities may also be invited to the school to encourage sporting activities amongst learners. Companies could be approached to sponsor equipment, gear, the building of sport fields and their maintenance. These resource-building initiatives will improve sports investments in the school and the community of Chesterville in general.

6.3.2 Developing a School Sports Policy

Policies are useful to support school sports development. School sports policy should be designed in such a way that all learners and teachers perceive sports as normative school behaviour (Reid et al, 2011). The school is encouraged to establish a sports policy that promotes enjoyable sports engagement among all learners, particularly young females, as they often feel marginalised, with more attention given to male sports. Developing and enforcing the school sports policy will demonstrate the school's commitment to promoting sporting activities at the school, provide guidance and direction, and establish the accountability of school officials and the DoE in the province.
A written school sports policy must exist to ensure the provision of a wide range of school sports to meet the needs, interests, competencies and abilities of learners at the school. This policy should also clearly state that only qualified sports coaches are hired to teach and coach sports. The critical role of the DoE is to ensure that adequate funding is made available to the school to hire trained coaches. However, coaches in the community can play a valuable role by providing their skills and expertise at minimal cost or on a voluntary basis to coach sports at CSS, especially outside school hours, over weekends and during the school holidays.

6.3.3 Creating a Social Climate that Promotes Youth School Sports Engagement

Once a school sports policy is in place, as well as adequate facilities, trained coaches and time for sports is made available to learners, the next important step would be for the school to work at creating an enabling social climate for optimal youth sports engagement. A social climate for sports refers to the degree to which sports and other physical activities are emphasised and promoted within the school, and how they are embedded within the culture of the school (Reid et al, 2011). In order to improve the level of learner engagement in school sports at CSS, the school is encouraged to provide an enabling social environment that not only supports and promotes sports but also facilitates the spread of positive messages to all learners about the importance of school sports engagement.

6.4 Future Research Directions: Assessing the Relationship between Youth Sports Engagement and School Performance

In assessing the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance, the study relied heavily on the subjective marking by teachers of the learners' IsiZulu term examination, a randomly selected common learning area among all grade 11 and 12 learners at CSS. The limitation and weakness of the study is that it did not use a specific, standardised, comparable, norm-referenced measure of learner academic achievement such as the Stanford Achievement Test (SAT 10). SAT results could have provided a more objective basis to evaluate sports engaged learners' school performance in the study. To counter this limitation, future research studies of this nature will need to utilize such rigorous tests in order to achieve a highly reliable measure of learner scholarly performance. Such research will also need to assess school performance trends across different learning areas, not only in one learning area as is the case in this study. School performance may differ for different learning areas. In a similar vein, different kinds of sports may
have a different impact on learners' school performance. Again it is important that future research explore which type of sport has what kind of impact on learner scholarly performance. This will enable a fuller and clearer understanding of the relationships between sporting activities and school performance in the context of the study.

The study utilised a case study design as opposed to experimental study design. This is another limitation and weakness, as it meant that the study was unable to effectively control for pre-existing learner school performance. It is not known how sports engaged learners were performing at school prior to sports engagement. It is recommended that future research examine sports engaged learners' school performance pre- and post-sports engagement and compare these performance trends with those of sports non-engaged learners. Such research will need to be experimental in design, as opposed to the case study design used in this study. Multiple cases will need to be conducted in order to increase the sample size, leading to statistical generalisation to other populations with a greater level of confidence.

6.5 Summary

Youth sports literature in the South African context tends to focus on unequal sports opportunities across race, gender, and social classes as either independent units of analysis or as variables that intersect. South Africa’s history of colonisation and apartheid is characterised by racial inequalities where certain racial groups were advantaged while others were disadvantaged in different spheres of life, including sport (Booth, 1998).

Some researchers have focused on the different roles of youth sporting activities in enhancing their physical health, leading to the creation of responsible citizens and the building of a united nation (Pelak, 2002). These are primary contributions of sports to the overall development of youth. This study has extended this knowledge and bridged a gap in the South African sports literature by assessing the presumed relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance within a Black South African township, contributing new knowledge not only to sports sociology but also to the sociology of education in post-apartheid South Africa.

Most of the literature reviewed for the purposes of this study speaks to the positive relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance. However, since many of these research studies originate in the developed countries of Europe and North America, the current study needed to ascertain whether such a relationship could be found in the developing context of South Africa.
The main objective of this study was to assess the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance beyond those undertaken in the developed world. In order to achieve its objectives the study began by exploring the research literature on the topic under investigation. The objective of the literature review was to explore knowledge that already exists so that the study could set parameters to identify and bridge gaps in the literature and contribute new knowledge.

Data generated for the purposes of the study suggests that youth sports engagement contributes to the overall healthy development of youth. The chapter that analyses the data affirms the findings of the research literature, particularly in PYD research, that youth sports engagement contributes to the healthy physical, psychological and social growth of youth.

In keeping with the main objective of the study, the key component of the analysis of the data assessed the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance amongst the different categories of respondents in the study. The number of hours (per week) respondents reported spending on sporting activities was measured against their school performance in a randomly chosen common school subject, IsiZulu, examination during the first term of 2011. Pearson's R correlation coefficient suggests that the relationship between the two variables is positive; however the strength of this relationship is not very significant. However, in keeping with previous studies on the same topic, the relationship is positive. The level of statistical significance may vary due to differences in sample sizes and various contextual differences may also contribute to the differences in the results of the significance tests.

The relationship between sports engagement and school performance may be mediated by various cultural, social and economic factors. In this study, however, where the majority of respondents share similar socio-economic backgrounds unfortunately characterised by social disadvantage, the relationships between youth sports engagement and school performance trends is a positive relationship when mediating variables are considered constant.

The limitations and weaknesses of the study were highlighted in order to identify the direction that future studies could take. Of particular concern is the measure of school performance and the study research design utilised to achieve the objectives of the study. It is recommended that future research use standardised measures of school performance so that more objective and reliable school performance trends can be examined. Future research will also need to employ an experimental research design so that pre-existing respondent characteristics are controlled, allowing
the effects of sporting activities on school performance to be assessed more effectively. Pre- and-post-sports engagement school performance trends will also need to be examined more carefully.

Existing social theories and the theoretical literature on youth development through sports engagement was explored in order to assess the extent of their applicability in the context of the study. It is believed that by revealing the various possible positive contributions of youth sports engagement to school performance at CSS, school-going youth, the school and the community of Chesterville can systematically use sporting activities as a youth empowerment tool, which can be used in combination with other broader social projects aimed at empowering marginalized township youth, promoting positive youth development and building social capital within the historically disadvantaged Chesterville community.

PYD theory was utilised with the objective of assessing the extent to which the two PYD elements of school competence and contribution to community are applicable in a study involving youth in a Black South African township. The conclusion is that the 2Cs of PYD are not only applicable to the developed countries of Europe and North America, but the theory is flexible enough to be utilized in studying youth in different material and cultural contexts. Indeed, PYD theory emphasizes the strength present within all youth: every young person has the potential for successful, healthy development and all youth possess the capacity for positive development (Damon, 2004). However, the extent to which the other Cs of PYD are applicable in the context of the study is unknown. Future PYD research could extend the scope of the theory by exploring the applicability of the other 4Cs of PYD through youth sports engagement in the developing South African context.
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Appendices:

Appendix A: Ethical Clearance Letter from the University of KwaZulu-Natal
17 June 2011

Mr E Mayeza (207500220)
School of Sociology & Social Studies
Faculty of Humanities, Development &
Social Sciences
Howard College Campus

Dear Mr Mayeza

PROTOCOL REFERENCE NUMBER: H55/0338/011M
PROJECT TITLE: Assessing the Relationship between Sports Engagement and School performance amongst Learners in Chesterville Secondary School, Durban

In response to your application dated 13 June 2011, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted FULL APPROVAL.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the school/department for a period of 5 years.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

Professor Steven Collings (Chair)
HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

cc. Supervisor: Dr S Khan
cc Mrs S van der Westhuizen
Appendix B: Application Form for Permission to Conduct Research in KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education Institutions
Application for Permission to Conduct Research in KwaZulu Natal Department of Education Institutions

1. Applicants Details

Name Of Applicant(s): ____________________________________________________________
Tel No: ___________________ Fax: __________________    Email _________________________
Address: ________________________________________________________________

2. Proposed Research Title: ____________________________________________________

3. Have you applied for permission to conduct this research or any other research within the KZNDoE institutions? 

   Yes | No

   If “yes”, please state reference Number: _______________________

4. Is the proposed research part of a tertiary qualification? 

   Yes | No

   If “yes”
   Name of tertiary institution: ____________________________________________
   Faculty and or School: ________________________________________________
   Qualification: _________________________________________________________
   Name of Supervisor: ___________________ Supervisors Signature __________________

   If “no”, state purpose of research: _______________________________________

5. Briefly state the Research Background: _______________________________________

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6. What is the main research question(s):

7. Methodology including sampling procedures and the people to be included in the sample:
8. What contribution will the proposed study make to the education, health, safety, welfare of the learners and to the education system as a whole?: _______________________________________
   _______________________________________
   _______________________________________
   _______________________________________
   _______________________________________
   _______________________________________
   _______________________________________
   _______________________________________

9. KZN Department of Education Districts from which sample will be drawn (please tick) -
   Please attach the list of all schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Umlazi</th>
<th>Sisonke</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amajuba</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Othukela</td>
<td>Pinetown</td>
<td>Ugu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zululand</td>
<td>Ilembe</td>
<td>Umgungundlovu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obonjeni</td>
<td>Empangeni</td>
<td>Umzinyathi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. Research data collection instruments: (Note: a list and only a brief description is required here - the actual instruments must be attached): _______________________________________
    _______________________________________
    _______________________________________
    _______________________________________
    _______________________________________
    _______________________________________
    _______________________________________
    _______________________________________

11. Procedure for obtaining consent of participants and where appropriate parents or guardians:
    _______________________________________
    _______________________________________
    _______________________________________
    _______________________________________
    _______________________________________
    _______________________________________
    _______________________________________

12. Procedure to maintain confidentiality (if applicable): ________________________________

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13. Questions or issues with the potential to be intrusive, upsetting or incriminating to participants (if applicable): 
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________

14. Additional support available to participants in the event of disturbance resulting from intrusive questions or issues (if applicable): ___________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________

15. Research Timelines: ______________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________

16. Declaration
I declare that the above information is
true and correct

----------------------------------  ----------------------------------
Signature of Applicant  Date

17. Agreement to provide and to grant the KwaZulu Natal Department of Education the right to publish a summary of the report.

I/We agree to provide the KwaZulu Natal Department of Education with a copy of any report or dissertation written on the basis of information gained through the research activities described in this application.

I/We grant the KwaZulu Natal Department of Education the right to publish an edited summary of this report or dissertation using the print or electronic media.

----------------------------------  ----------------------------------
Signature of Applicant(s)  Date

Return a completed form to:
Sibusiso Alwar
Research Unit
Resource Planning
KwaZulu Natal Department of Education

Hand Delivered:
Office G25; 188 Pietermaritz Street
Pietermaritzburg 3201
Or
Ordinary Mail
Private Bag X9137
Pietermaritzburg
3200
Or
Email
sibusiso.alwar@kzndoe.gov.za or smiso.sikhakhane@kzndoe.gov.za
Appendix C: KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education Permission Letter to Conduct the Study in CSS
ENQUIRIES: Sibusiso Alwar

DATE: 01 June 2011

REFERENCE: 2/4/8/2

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS


Your application to conduct research in the KwaZulu Natal Department of Education Institutions has been approved. The conditions of the approval are as follows:

1. The researcher will make all the arrangements concerning the research and interviews.
2. The researcher must ensure that Educator and learning programmes are not interrupted.
3. Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.
4. Learners, educators, schools and institutions are not identifiable in any way from the results of the research.
5. A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers, Principals and Head of Institutions where the intended research and interviews are to be conducted.
6. The period of investigation is limited to the period: From 01 June 2011 to 31 June 2012.
7. Your research and interviews will be limited to the schools you have proposed and approved by the Superintendent General. Please note that Principals, Educators, Departmental Officials and Learners are under no obligation to participate or assist you in your investigation.
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey at the school(s) contact Mr Alwar at the contact numbers below.
9. Upon completion of the research, a brief summary of the findings, recommendations or a full report/dissertation/thesis must be submitted to the research office of the Department. Address to: The Director: Resource Planning; Private Bag X9137; Pietermaritzburg; 3200

The Department of Education in KwaZulu Natal fully supports your commitment toward research and wishes you well in your endeavours. It is hoped that you will find the above in order.

Ngisinathi SP Sishi, PhD
Head of Department: Education

Date: 3 June 2011

KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

POSTAL: Private Bag X9137; Pietermaritzburg, 3200; KwaZulu-Natal, Republic of South Africa

PHYSICAL: Office 025; 180 Pietermaritzburg; Metropolitan Building; PIETERMARITZBURG 001

TEL: Tel: +27 33 344 8810 / Fax: +27 33 344 8812 / Email: education@kzn.gov.za
PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS


Your application to conduct research in the KwaZulu Natal Department of Education Institutions has been approved. The research and interviews will be limited to the following Schools and Institutions:

1. Chesterville Secondary School

Regards,

Maphetha SP Sishi, PhD
Head of Department: Education

Date: 01 June 2011
Appendix D: Informed Consent Form for Respondents
University of KwaZulu-Natal
Howard College Campus
Faculty of Humanities, Development and Social Sciences
School of Sociology and Social Studies
Name of Student: Emmanuel Mayeza
E-mail: 207500220@ukzn.ac.za
Supervisor: Professor Sultan Khan
E-mail: khans@ukzn.ac.za
Graduate Students Administrator: Mr Cyril Mthembu
E-mail: mthembuc@ukzn.ac.za

Research Topic:

Degree: Master of Social Science (Sociology)

Aim(s) of the Study
The main aim of this research study is to assess the relationship between youth sports engagement and school performance amongst randomly selected grade 11 and 12 learners in Chesterville Secondary School, Durban.

Your Participation in the Research Study
Participation in the study is purely voluntary. This means that as a participant you may refuse to participate prior to the study or withdraw at any time during the study without any negative consequence to yourself. As a participant you also have the right to remain anonymous and your personal details, views and opinions you express in the study will be kept and treated confidentially. All the information you provide in the study will only be used for the purposes of this research study and will not be made available to anyone or any organisation without your prior permission. Fully completed questionnaires and a record of interviews and the dissertation will be stored in the University of KwaZulu-Natal for a period of five years. Upon the completion of the study, the dissertation will be accessible from the university libraries and the summary of the research report shall be made available to you upon request.
Please complete and sign the consent form in the next page.
CONSENT

I, (print name and surname).................................................................................................................................................
voluntarily agree to participate in the study.
Signature.................................................. Date: ...........................................

And (where the participant is under 18 years of age)

Name of Parent/Guardian:
Father..........................................................................................................................
Mother......................................................................................................................
Do agree that: Name of Learner........................................................................ Participate in the
above-mentioned study.
Parent/Guardian Signature..............................................................................
Date..........................................................
Appendix E: Questionnaire for Sports Engaged Respondents
Section 1: Instructions to Participants

- Read these instructions carefully before answering the questionnaire.
- Please answer each question as **honestly** and **truthfully** as you can.
- Please answer each question to the best of your ability.
- Please do not write your name on this questionnaire as this is to protect your identity.
- If you have questions about the study or you experience difficulty of any kind in answering the questions in this questionnaire please do not hesitate to raise your hand and I will come to assist you.
- Where applicable, please **circle** your response using preferably a **pen** but you may use a pencil if you wish to do so.
- Please **return** your fully completed questionnaire directly to me before you leave the room.

Section 2: Your Personal Information

1. What grade are you doing?
   - Grade 11
   - Grade 12

2. What is your gender?
   - Male
   - Female

3. What is your age?
   - 15 Years
   - 16 Years
   - 17 Years
   - 18 Years
   - 19 Years
   - 20 Years
   - Over 20 Years

4. I best identify myself as:
   - South African
   - African/Black
   - Coloured
   - White
   - Indian
   - Other (Specify)..........................
5. What is your parents’ level of academic achievement?

- My parent(s) have a degree
- My parent(s) have a diploma
- My parent(s) have a college certificate
- My parent(s) have a matric certificate
- My parent(s) do not have a matric certificate

6. How would you best describe your family's economic background?

- We have more money than we need
- We have just enough money
- We do not have enough money.

7. What is the source of your family’s income?

- Parents' salaries and or wages
- Government Child Support Grants
- Government Pension Grants
- Other

8. In terms of family educational resources I can say that

- I have all necessary educational resources at home
- I do have some educational resources but these are not enough
- I have very few basic educational resources at home

9. What is the size of your house, excluding the bathroom?

- It is a 2 room house
- It is a 3 room house
- It is a 4 room house
- It is a 5 room house
- My house has more than 5 rooms

Section 3: Opportunities for Sporting Activities in my School

10. Do you play sports in the school?

- Yes
- No

11. If you answered ‘Yes’ in the previous question, please specify the type of sport(s) you play:

- Soccer
- Netball
- Basketball
- Rugby
- Cricket
- Swimming
- Athletics
- Other (Specify)...

12. If you do play sport in the school please tell me when did you begin sports?
- More than three years ago
- Three years ago
- Two years ago
- In year 2010, last year
- In 2011, this year

13. I can best describe the sporting facilities at school as
- Excellent
- Adequate
- Poor

14. I find playing sport
- Costly
- Time consuming
- Tiring
- Boring

15. What do you think needs to be done in order to improve sporting activities in your school? Please write briefly.

Section 4: The Intensity of Commitment to Sports Activity

Please complete the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>16*. Frequency (how many times a week do you spend on sporting related activities?) eg. Once, twice, thrice, etc</th>
<th>17**. How many Hours per Week do you spend on sport training</th>
<th>18. Intensity of training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

150
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1. Low</th>
<th>2. Medium</th>
<th>3. High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

*1. Once                  **1. 1 Hour
2. Twice                  2. 2 Hours
3. Thrice                 3. 3 Hours
4. More than 3 times      4. More than 3 Hours

19. When do you normally undertake training sessions for your preferred sporting activity?
   - During school hours
   - At break time
   - During physical education (PE) period
   - After school hours
   - Over weekends
   - Other (Specify)...

20. When do sports competitions normally take place?
   - During School hours
   - After school hours
   - Over weekends
   - Other (Specify)...

**Section 5: The Relationship between Sports Engagement and Physical Well-being**

21. Did you visit a doctor or a clinic in the past six months?
   - Yes
   - No

22. What can you say about your general health condition?
   - Excellent
   - Very Good
   - Good
   - Satisfactory
   - Fair
   - Poor
Section 6: Sport and Social Development

23. Playing sports helps in making more friends.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Neutral response
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

24. Playing sport has helped me to take on leadership roles in different aspects of my life...
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Neutral response
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

25. I always look forward to being selected as a class representative or prefect in the school.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Neutral response
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

Section 7: The Connection between Sports participation and School performance

26. With regard to my school work, I always complete my class-work, homework, assignments, tests and exams to the best of my ability.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Neutral response
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

27. I maintain a balance between entertainment and school work.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Neutral response
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree
Please accurately complete the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Common Learning Areas (Subjects)</th>
<th>*Exam Results: Term 1, 2011 in percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>28. IsiZulu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Life Orientation (LO)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*1. Not Achieved (1-34%)
2. Partial Achievement (35-49%)
3. Satisfactory Achievement (50-69%)
4. Outstanding Achievement (70-100%)

31. As a result of my sports engagement I feel that it has improved my school performance?
   - Not at all
   - Very much
   - To some extent

32. If you selected the 2nd or 3rd option in question 31 above, then please explain why do you think sports may improve school performance?
................................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................................

33. As a result of playing sports, I have formed a very good relationship with teachers at my school?
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Neutral response
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

Section 8: Sports as a vehicle for Positive Youth Development: School Competence

34. My confidence to pass this grade with flying colours can be described as:
   - Low
   - Moderate
   - High

35. Where do you see yourself five years from now? Please write briefly.
................................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................................

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Section 9: Sports as a vehicle for Positive Youth Development: Contribution to Community

36. When young people become financially independent it is important that they contribute to family’s expenses in order to reduce financial burden on parents.

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral response
- Agree
- Strongly agree

37. Young people need to work hard so that they become successful in life so that they may become meaningful members of their community?

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral response
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Section 10: Youth Sport and Psychological/Emotional Development

38. I am very happy at school as a result of playing sport?

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral response
- Agree
- Strongly agree

39. If I am to leave school I will miss the fun that sports has provided me at school?

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral response
- Agree
- Strongly agree

40. Would you miss your friends with whom you have engaged in sports at school?

- Not at all
- Very much
- To some extent
Section 11: Sporting Opportunities in my Community

41. In my community (Chesterville) I have access to the following sporting activities: Please make a list.
…………………
…………………
…………………
…………………
…………………
…………………

42. What are some of the sporting activities you would like to participate in but are not available in your community? Please make a list
…………………
…………………
…………………
…………………
…………………
…………………

43. What do you normally do in your spare time? Please write briefly.
…………………
…………………
…………………
…………………
…………………
…………………

44. What do you think needs to be done in order to improve sporting activities in Chesterville? Please write briefly
…………………
…………………
…………………
…………………
…………………
…………………

End of Questionnaire.
Many thanks for your participation and I wish you a very successful 2011!
Appendix F: Questionnaire for Sports Non-Engaged Respondents
Section 1: Instructions to Participants

- Read these instructions carefully before answering the questionnaire.

- Please answer each question as **honestly** and **truthfully** as you can.

- Please answer each question to the best of your ability.

- Please do not write your name on this questionnaire as this is to protect your identity.

- If you have questions about the study or you experience difficulty of any kind in answering the questions in this questionnaire please do not hesitate to raise your hand and I will come to assist you.

- Where applicable, please **circle** your response using preferably a **pen** but you may use a pencil if you wish to do so.

- Please **return** your fully completed questionnaire directly to me before you leave the room.

Section 2: Your Personal Information

1. What grade are you doing?
   - Grade 11
   - Grade 12

2. What is your gender?
   - Male
   - Female

3. What is your age?
   - 15 Years
   - 16 Years
   - 17 Years
   - 18 Years
   - 19 Years
   - 20 Years
   - Over 20 Years

4. I best identify myself as:
   - South African
   - African/Black
   - Coloured
   - White
   - Indian
   - Other (Specify)"
5. What is your parents’ level of academic achievement?
   - My parent(s) have a degree
   - My parent(s) have a diploma
   - My parent(s) have a college certificate
   - My parent(s) have a matric certificate
   - My parent(s) do not have a matric certificate

6. How would you best describe your family's economic background?
   - We have more money than we need
   - We have just enough money
   - We do not have enough money.

7. What is the source of your family’s income?
   - Parents’ salaries and or wages
   - Government Child Support Grants
   - Government Pension Grants
   - Other

8. In terms of family educational resources I can say that
   - I have all necessary educational resources at home
   - I do have some educational resources but these are not enough
   - I have very few basic educational resources at home.

9. What is the size of your house, excluding the bathroom?
   - It is a 2 room house
   - It is a 3 room house
   - It is a 4 room house
   - It is a 5 room house
   - My house has more than 5 rooms.

**Section 3: Opportunities for Sporting Activities in my School**

10. Please tell me what prevents you from participating in school sports?
    - The sport of my choice is not offered in my school
    - There is no facility for my favourite sport in the school
    - I do not like sport
    - I do not have time for sport
    - Playing sports is costly
    - I am not good at sport
    - Other reason/s (Specify)

11. If you do not play sports then please tell me what are some of your interests/hobbies?
    ................................................................................................................................................................
    ................................................................................................................................................................
    ................................................................................................................................................................
12. What do you think about learners who play sports?

13. Since currently you do not play sports in the school, then please tell me what do you normally do during a physical education (PE) period or at times those who play sports are out training on sports fields?

- I use this time to complete my school work, do my readings, tutorials and so on.
- I go to the sports fields to give support to those who play
- I hang around with my friends and chat; this is my time to relax
- I leave school early and go home
- I participate in other extracurricular activities other than sports.

14. I can best describe the sporting facilities at my school as

- Excellent
- Adequate
- Poor

15. What can be done to motivate you to play sports? Please write briefly.

Section 4: The Relationship between Sports Engagement and Physical Well-being

16. Did you visit a doctor or a clinic in the past six months?

- Yes
- No

17. What can you say about your general health condition?

- Excellent
- Very Good
- Good
- Satisfactory
- Fair
- Poor
Section 5: The Connection between Sports participation and School Performance

18. With regard to my school work, I always complete my class-work, homework, assignments, tests and exams to the best of my ability.

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral response
- Agree
- Strongly agree

19. I maintain a balance between entertainment and school work.

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral response
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Please accurately complete the table below:

<table>
<thead>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Life Orientation (LO)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*1. Not Achieved (1-34%)
2. Partial Achievement (35-49%)
3. Satisfactory Achievement (50-69%)
4. Outstanding Achievement (70-100%)

23. I have very good relationships with friends that play sports at my school

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral response
- Agree
- Strongly agree

24. I have a very good relationship with teachers at my school?

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral response
- Agree
- Strongly agree
Section 6: Competence as a Positive Youth Development Element

25. I always look forward to being selected as a class representative or prefect in the school.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Neutral response
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

26. My confidence to pass this grade with flying colours can be described as:
   - Low
   - Moderate
   - High

27. Where do you see yourself five years from now? Please write briefly.
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Section 7: Contribution as a Vehicle for Positive Youth Development

28. When young people become financially independent it is important that they contribute to family’s expenses in order to reduce financial burden on parents.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Neutral response
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

29. Young people need to work hard so that they become successful in life so that they may become meaningful members of their community.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Neutral response
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

Section 8: Perceptions on Youth Sport and Psychological/Emotional Development

30. Are you happy at school?
   - Not at all happy
   - I am happy
   - I am very happy
31. Playing sport makes students feel happy at school?
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Neutral response
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

32. Do you think that you would be able make more friends if you were to play sports?
   - Yes
   - Maybe
   - No

Section 9: Sporting Opportunities in my Community

33. How can you best describe sporting activities in your community (Chesterville): Please write briefly.
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34. What are some of the sporting activities you would like to participate in but are not available in your community (Chesterville)? Please make a list.
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35. What do you think needs to be done in order to improve sporting activities in Chesterville? Please write briefly.
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End of Questionnaire.
Many thanks for your participation and I wish you a very successful 2011!
Appendix G: Teachers' Survey Interview Schedule

Section 1: About the Researcher

Researcher’s name: Emmanuel Mayeza
Institution: University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College Campus, Durban
Degree Registered for: Master of Social Science (Sociology)
E-mail: 207500220@ukzn.ac.za
Supervisor: Professor Sultan Khan, School of Sociology and Social Studies
E-mail: Khans@ukzn.ac.za

Section 2: About the Interviewee

(Please note your participation in the study is voluntary, your identity will be protected and all responses will be treated in a confidential manner).

What is Your Name…

Are you a School Principal, Teacher, Sport Coach, Physical Education Teacher, Member of the School Sports Committee, Member of the School Governing Body or a Parent? Other (Specify)…

What is your Gender? 1. Male 2. Female

When did you join the school…

Section 3: About the School and Sporting Activities

5. How could you describe the school to someone from outside Chesterville?

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6. How could you describe the school’s academic performance as measured by the grade 12 pass rate in the past 3 years (from 2008, 2009 and 2010)?

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7. In your opinion what are some of the factors that contribute to the situation you describe above?

8. Do you think that student sports engagement in the school is important? Please explain your answer.

9. What are some of the sporting activities offered in the school?

10. What do you think motivates learners to participate in sporting activities in the school?

11. What sporting activities are popular amongst boys and girls respectively in the school?

12. What perceptions or attitudes do learners within the school have toward sports?

13. Amongst the learners who participate in school sports, how many times a week do they engage in sports related activities?
14. What are some of the sporting activities that you think learners need but not available in the school?

15. Do you think that there is some kind of a relationship between sports participation and school performance in the school? Please explain your answer.

16. What do you think are some of the factors that prevent some learners from participating in school sporting activities?

17. Are there any negative experiences arising from learners school sports participation that you know of?

18. Who are the school sports coaches?

19. Do sports coaches get any training or certification of any kind?

20. Please explain how sports are funded in the school? For example, does the school receive any budget from the government specifically for the development of school sports or parents contributes money for school sports or the school use its own financial resources for sports?
21. Do you believe that through sports engagement learners learn more than just the rules of the game? Please explain your answer.

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22. Do you think that learners who play sports are disadvantaged in a sense that they sometimes miss school lessons when away on sports training and competitions?

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23. What do you think is the most important thing to be done in order to improve sporting activities at the school?

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24. What do you think is the role of the family in encouraging youth sport engagement?

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25. What role do you think the community of Chesterville has with regard to the development of youth sports?

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26. Is there anything else you would like to add?

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End of the interview, thanks for your participation.
Appendix H: Chesterville Secondary School Vision and Mission Statement
CHESTERVILLE SECONDARY SCHOOL

VISION AND MISSION STATEMENT

SHARED VISION
The Chesterville Secondary School is committed to produce a fully developed future citizen through the provision of quality education.

MISSION STATEMENT
We, the Chesterville Secondary School, commit ourselves to change and become a self-reliant school. In doing this, we shall provide the quality and relevant education that will develop a learner to a productive human being that will positively contribute to the community. We shall do this by:-

- Prioritizing teaching and learning.
- Developing educators, new skills in order to improve their teaching skills.
- To introduce market related subjects that make learners to identify and exploit the available opportunities.
- Prepare our learners to become responsible and active community members.
- Working with the community and share the resources for the upliftment of the school and the community.