



**STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESSES EMPLOYED BY GAUTENG
SOUTH AFRICAN FOOTBALL ASSOCIATION (SAFA) SOCCER CLUBS**

by

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submitted in accordance with the requirements

for the degree of

MASTER OF COMMERCE

in the subject

BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

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November 2015

DECLARATION

I declare that **Strategic planning processes employed by Gauteng South African football association soccer clubs** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



Mr KS Boya

2015/11/13

Date

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to thank the following people for their support:

My promoter, Prof Peet Venter for his wise advice, patience and strategic leadership.

My wife and son, Boitumelo and Tshireletso, respectively, for their unwavering inspiration.

My parents, (Rev TRA & Ps PF Boya), my three sisters (Rachel, Mokai & Maboi), brother (Kagiso), nephews, nieces, relatives and friends for their love and prayers.

The South African Football Association, particularly Mr Andile Ndengezi for the support and endorsement of this study.

The Department of Business Management Ethics Review Committee for granting me permission to do the study.

The soccer clubs for their time, insight and efforts offered when I conducted the interviews.

UNISA Research Directorate for funding this research project.

UNISA CEMS Office of Graduate Studies and Research for research their support

Ms Retha Burger for her quality editorial work and professionalism.

Mr Cameo Victor Edwards for his expertise in transcribing my interviews.

All my colleagues at UNISA's Department of Business Management and beyond, particularly, Prof Simon Radipere, Mrs Violet Moraka, Dr Lusani Netshitomboni, Mr James Hadji, Prof Chiloane-Tsoka, Prof Adewale Aregbeshola, Mr Eric Nenzhelele, Mr Francois Crafford, Mrs Dolly Mametja, Prof Annemarie Davis, Prof Patrick Palmer, Prof Mari Jansen van Rensburg, Prof Rene Pellissier and Ms Vivian Mbulayeni, for their collegiality.

Above all, I thank the Almighty God for all that He did and what He is about to do for me. "What no eye has seen, nor ear heard, nor the human heart conceived, what God has prepared for those who love Him"- 1 Corinthians 2:9 (NRSV).

ABSTRACT

Sport, and particularly soccer, is becoming increasingly professionalised and thus commercialised. Soccer has managed to uphold notable economic growth globally. As affirmation of this growth, both the South African and sport industry experienced tremendous attention and interest during the period 2000 to 2012. Thus, the need for soccer to become formalised, coupled with the increased need for professional management and the implementation of business principles has created an appetite for proper planning and coordination. As a result, strategic planning is becoming indispensable to sport organisations. Organisations that use strategic planning are regarded as being relatively productive, profitable and making better use resources. Large amounts of money are often invested in soccer clubs which renders them prone to huge financial risks if due strategic planning processes and governance structures and processes are not in place. Against this background, this study explored the strategic planning processes of South African Football Association soccer clubs which are at the grassroots level, as these processes inform strategic decision making and growth prospects. A qualitative data collection process in the form of semi-structured interviews was used. A total of 13 club managers (from 12 soccer clubs-two were from one club) participated in the study. Atlas.ti software was used to deductively analyse the data. The findings suggest that the soccer clubs struggle to separate strategic issues from other operational and technical matters, and that soccer clubs generally have low levels of knowledge on strategic planning processes and tools. Recommendations are made to SAFA, government and the private sector to assist grassroots soccer clubs with funding, management training programmes and partnership initiatives. Some of the pressing recommendations are that soccer clubs need to receive education and training in the areas of business management, particularly in the area of strategic management and governance. This can be further accompanied by business coaching and mentoring programmes to ensure that the soccer clubs can be run as professional establishments.

Key words: Strategic planning, strategy, governance, South African Football Association (SAFA); soccer clubs; strategic analysis tools; strategic planning processes

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AFC	Asian Football Confederation
CAF	<i>Confédération Africaine de Football</i>
CODESA	Convention for a Democratic South Africa
CONCACAF	Confederation of North, Central American and Caribbean Association Football
CONMEBOL	<i>Confederación Sudamericana de Fútbol</i>
EMKB	Enterprise Management Knowledge Base
FIFA	<i>Internationale de Football Association</i>
GDP	Gross domestic product
IoDSA	Institute of Directors in Southern Africa
LTGs	Long term goals
MS	Mission statements
NPOs	Not-for-profit-organisations
NSL	National Soccer League
OFC	Oceania Football Confederation
PSL	Premier Soccer League
RBV	Resource based view
SAFA	South African Football Association
SWOT (analysis)	Strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (analysis)
UEFA	<i>Union des associations européennes de football</i>
VCA	Value chain analysis

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

As a point of departure, key terms that are used in this study will be defined and the contexts thereof be given. During the late 1970s, Mintzberg (1979) viewed strategy as a mediating force between the organisation and its environment. In contrast, according to Platt and Tan (2005), at the present time, strategy is regarded as a game plan, blueprint and course of action to shape the realisation of targets of the organisation. The word 'strategy' is borrowed from the military fraternity, meaning 'the art of war' (Louw & Venter, 2013). Strategic planning is generally regarded as the thinking phase within a strategic management process. It follows that strategic plans are essential for organisational effectiveness and efficiency, and to equip individuals and teams in the organisation with the necessary information to realise the organisational objectives (Shraeder, 2002).

Nowadays sport organisations are also compelled to think and act strategically so that they can appropriately respond to the challenges posed by the commercialisation of sports (Basson, 2003). By strategic thinking and actions we mean the ability of the organisation to set goals and determine priorities and identify potential risks and opportunities and in the process take reasonable actions to respond to the environmental needs (Haycock, 2012; de Grandbois, 2013). This is also applicable to South Africa's major sporting codes, including soccer, and the organisations that make up the sport, such as soccer clubs. For this reason, this study will explore the soccer clubs' use of strategic planning processes as they go about the business of sport. The geographic area of focus will be on Gauteng soccer clubs which are affiliated to the South African Football Association (SAFA). There are challenges regarding poor infrastructure, lack of youth development and poor talent identification and management and a lack of coordination and planning in terms of SAFA regions (Alegi, 2010, Mbalula, 2010).

This is a worldwide trend in developing countries (Alm 2013; Ferkins & Shilbury, 2015). As such the overall strategic planning processes of soccer clubs merit attention as this may shed some light on how to address the said challenges. The background of the history and status quo of global and South African soccer will be discussed later in this chapter, and again in chapter 2 of this study. However, strategic management and strategic planning processes will be discussed next.

1.2 STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT AND STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESSES

This section supplies a definition of the term “strategic management” and the different views of strategy are illustrated. Strategic planning in general and strategic planning as a process are discussed. The section is concluded with a discussion on the importance of strategic management.

1.2.1 What is strategic management?

It is imperative to further define what strategic management, strategy and strategic planning are about. Strategic management deals with a set of decisions and actions that result in the formulation/ planning and implementation of plans designed to achieve organisational goals (Pearce & Robinson, 2013).

Ehlers and Lazenby (2010:3) define strategic management as the process whereby all the organisational functions and resources are integrated and coordinated to implement formulated strategies which are aligned with the environment in order to achieve the long term objectives of the organisation through adding value for stakeholders and the communities.

David (2011:37) suggests that strategic management is the art and science of formulating, implementing, and evaluating cross-functional decisions that enable the organisation to achieve its objectives.

On the other hand, Lynch (2012: 8) describes strategic management as a way of finding market opportunities and experimenting and developing competitive advantage over time. For the purpose of this study strategic management will be regarded as the planning, implementation and evaluation of processes through the optimal allocation and utilisation of resources so as to achieve organisational objectives.

1.2.2 The emergence of strategy

There are various views of strategy and how strategy is perceived. Prahalad (2000) and Ehlers and Lazenby (2010) presented this in a form of a table. The table illustrates the two different views on traditional as well as emerging strategy.

Table 1.1: The emerging views of strategy

Dimension	Traditional view	Emerging view
View	Strategy as fit with resources	Strategy as stretch and leverage
Industry space	Strategy as positioning in the existing industry space	Strategy as creating new industry space
Responsibility	Strategy as a top management activity	Strategy as a total and continuous organisational process
Exercise	Strategy as an analytical exercise	Strategy as an analytical and organisational exercise
Direction	Strategy as extrapolating from the past	Strategy as creating the future

Source: Adapted from Prahalad (2000), Ehlers and Lazenby (2010)

The above table seems to suggest that the views on strategy are changing. In other words, the table relates to how strategy has been perceived over time. These emerging themes are summarised under the dimensions of: views, industry space, responsibility, exercise and direction. A mind shift in terms of who, how, where, when and which strategic activities are being executed are addressed by the above table, making the emergence of strategy a concept worth considering.

On the other hand, the following authors, discussed below, also seek to paint a picture of how strategy was perceived during the period from 1962 to 2012. It would be interesting to observe how these initial definitions of strategy have evolved over time.

During the early years of research into strategy, Chandler (1962) defined strategy as planning and executing organisation growth, which consisted of deciding on the basic long-term objectives of an organisation and the resulting adoption of courses of action.

Steiner and Miner (1977) argued that strategy had to do with forging company missions, and setting objectives for the organisation in the light of external and internal forces. Then formulating specific policies and strategies to achieve stated objectives, and ensuring their proper implementation and thereby ensure that the basic purposes and objectives of the organisation are achieved.

Mintzberg (1979:25), however, viewed strategy as a mediating force between the organisation and its environment. Louw and Venter (2013) view strategy as the direction and scope of an organisation over the long term, which achieves advantage for the organisation through its configuration of resources within a changing environment and to fulfil the stakeholder expectations.

In contrast, Barney and Hesterly (2012: 22) consider strategy as a theory about how to gain a competitive advantage. They thus assumed that a good strategy will generate such advantages. To this end, various authors define the concept of “strategic management process”. This process generally encompasses planning, implementation and control as will be discussed in the following section.

1.2.3 Strategic management as a process

Wheelen and Hunger (2012) define the term “strategic management process” as a set of managerial decisions and actions that determine the performance of corporations in the long run. These managerial decisions may occur during the planning, implementation or control phases. It follows that these decisions have to do with internal and external environmental scanning, strategic planning, implementation and control which constitute the phases of the strategic management process.

The strategic management process is generally accepted to consist of three phases, namely: strategic planning, strategy implementation and strategic control processes. This study will focus primarily on strategic planning, and in particular, the strategic planning process and its various components (Whelan-Berry & Somerville, 2010, Robbins, DeCenzo, & Coulter, 2012). As Grant (2003) has postulated, “All modern organisations ought to have strategic planning processes in place”, and this also includes professional sport organisations (Basson, 2003) like the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs were the focus of this study.

1.2.4 Strategic planning

It is important to note that various authors use the words strategic planning and strategy formulation interchangeably, therefore, their use in this study should be regarded as such.

Strategic planning was defined by Pearce, Freeman and Robinson Jr (1987) as the process of determining the mission, major objectives, strategies, and policies that direct the attainment organisational aims, as well as the optimal allocation of resources to this same end.

Miller and Cardinal (1994) viewed strategic planning as standardised planning guidelines or written plans which the organisation can pursue to realise its objectives. Strategic planning is also called the thinking stage during which the leaders of organisations engage in conceptual thinking to articulate their strategic intent about their organisations.

Bivainis and Tunčikienė (2005) suggest that strategic planning is characterised by sufficient foresight regarding the future, systemic complexity, large possibilities of formalisation, and stable consistency in the planning steps. While they acknowledge the futuristic nature of strategic planning, they omit the emergence of non-formalised strategic processes and issues of strategic flexibility (Young-Ybarra & Wiersema, 1999; Grant, 2003).

Louw and Venter (2013) also view strategic planning as the means to arrive at an agreed view of how the enterprise will succeed in the future. The means to arrive at this agreed view can also be regarded as the strategic planning process (David, 2011).

The various components of the strategic planning process will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 3. Strategic management can be emergent or deliberate. To this end, the researcher requires more insight into how strategic planning actually occurs, especially in sport organisations.

1.2.5 The importance of strategic planning

Gruber and Mohr (1982) state that “*strategic planning is relatively common in the private sector but is often less effectively used in the non-profit sector.*” Whereas, Basson (2003) argues that “*sport organisations are also compelled to think and act strategically so as to respond to the challenges posed by the commercialisation of sports.*” This could be the case with regards to Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs.

Why is it important to follow a strategic approach? Chalmeta-Rosalen, Leon-Soriano and Monoz-Torres, (2010), and David, (2011) agree that there are benefits associated with the use of strategic management. Kristiansen (2004), McQuaig (2006), Robbins, DeCenzo and Coulter (2012) agree that the lack of strategic planning by organisations contributes considerably towards business failure.

1.3 SOCCER CLUBS AND STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESSES

Within the formalised sporting codes, the wellbeing of the club is generally maintained by the club management. Sometimes the management may consist of the executive and the board. These personalities play significant roles in the functioning of the clubs. It is thus important to consider these personalities’ ability to successfully run the clubs.

With that in mind, research into the strategic planning of sport organisations still leaves much to be desired (Ferkins, Shilbury & McDonald, 2009). Furthermore, the board’s involvement and strategic capability have a significant influence on the board’s performance, and subsequently the overall organisational performance.

Stiles (2001) and Roberts, McNulty and Stiles, (2005) also infer that boards, in general, fail to realise their potential in the strategic decision-making process.

It is commonly known for the board to provide the organisation's vision and strategy, while the CEO and executive management are responsible for translating these into an operational plan. The importance of shared leadership between the board and the CEO, the complex interplay in balancing this relationship, and the need to integrate strategy into board processes is becoming increasingly significant. (Ferkins, Shilbury & McDonald, 2005, 2009).

This means that these roles are often linked even though they are essentially different roles. Greater board involvement in strategic issues improves the board's ability to perform its strategic function (Ferkins, Shilbury & McDonald, 2009). This research will shed more light on the involvement of Gauteng soccer clubs' board and management in the strategic planning processes. There are various theories that deal with the role of the boards in sport context. The following major theories are worth mentioning.

1.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF SPORT BOARDS AND EXECUTIVES

This section provides a brief discussion of the agency, stewardship and managerial hegemony theories. The agency theory is concerned with the internal monitoring issues of governance and contributes to an understanding of the power relationships between the CEO and board (Shilbury, 2001).

The agency theory regards the primary role of the board as being about the monitoring of the CEO and executive management as agents who may have different interests than those of the board (Shilbury, 2001), (Hoye, 2004), (Hoye & Cuskelly, 2007).

Miller-Millesen, (2003) alludes to stewardship theory, where managers, as stewards, are motivated to act not out of self-interest but in the best interests of their principals, which are the boards. This theory suggests that a steward's behaviour is based on co-operation, pro-organisational and collectivistic actions (Cornforth, 2004).

Managerial hegemony theory asserts that while the board has power by legal right, the real responsibility for the organisation is assumed by management (Stiles, 2001).

The contradictions within these three major theories make the work of the board and management complex and fragmented. It is widely accepted that within these three theories (agency, managerial hegemony & stewardship), the board and management are directly and indirectly involved in strategic planning processes. It is to be noted that in this study the stewardship theories will be considered. This is because the soccer clubs managers may be considered as stewards of their principals (shareholders) who put the interests of football before their own. However, it is also to be noted that many of the SAFA Gauteng soccer clubs only had informal management and board structures in place.

1.5 SPORT AND SOCCER IN SOUTH AFRICA

Sport, particularly soccer, is becoming increasingly professionalised and thus commercialised. Sugden and Tomlinson (2005) state that soccer has managed to sustain remarkable growth across global countries.

Also, as affirmation, the South African sport industry experienced tremendous attention and interest in the period from 2000 to 2012. For example, according to the South African Tourism Annual Report (2010/11) the total expenditure in South Africa by tourists who came specifically for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup, was estimated at R3,64 billion.

The 2010 Soccer World Cup thus succeeded in bringing significant foreign investment into the country, and as a result, yielding a better standing for the host nation (Rogerson, 2009). Soccer thus merits attention as it has the potential to contribute significantly towards the country's gross domestic product (GDP), as well as the general professionalism and commercialisation of the sport industry. This contribution towards the country's GDP has filtered to soccer at "grass roots" level, which is the level this study will be based upon.

Shilbury and Ferkins (2011) regard sport as making a significant contribution to the economy, and ultimately, to the development of society. For example, the Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) afforded South Africa the opportunity to host the 2010 Soccer World Cup with the view to promoting economic development (Clark, 2008). The 2010 Soccer World Cup was tipped to improve the standard of living of the citizens (Dwyer, Forsyth, Madden, Spurr, 2000), and this was significantly evident in post-world cup period (Mbalula, 2010). This phenomenon of economic development through sport is fast becoming an intercontinental trend, with Korea-Japan 2002, Germany 2006 and South Africa 2010 Soccer World Cups as notable examples.

1.5.1 The history of South African soccer

For many years, South African sport was characterised by passion and pride where it was regarded as the ultimate prize to represent your country in a sporting contest. These characteristics were followed by the era of professionalism and commercialisation (Basson, 2003). This has mitigated the country's regrettable history of apartheid, particularly within the sport industry.

During the apartheid era, many of the citizens were racially segregated. As a result, there were a lot of social, political and economic dysfunctionalities.

These led to sport, among other national activities, being deprived of its rightful opportunity to unify South Africa (Black, and Nauright, 1998; Nauright, 2010). The rights of citizens to interact through sport across racial lines were abhorrently violated by the then apartheid government as citizens were banned from participating across racial lines.

This state of affairs was continuously contested by South Africans and other international community members leading to South Africa being banned from the international sporting fraternity by international sporting bodies such as the International Olympics Committee (IOC) and FIFA. Individual countries, as well, played a significant role in advocating for equality within South African sport (Alegi, 2010).

Before 1985, South African soccer was marked by sanctions and alienation by its mother body, FIFA, making it difficult for South African soccer to appeal to the majority of South African citizens and the international community. Many informal soccer leagues across the country, including in prisons in Robben Island, were formed to keep soccer lovers enthused (Korr & Close, 2009). Even though these leagues were subject to lack of recognition, absence of material and financial support, the participants therein felt that the leagues helped them, to some extent, to unite in the fight against apartheid.

In 1985, the National Soccer League (NSL) was established. This resulted in significant changes taking place in South African soccer. The inclusive vision of South African citizenship and identity was a founding principle of the NSL. This league desegregated the professional game in the midst of a politically tumultuous decade which many feared would lead to a civil war (Alegi, 2010). On 8 December 1991, the formation of a non-racial South African Football Association (SAFA) took place. This occurred just a few days before the inception of the Convention for a Democratic South Africa (CODESA), which laid the foundation for the country's construction of a constitutional democracy at political, social, sport and other nation-building fronts.

Various initiatives, such as the SAFA and CODESA processes, afforded South Africa readmission to international sport. For example, in January 1992, the Confederation of African Football (CAF), which is a member of FIFA, allowed South Africa back into its ranks.

This decision was as a result of widely publicised political gains made by the then National Party government, together with the various ANC-led liberation movements involved in the CODESA negotiations. These actions laid a foundation for South Africa to be recognised as the sporting nation it has become from 1992 up to today.

After South Africa's readmission to FIFA and other international sport bodies, it soon became apparent that sport can bring the nation together (Jarvie, 2003). Sport then became a tool used by political and other leaders in nation building initiatives.

These above activities of advocacy and protestation against the then unjust system of apartheid set the tone for the establishment of various sporting bodies within South Africa and beyond.

Against this background, it goes without saying, that many meetings and strategic decision-making processes had to take place to fast track progress on the sporting front once South Africa re-entered the international fold.

1.5.2 The 2010 FIFA World Cup legacy

The successful hosting of the 2010 Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) Soccer World Cup has placed South African soccer and its clubs on the world map. That is why Bohlmann and van Heerden (2005) also correctly predicted that the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup will become the largest sporting event ever to have taken place in the African continent. This success also went on to benefit soccer structures at grassroots level through the 2010 FIFA World Cup legacy projects.

The South African Football association is responsible for the direction and coordination of soccer programmes, leagues and activities that fall under its auspices. Typically, members of SAFA are made up of representatives from 52 regions located throughout South Africa and which are, in turn, made up of local soccer clubs. Each region has an average of 20 local soccer clubs. These regions, and by association soccer clubs, were among the key beneficiaries of the 2010 FIFA World Cup legacy projects (Mbalula, 2010). These legacy projects require, among others, proper planning and effective management, and such strategic planning by these beneficiaries is necessary for the preservation and sustainability purposes.

1.6 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Traditionally, South African sport activities, specifically soccer, were undertaken purely for recreational reasons (Alegi, 2010). As a result, sport activities were not formally organised. Basson (2003) suggests that the participation in South African sports was previously only characterised by passion and pride. However, due to the increase in the commercialisation of sport in South Africa, it has become important to gain insight into the strategic planning processes employed by the management of the sport clubs (Basson, 2003).

Given its relative prominence and growth, there is a need for soccer to become formalised and commercially viable, and this calls for proper planning and coordination. As a result, strategic planning has become an essential aspect to soccer bodies at all levels.

In support of the importance of strategic planning, Lazenby (2014) and Robbins, DeCenzo and Coulter (2012) regard organisations that use strategic planning as being relatively more productive, profitable, and able to make better use of their resources. Large amounts of money are often invested in soccer clubs which renders them prone to financial risks if due strategic planning processes are not in place.

Furthermore, in the light of the above, Grant (2003) argues that all types of modern organisations ought to have strategic planning processes in place to help them adapt to turbulent environments. Karamehmedovic and Bredmar (2013) credit strategy as a necessary mechanism which will enable organisations to cope with the demands of the competitive environment. This also applies to sport organisations that operate within an uncertain and turbulent environment (Bester, 2011). Moreover, sport organisations operate in an environment characterised by the ever-increasing need for commercialisation and professionalisation (Hoye & Stewart, 2002, Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011).

The adaptation to turbulent environments and commercialisation is possible when strategic planning processes are in place. In this context, organisations that plan strategically are deemed to be more proactive in their thinking and processes than their rivals (Lynch, 2012, Morton, 2013).

To this end, the challenge is that not enough research has been conducted on the role of strategic planning processes and practices within the not-for-profit sector and the sport fraternity in general (Hoye & Doherty, 2011), and on South African soccer clubs in particular.

Against this background, this study explored the strategic planning processes employed by Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs.

1.7 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research objectives will first be discussed and then followed up by a discussion of the research questions.

1.7.1 Research objectives

(i) The **primary** objective of this study was to explore which strategic planning processes are employed/ followed by Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs.

Secondary objectives:

(ii) To expound on the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs' involvement in strategic planning processes.

(iii) To explore the perceptions that Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs may have towards the value of strategic planning processes.

(iv) To learn which strategic planning process component(s) are employed by Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs.

- (v) To discover which strategic analysis tool(s) are employed by Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs.

It was envisaged that the clubs' involvement in strategic planning processes would yield new insights into the strategic planning processes in the South African soccer context.

1.7.2 Research questions

Primary research question:

- (i) What strategic planning processes were employed/ followed by Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs?

Secondary research questions:

- (ii) What perceptions did Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs have about the value of strategic planning processes?
- (iii) Who was involved in the strategic planning processes at Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs and how are they involved?
- (iv) Which strategic planning process component(s) were employed by Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs?
- (v) Which strategic analysis tools were employed by Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs?

1.8 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

In the light of the management and administrative challenges which may face soccer clubs in South Africa (Nauright, 2010), the question is, could these challenges be as a result of poor strategic planning?

Nauright (2010) argues that there is an ongoing need for a broader social scientific approach that should challenge the dominant managerial/marketing model of engaging with events and sports operations. Whether or not these broader social scientific approaches become successful depends on their relevance to the organisation itself and the environmental conditions within which the organisation operates.

This study is significant in that it is original empirical research within the soccer fraternity and the findings are likely to be useful in other sporting contexts. No evidence could be found that a similar study was ever conducted in South Africa in this context before. The study may thus provide useful information of how sports organisations and other not for profit organisations, particularly soccer clubs, employ strategic planning processes. The study makes an original contribution in its exploration of strategic planning in soccer clubs. This study will highlight the significance of strategic planning to sports leaders and practitioners.

1.9 ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

In this study, it was thus assumed that there are some strategic planning processes employed within the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs. It was envisaged that the findings of this study could help in strengthening the knowledge on how sports clubs and other non-profit organisations go about strategically managing their affairs.

The SAFA regions in the Gauteng Province (GP) have been chosen, given that GP is generally considered the economic hub of South Africa (Mahlangu, 2012). Most of the country's projects and resources are rolled out from GP.

Moreover, Gauteng prides itself on multiracialism, multilingualism and diversity (Mahlangu, 2012). To support the above statement, Statistics South Africa (2011) reveals that 11 million South Africans live in Gauteng (out of the population of about 50 million), thus making it the most populous province. This figure is likely to increase in the coming years. It follows that five fully functional regions out of 52 active SAFA regions are located in Gauteng. It can thus safely be assumed that the findings from this study were considered to be representative of the state of affairs of soccer in the country.

1.10 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Due to time, resources and other constraints this study was limited to only South African soccer clubs affiliated to the five regions of SAFA in Gauteng. Moreover, this study excluded premier soccer league and first division clubs as it focused on grassroots soccer, where development is much needed.

As the study is limited to SAFA regions in the Gauteng province only, it became challenging to realise an accurate reflection of what is happening in other SAFA regions across South Africa. Furthermore, the business documents such as the soccer clubs' constitutions and annual reports were not available to the researcher at the time when this study was undertaken and such could have provided a much clearer picture in terms of the administrative, management and most importantly the strategic planning processes of the participating clubs. As such the researcher merely relied in the actual interview as the principal source of data.

1.11 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

The world people live in shapes how they think and perceive things; this is also referred to as a paradigm. Research paradigm has to do with conceptual frameworks of beliefs within which scientific theories are constructed (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). Therefore, paradigms determine what is believed to be the truth and the parameters of thinking. They thereby, shape and predestine the research study outcomes. It follows that qualitative research is based on a relativistic, constructivist ontology that conceives that there is no objective reality, but rather multiple realities constructed by human beings who experience a phenomenon of interest (Krauss, 2005).

This study is exploratory and falls in a constructivist paradigm. This allowed the researcher to actively seek to engage the participants, in this instance, Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs, regarding their strategic planning. Exploratory research is further explained below.

According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) exploratory research is a valuable means of finding out what is currently happening, to seek new insights, to ask questions, and to assess phenomena with a new outlook. This type of study is extremely useful when it is required to clarify a particular problem.

Exploratory research can be conducted through inter alia a search of literature; interviewing experts on the subject; and conducting focus group interviews.

In the light of the above, how will the research problem be resolved? How will the research questions be answered? Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) regard the research design as the strategic framework for the action that serves as a bridge between the research questions and the execution or implementation of the research.

Pellissier (2007) suggests that research is an enquiry or search for knowledge, or a systematic investigation to establish facts. It follows that there are two main research strategies to choose from, namely, quantitative and qualitative research strategies. Sometimes both these two research strategies could be followed, resulting in mixed research strategies/ methods.

Quantitative research utilises measurements and numbers in order to achieve results that have statistical reliability, whereas qualitative research collects soft data through probing and understanding of participants' attitudes, motivations and behaviour (Pellissier, 2007).

This study only employed the qualitative research method using a semi-structured interview guide. This research strategy was thus chosen so as to afford the researcher the flexibility and convenience necessary to capture the data which can allowed the findings credible. The design of this study may be more accurately described as phenomenological which is about studying a phenomenon from the respondent's perspective.

Closed-ended and open-ended questions were included in the interview guide to ensure that the richness of data is not compromised.

1.11.1 Sampling

A sample is a number of people or objects considered to be representative of a certain population (Strydom, 2011). After due consideration of the spread of the five regions that make up the SAFA Gauteng area, a sample size of about 12 clubs is was. Semi-structured interviews will be conducted with the respondents. The rapport-building approach will afford the researcher the opportunity to capture correct data and thereby receive a less biased response from participants.

The researcher also had to rely on the assistance of participants, given their knowledge of the industry/ fraternity. The list of potential participants was obtained from SAFA. The Gauteng soccer clubs were the units of analysis.

Sampling is useful for the following reasons (Saunders, 2011; Ebersöhn, 2012):

- Due to the impracticality of surveying the entire population,
- insufficient budget to collect data from entire population,
- and insufficient time to collect data from the entire population.

As a result, in this study, the researcher only had access to participants within Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs who form part of SAFA regional participants.

With that in mind, the study aimed to understand their strategic planning processes in soccer context. A purposive sampling of clubs within the SAFA Gauteng regions who meet the sampling criteria was pursued (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Lucas (2012) views purposive sampling as a method which requires the researcher to choose the sample based on who they think would be appropriate for the study. This method is ideal in instances where the researcher has a limited number of people that have expertise in the area of study. This approach assisted the researcher to source the relevant data from the relevant participants, despite the complex and inconsistent nature of SAFA structures (due to demarcations and political issues) in Gauteng and other regions (Alegi, 2010).

As alluded to above, five out of the 52 SAFA regions are in Gauteng. These Gauteng regions constitute over 10% of the SA regions, thus making it viable in terms of the size of participants and credible activities (Cohen, *et al.*, 2011).

Furthermore, according to the information received from the SAFA Gauteng region, it is estimated that an average of 20 teams exist in each region. It was envisaged that at least ten participants would reflect a picture of the state of affairs of soccer in the Gauteng region. This sampling method was used when seeking to engage with the existing participants from the SAFA Gauteng regions that meet the criteria. The participants will thus recommend other relevant participants who meet the following criteria:

- The participant must be a member of a soccer club's management or board.
- The soccer club must be from the SAFA Gauteng region(s).
- The participant must be involved in the strategic planning processes of the soccer club.

Goodson and Sikes (2001) inscribe that *"it is impossible to pronounce how many participants will be involved in any project"*. Hence it is to be noted 12 participants (who ended up being 13 participants) could deliver credible data which can be used to find the key themes and insights (Goodson & Sikes, 2001). This number could have been increased, should theoretical saturation have not been reached.

Major limitations of purposive sampling include a lack of generalisability, participants' bias and lack of representativeness. However, the sampling techniques outlined above facilitated a process of choosing a number of participants who are accessible and able to give in-depth, and otherwise hidden information regarding soccer clubs and their strategic planning processes (Cohen, *et al.*, 2011). This was used to determine the strategic planning processes of the club.

Other possible limitations of this method include behaviour and bias on the part of the interviewer that may distort the results, and the interviewer's actual physical presence (Cooper & Schindler, 2008), making it an expensive exercise. These possible human factors and errors were taken into consideration and avoided as much as possible.

1.12 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The data to be collected was and will be used only for the purpose of research (Leedy & Omrod, 2005; Leedy & Omrod, 2010). This was clearly explained to the participants to assure them of no harmful consequences resulting from their participation. Therefore, this study adhered to the following ethical principles:

- **Voluntary participation**

All the participants partook voluntarily in this study, without pressure from the researcher or any other entity.

- **Informed consent**

All the participants who participated in this study were informed about the intentions of the study by the researcher and had to first agree to participate.

- **Confidentiality**

The information/ data obtained from this study was for research purposes only.

- **Anonymity**

Also related to confidentiality, the names and identity of the participants and their organisation were and will not be revealed in this study or its findings.

As Groves, Fowler, Couper, Lepkowski, Singer, and Tourangeau (2009) suggest, the ethical practices in survey research are set to produce valid conclusions so as to avoid plagiarism, falsification or fabrication of data. To further minimise ethical risks, the questions to be asked should not be too long since this may sometimes increase the difficulty for reviewers and potential participants to follow (Alfred Hospital, 2011). Thus shorter, and more easily read information is essential (Biggs & Marchesi, 2013).

Furthermore, as a researcher it is imperative to guard against making the participants instruments of data collection, thus disempowering them by representing a story that may harm them, their family or their community (Goodson & Gill, 2011).

Thus a concerted effort was needed to ensure that participants were protected from voicing out their concerns which may be of sensitive nature.

As such their identities were withheld at all times as a way of protecting them. These types of errors should be avoided.

The researcher adhered to good ethical practices and in doing so instilled credibility to their work, while at the same time protecting the identity of participants. The researcher received ethical clearance from the institution of higher learning as well as permission from SAFA.

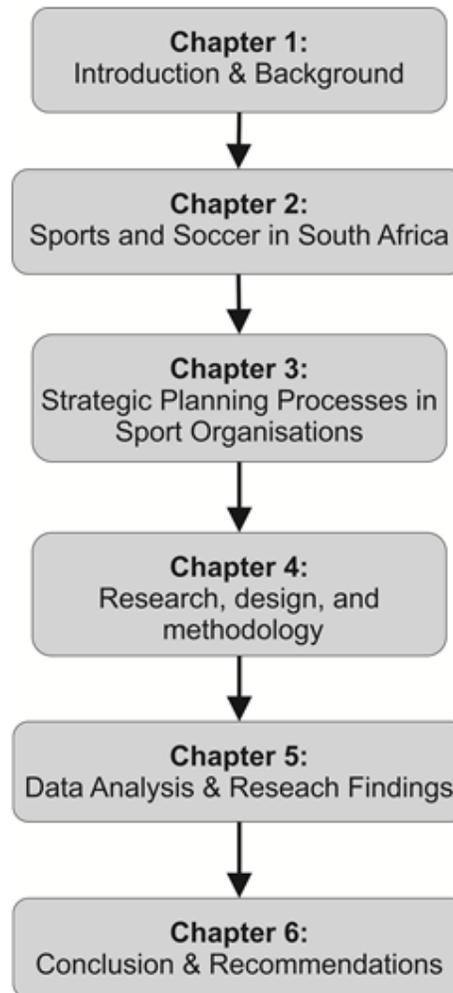
1.13 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Validity has to do with the correctness of description, explanation, interpretation, account or conclusion (Maxwell, 1996), whereas reliability deals with consistency of the findings (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007).

In that light, the researcher allayed concerns regarding the validity and reliability of the study. Consistency and correct interpretation of data was always in the mind of the researcher, with due consideration towards ensuring that the data collected is credible. This will be enhanced by the prolonged engagements of the researcher and participants and the researcher's rapport building. The researcher may continue with the engagements until saturation point, which is normally reached upon the realisation of the plummeting emergence of new themes.

1.14 CHAPTER LAYOUT

In this study, the strategic planning process employed by South African sport bodies, with particular reference to soccer clubs, were looked into. The topics: "Sports and soccer in South Africa", as well as "The strategic planning process in sports context" were explored in detail in Chapters 2 and 3, respectively. Chapter 4 dealt with the research methodology. It was followed by Chapter 5 which dealt with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of findings. The sixth and final chapter concluded by making recommendations which are expected to be valuable for further/ future studies.



CHAPTER 2: SPORT AND SOCCER IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Over the years sport has played an indispensable role in bring communities together, and also in contributing to their standard of living (Mbalula; 2010). In this chapter, the researcher will seek to report on the roles of various soccer bodies in their quest to contribute to the full potential of the sport. Also to be considered are these bodies' strategic strides and blunders which have had significant effects on South African soccer. The chapter is concluded by looking at the state of soccer in South Africa, particularly in Gauteng as the economic hub, under the stewardship of SAFA.

2.2 SPORT MINISTRY

In November 2010, His Excellency Mr Jacob Zuma, President of the Republic of South Africa appointed Honourable Mr Fikile Mbalula to become the new minister of Sport and Recreation (succeeding Rev Makhenkezi Stofile). Previous to this appointment, Mr Mbalula was the Deputy Minister of Police from 2009 to 2010. He was also the Secretary-General and President of the African National Congress Youth League from 1998 to 2004, and 2004 to 2008, respectively. Among Mr Mbalula's mandates was to monitor the transformation within and across various sporting codes, and to fast track service delivery at grassroots level. Mr Mbalula's mandate had to be translated into his vision, which subsequently set the tone of various sport summits and indabas (Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa, 2011). One of these sessions discussed, among other things, the development of soccer at SAFA regions. This is in line with the endeavours of soccer bodies such as Internationale de Football Association (FIFA), Confédération Africaine de Football (CAF), South African Football Association (SAFA) and the Premier Soccer League (PSL) [in South Africa]. We will firstly consider the dynamics of soccer from FIFA, CAF, SAFA and PSL perspectives.

2.3 INTERNATIONALE DE FOOTBALL ASSOCIATION (FIFA)

Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) is the football/soccer mother body that governs all football activities across the globe. Over the years, FIFA has always aspired to be perceived as a true representative of world football. One such aspiration became apparent when FIFA members voted in favour of a continental rotation system. This system gives all member confederations the right to host the world cup tournaments in their respective continents. The 2010 FIFA World Cup tournament in South Africa came about chiefly as a result of such a resolute rotation system.

Members belonging to the same continent have formed the following Confederations, which are recognised by FIFA:

- Confédération Africaine de Football (CAF)
- Confederación Sudamericana de Fútbol (CONMEBOL)
- Asian Football Confederation (AFC)
- Union des associations européennes de football (UEFA)
- Confederation of North, Central American and Caribbean Association Football (CONCACAF)
- Oceania Football Confederation (OFC)

Noteworthy, Oceania Football Confederation (OFC) is the smallest of all confederations. Due to its size and constituency, this confederation only has a vice-presidency position and no additional member at FIFA level.

The rest of the confederations, including CAF (of which SAFA is a member) have both a vice-presidency and additional members represented at FIFA level. For the purpose of the study the focus will mainly be on Confédération Africaine de Football (CAF), given that SAFA which is the unit of analysis is affiliated to it. These member confederations continue to serve at the pleasure of FIFA.

According to Blatter and Valcke (2013) [in their capacities as FIFA presidents and secretary general], respectively, FIFA member confederations, including CAF, enjoy the following rights: in the congress:

- to draw up proposals for inclusion in the agenda of the congress;

- to nominate candidates for the FIFA presidency
- to take part in competitions organised by FIFA;
- to take part in FIFA's assistance and development programmes;
- to exercise all other rights arising from these statutes and other regulations.

Members also have statutory obligations and the applicable regulations are stated as follows:

- to comply fully with the statutes, regulations, directives and decisions of FIFA bodies at any time, as well as the decisions of the Court of Arbitration for Sport (CAS) passed on appeal on the basis of Art. 66 par. 1 of the FIFA Statutes;
- to take part in competitions organised by FIFA;
- to pay their membership subscriptions;
- to ensure that their own members comply with the statutes, regulations, directives and decisions of FIFA bodies;
- to convene its supreme and legislative body at regular intervals, at least every two years;
- to ratify statutes that are in accordance with the requirements of the FIFA standard statutes;
- to create a referees' committee that is directly subordinate to the member;
- to respect the laws of the game;
- to manage their affairs independently
- It follows that the violation of any of obligations by any Member may lead to sanctions provided for in these statutes. These statutes provide FIFA with useful guidelines to boost its functioning and regulatory framework.

They further spell out what is expected of FIFA members, and in the process, limiting uncertainties in terms of members' rights and obligations. Furthermore, FIFA's existing structure rests on three main pillars:

“1. FIFA – even though by law still a non-profit association – is in fact a potent corporate entity. This calls for a sequence of particular governance measures developed in the corporate world.

- II. FIFA encompasses a wide spectrum of stakeholders ranging from its Member Associations to players, referees, player agents, clubs, marketing professionals, the fan community and the public at large. If this general interest does not imply legal accountability to the general public, FIFA owes it to its reputation to act as a quasi-public body. The EU and the Council of Europe expect international sports governing bodies to respect the core principles of a state of law (especially the rule of law, separation of powers, transparency, accountability and democracy). This view is shared worldwide.*
- III. In the past, the prevalent risk in the relations between FIFA and its Member Associations was conflict of interest. The current lack of state of the art conflict rules is a clear deficit.” (FIFA, 2013).*

In line with our study, attention is particularly drawn to the first pillar which relates to corporate governance. Moreover, issues such as stakeholder engagement, transparency, accountability and fairness that are inferred in the FIFA governing pillars are also related to this study. Sound strategic plans rest on all these corporate governance principles mentioned in the FIFA governing pillars. However the issues regarding conflict of interest seem to not only worry FIFA, it is also prevalent in all its formations, including CAF, SAFA and PSL. For example, some of the CAF, SAFA and PSL office bearers also own or run soccer teams which are affiliated to the same organisations (Alegi, 2010). Could this open up opportunities for abuse of power for personal gain? In 2015, the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) instituted several investigations into bribery allegations regarding the 2010, 2018 and 2022 world cup bids that were awarded to South Africa, Russia and Qatar, respectively, as well as the 2014 ticket sales scandals (Gibson, 2015). These investigations implicated certain key figures at FIFA. Some of these FIFA figures were arrested while some were suspended, resigned and even arrested. Of note, were the CONCACAF President, Jack Warner who was arrested, FIFA president, Sepp Blatter who resigned, while FIFA secretary, Jerome Valcke was suspended. (Conway, 2015).

Below is the FIFA structure charged with the responsibility of enforcing FIFA’s main pillars:

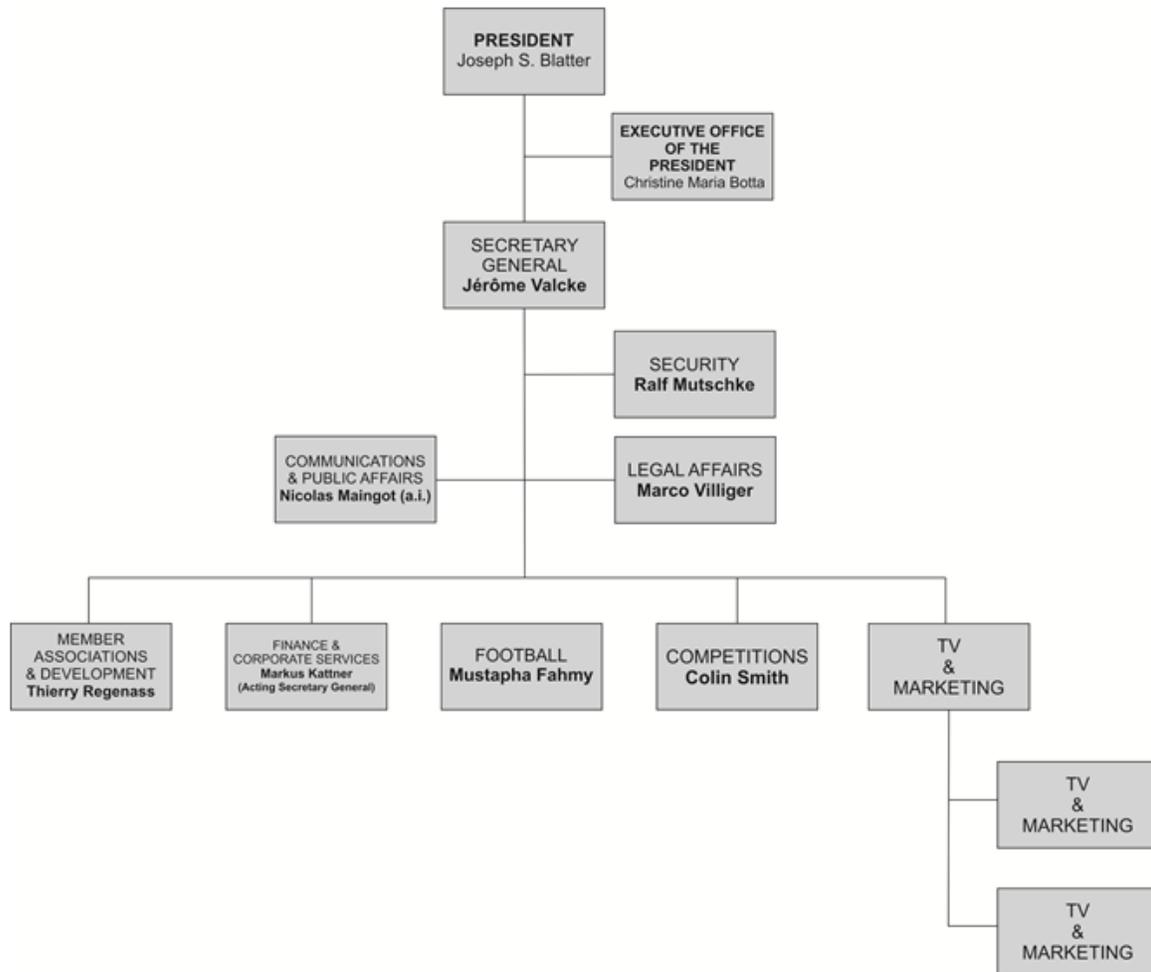


Figure 2.1: FIFA Organisation Chart

Source: FIFA

Based on the FIFA Organisation Chart for 2015 (as shown above) the following are office bearers and their chief roles: Joseph Sepp Blatter is the president of the organisation. He is responsible for all policy and governance matters of FIFA. Jerome Valcke is the organisation secretary general. Valcke is head of administration, chiefly in charge of all administration and the implementation of policies. Valcke is ably assisted by directors of PR and communications and legal affairs in Nicolas Maingot and Marco Villiger, respectively. The latter pair are responsible for, among others, finance and administration, marketing, media and membership issues.

Blatter has since tendered his resignation as president, while Valcke has been suspended. These officials are set to be replaced during 2016, even though their replacements are yet to be known.

2.3.1 FIFA history

Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) was formed in Paris, France, in 1904. FIFA was formed with the aim to foster global unity through football. Since its inception, FIFA has been served by not less than eight presidents. A summarised study of these presidents and their contribution may paint a picture of what FIFA is all about and how it affects African and subsequently, South African soccer, football structures and its management (which is the focus of this study). The following table summarises the lives, times and contributions (including visions, strategies and leadership styles) of these FIFA incumbents.

2.3.2 FIFA presidents

As will be shown by the table on the next page summarising the life, time and impact made by FIFA presidents, it is apparent that three of the eight presidents were English (Daniel Burley Woolfall, Arthur Drewry and Sir Stanley Rous, who led FIFA from 1906 to 1918, 1955 to 1961 and 1961 to 1974, respectively). Noteworthy, Sir Stanley Rous was the most successful and the longest serving (with 13 years tenure) of the three English office bearers. During his incumbency, Rous was instrumental in England hosting and winning the World Cup in 1966 which resulted in him being knighted. However, his leadership was criticised for being tolerant of racism and supporting the South African apartheid government. This led to him being substituted by the Brazilian born Dr João Havelange in 1974.

Havelange lead FIFA relatively well until his retirement from international football management in 1998. This makes him the second-longest serving FIFA president with tenure of 24 years. In 1998, Havelange was succeeded by Joseph Sepp Blatter (who was born in Switzerland). Since 1975 Blatter had served FIFA in various capacities, ranging from technical advisor to secretary general, before subsequently becoming the president of FIFA.

Table 2.1: FIFA Presidents

President	Date of birth/ death	Place of birth/ Nationality	Period of incumbency (Approximated)	Contribution/ highlights of incumbent
Robert Guerin	Born 1876, Died 1952	France	1904-1906 (two years)	A founding member of FIFA. Instrumental in the drafting of its first constitution.
Daniel Burley Woolfall	Born 1852, Died 1918	England	1906-1918 (12 years)	Forged to bring uniformity to FIFA rules among participating countries. Helped organise the first football competition and the 1908 Olympic Games in London.
Jules Rimet	Born 1873, Died 1956	France	1921-1954 (23 years)	Became the brain behind the FIFA World Cup's inception in 1930.
Rodolphe William Seeldrayers	Born 1876, Died 1955	Belgium	1954-1955 (one year)	Honoured after serving as the federation's vice president for over 27 years. Oversaw the FIFA's 50th anniversary celebrations.
Arthur Drewry	Born 1891, Died 1961	England	1955-1961 (six years)	Played the role of interim president following the death of his predecessor. Helped bring the British associations back into FIFA in 1946.
Sir Stanley Rous	Born 1895, Died 1986	England	1961-1974 (13 years)	Named Honorary FIFA President on 11 June 1974. Fell out of favour because of his support for the South African Apartheid Government.
Dr João Havelange	Born 1916	Brazil	1974-1998 (24 years)	Named Honorary FIFA President on 8 June 1998. Increased intercontinental involvement for teams from Asia, Africa, CONCACAF and Oceania.
Joseph Sepp Blatter	Born 1936	Switzerland	1998-p2015	Advocated and delivered the hosting of 2010 World Cup to African soil. This led to a focus on legacy projects for SAFA developmental structures.

Source: FIFA

Ever since taking the helm at FIFA, Blatter has been instrumental in helping South Africa in successfully staging one of the best FIFA World Cup tournaments, staged for the first time on the African continent. Blatter continues to advocate for projects, such as Middle East Football Federations (including Israel and Palestine), anti-racism, education through sport, goal line technology and anti-corruption campaigns. On the other hand, there are many allegations about the governance of FIFA, some of which accuse Blatter of irregularities and unethical conduct. Jennings (2014) suggests that Blatter's 'reform process' of world football is insincere and further claims that Blatter has changed FIFA's rules to protect himself by rigging evidence against him and in the process hired expensive but unscrupulous investigators to exonerate him at a cost of millions of dollars to FIFA. With all this in mind, Blatter's leadership style has a direct effect in the SAFA regional development structures, which form the basis of this study. Blatter resigned on 2 June 2015, just a few days after winning his fifth term in office. The pressure from various opposition parties prompted his decision (FIFA, 2015). This incident may bring into question some of the poor governance allegations levelled against FIFA.

2.4 CAF

At the 1954 FIFA Congress in Berne, Switzerland, the organisation voted in favour of recognising Africa as a confederation. In February 1957, in Khartoum, Sudan, the Confederation of African Football (CAF) was formed by Egypt, Ethiopia, South Africa and Sudan. Abdelaziz Abdallah Salem, an engineer from Egypt, became the first CAF president and African representative to the FIFA Executive Committee.

This set the tone for the inception of the Africa Cup of Nations which first took place in Khartoum, Sudan, in 1957.

Egypt became the inaugural winners thereof. South Africa, however, was denied the right to participate in this event given its political climate at that time. It was only in 1992 that South Africa (RSA) was readmitted back into the international soccer arena after showing progress towards the new political dispensation (Latakomo, 2010).

Four years later, RSA became host and went on to win the Africa Cup of Nations under the presidency and coaching and management of the late Solomon Morewa and Clive Barker, respectively. Two years later in the next CAF tournament, in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso, South Africa became runner-ups to Egypt. Ever since then, South Africa's participation in this tournament has been on the decline. In light of the above, poor succession plans, as well as poorly managed grassroots structures by football authorities could be pertinent to the state of South African soccer. As a result, there is a dire need for a better understanding of how soccer structures conduct strategic planning.

2.4.1 CAF and ethics

Hayatou and El Amrani (2012) regard the following as among the major objectives of CAF:

“To manage all forms of football by means of adopting and implementing the necessary or appropriate measures to prevent any infringements of the Statutes, Rules and Regulations as well as any decisions or directives of FIFA and CAF; inclusive of the provisions of the Laws of the Game; AND to prevent practices or procedures which may jeopardise the integrity of the players, the game, or its competitions; or give rise to any form of abuse of the game of football.”

These objectives require of CAF to exercise a high degree of governance and to possess ethical consciousness. On numerous occasions these objectives have been severely contravened through many gross acts of corruption and unethical behaviour by officials, including those from CAF (Sparre, 2006; Jennings, 2014).

Over the years CAF has been embroiled in controversies stemming from poor corporate governance practices and maladministration. To mention a few, issues such as match fixing, doping scandals, intimidation and financial mismanagement featured regularly in the public sphere over the years. As a case in point, one of the officials (Ismail Bhamjee) linked to CAF, may have contravened the rules in Article 25 of the FIFA code of ethics.

This article prohibits any official from taking part in any way, or being associated with betting, gambling, lotteries and similar events or transactions connected with football matches. For example, during the 2006 FIFA World Cup in Germany, Ismail Bhamjee, the FIFA and CAF executive member from Botswana, was exposed by a newspaper for selling tickets for matches at three times their nominal value. Bhamjee subsequently lost all his positions in African and international football (Sparre, 2006). Many Africans looked up to people like Bhamjee to help African football to take its place alongside the best in the world, much to their disappointment. On the other hand, a company called Euroteam was part of a ticket scandal at the London 2012 Olympics and at the 2010 World Cup in South Africa, which also implicated several African officials (Jennings, 2014).

These contraventions resulted in questions about the credibility of CAF as an organisation and as custodian and overseer of African soccer. These events have vilified African soccer development and made it less credible. To date, no African country has ever won the FIFA World Cup tournament at a senior level. Only the Cameroonian Under 23 soccer team ever went on to win a major tournament, namely the 2000 Olympic Games in Sydney, Australia. Two years later, in 2002, Senegal went on to reach the quarter final of the FIFA World Cup in Korea/Japan.

Poor governance and lack of proper strategic planning may be some of the hindrances for modern sport organisations (Ferkins, Shilbury & McDonald, 2005). This is why this study will consider the strategic planning processes of Gauteng soccer clubs which are linked with SAFA, which is a member of CAF and FIFA. According to Blatter and Valcke (2013) one of the main objectives of FIFA is: *“to promote integrity, ethics and fair play with a view to preventing all methods or practices, such as corruption, doping or match manipulation, which might jeopardise the integrity of matches, competitions, Players, Officials and Members or give rise to abuse of Football Association.”* In the recent past there have been several cases, especially within the European and African continents, which frustrated the gains previously achieved in realising this objective. In the African context, poor governance practices and unethical behaviour by CAF and FIFA officials seem to render these FIFA objectives unattainable.

In the context of this study, it would seem that the lack of strategic planning and governance may play a role in the relatively poor performance of African soccer on and off the field. Better governance is crucial for safeguarding sport's future, both and in Africa and beyond (Alm, 2013).

We shall now discuss the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs that are the units of analysis, as an affiliate of FIFA and the context of our analysis.

2.5 SOUTH AFRICAN FOOTBALL ASSOCIATION (SAFA)

Following many decades of segregation and isolation due to Apartheid practices, the South African Football Association (SAFA) was instituted on 23 March 1991 in Johannesburg, South Africa (Korr & Close, 2009). SAFA became an integrated structure of four previously autonomous entities, namely, the Soccer Association (SASA), South African Bantu Football Association (SABFA) the South African Soccer Federation (SASF) and the South African National Football Association (SANFA).

After a series of dialogues, SAFA decided to put in place an interim 15-member structure which was chaired by Mr Mluleki George, who served as interim chairman from 1991 to 1992. In 1992, SAFA was readmitted to CAF and granted an observer status at the Congress of the Confederation of African Football in Dakar, Senegal. Later that same year, South Africa was confirmed as a member of the world governing body, FIFA, at the FIFA Congress in Zurich.

To date, in its 22 years of existence; SAFA has had five presidents. Mr Mluleki George served as SAFA's interim chairman during 1991 until 1992. George was succeeded by Professor Lesole Gadinabokao as the first president, who served from 1992 to 1994. In 1994, the late Mr Solomon 'Stix' Morewa succeeded Gadinabokao to become SAFA's second president. It was during Morewa's tenure that South Africa successfully hosted and went on to win the CAF Africa Nation's Cup tournament. Dr Molefi Oliphant became SAFA's third president, following Morewa's resignation in January 1997. It was under Oliphant's stewardship that South Africa qualified three times to participate in the FIFA World Cup. In 2009, on the eve of South Africa's much-anticipated hosting of the FIFA Soccer World Cup, Mr Kirsten Nematandani was elected as the fourth SAFA president.

In 2013, Dr Danny Jordaan became the fifth SAFA president after winning the election he robustly contested against Mr Mandla “Shoes” Mazibuko. It is worth noting that Dr Jordaan was commissioned by SAFA to become the Chief Executive officer for the FIFA 2010 World Cup committee, the first tournament FIFA World Cup tournament on the African continent.

Under his stewardship, FIFA rated South Africa’s soccer world cup tournament as the best ever to be staged, and thereby gave it the score of eight out of ten (8/10).

2.5.1 SAFA’s Mission Statement

SAFA’s Mission Statement deals with among other things:

- Promoting and facilitating the development of football through sustainable infrastructural and training initiatives
- Engaging in proactive dialogue with the government to generate a partnership in recognition of football as a national asset
- Creating an image of being a stable, progressive and innovative institution
- Creating a mutually beneficial relationship with the corporate world
- Contributing to Africa's ascendancy in world football through the hosting of major events in Africa, while aspiring and striving to become a leading football playing nation (SAFA, 2013).

For the purpose of this study, our attention is drawn to the penultimate statement in the SAFA list above which deals with “creating a mutually beneficial relationship with the corporate world”. This has to do with accountability issues, as well the commercialisation of sport. These two aspects require proper governance structures and effective strategic planning processes (King Committee on Corporate Governance, 2009; Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011). Moreover, SAFA is responsible to provide guidelines on governance issues to its members and structures.

These guidelines are also in line with those of CAF and FIFA. One of the major responsibilities of SAFA is to have a committee which monitors and supervises the accounts of the various standing and other committees of SAFA.

This committee is also empowered to authorise the CEO to make the necessary payments after verification (South African Football Association, 2013).

It is in SAFA's quest to ensure systems of control and accountability within its structures. If such measures are in place, why have there been several allegations of financial misappropriation at SAFA? For example, special investigation unit, the Hawks, alleges that SAFA misappropriated funds from its 2010 Soccer World Cup Legacy Trust, (Ntloko, 2013).

In some instances money does not seem to serve its intended purpose (Thakali, 2011). In the next section we consider the PSL as a member of SAFA.

2.6 THE PREMIER SOCCER LEAGUE (PSL)

In 1996, what was regarded as the country's first fully-fledged soccer business corporation for professional clubs, the Premier Soccer League was established (Desai & Vahed, 2010:). This league consisted of eighteen teams, namely:

- Amazulu Football Club (FC),
- Bloemfontein Celtic FC,
- Cape Town Spurs FC,
- Hellenic FC,
- Jomo Cosmos FC,
- Kaizer Chiefs FC,
- Mamelodi Sundowns FC,
- Manning Rangers FC,
- Michau Warriors FC,
- Moroka Swallows FC,
- Orlando Pirates FC,
- QwaQwa Stars FC,
- Real Rovers FC,
- Supersport United FC,
- Umtata Bush Bucks FC,

- Vaal Professionals FC,
- Witbank Aces FC,
- Wits University FC (Motaung in Latakgomo, 2009).

The following table lists the PSL founding leadership/ Executive Committee.

Table 2.2: PSL founding leadership/Executive Committee

Name	Affiliation	PSL role
Dr Irvin Khoza	Chairman of Orlando Pirates and Vice-President of SAFA	Chairman and shareholder
Kaizer Motaung	Chairman of Kaizer Chiefs and member of SAFA committee	Financial Director and shareholder
Mato Madlala	Chairwoman of Lamontville Golden Arrows and member of SAFA committee	Shareholder
Dr Patrick Sokhela	Chairman of Amazulu	Shareholder
Mike Mokoena	Chairman of Free State Stars and member of SAFA committee	Shareholder
Goolam Allie	Chairman of Santos	Shareholder
John Comitis	Former chairman of Ajax Cape Town	Shareholder
Stanley Matthews	Chairman of Supersport United and member of SAFA committee	Marketing Director and shareholder

Source: PSL

The league's professionalism improved a great deal since its inception. The commercialisation of South African sport also affected soccer and subsequently the PSL. The financial injection through sponsorship and corporate investment contributed immensely towards the professionalism and attractiveness of the PSL. As a result, the PSL has risen to become one of the best leagues in Africa and one of the top 30 leagues in the world (Harris, 2014).

The criteria used to measure such leagues were: income and wages paid out, goals, ticket prices and attendance, talent production, managers, trophies, competitive balance and contribution to the national game (Harris, 2014).

The incentives attached to the commercialisation of the PSL aroused great interest from around the country (particularly at grassroots level) and the rest of the world. Noteworthy is the acquisition (during the 2011/2012 PSL season) of Benedict McCarthy (former senior national team [Bafana Bafana] player) by Orlando Pirates. Also the return of striker Bernard Melvin Parker to PSL proved to be beneficial for both the national team as well as Kaizer Chiefs. This noteworthy trajectory within the PSL proved that it can compete against the best leagues in the world.

Both the PSL and SAFA are set up as companies with private stewardship, rather than national bodies constituted by government or its agencies. This almost-autonomous approach may aid the PSL and SAFA to run more professionally. On the other hand, it may make them more susceptible to individual abuse and poor governance practices.

The section below provides a summary of events as outlined by Doda (2013), since the inception of the PSL in 1996. According to Doda (2013), Kaizer Chiefs (KC) is the most consistent club since the inception of the PSL.

By 2013, KC has won three league titles, finished in second place four times and finished in third place five times. KC has only lost 102 matches out of 534, while Orlando Pirates has lost 105 in the same number of matches.

Even though Mamelodi Sundowns (MS) holds the most League titles won in the PSL era – five, MS have lost 130 matches (25 more than Orlando Pirates and 28 more than Kaizer Chiefs). The analysis is based on 534 matches played by Orlando Pirates, Kaizer Chiefs and Mamelodi Sundowns each.

Is the consistency of Kaizer Chiefs in the PSL related to their strategic planning? This cannot be confirmed as a matter of fact. However, the Kaizer Chiefs Managing Director and Chairman has been praised for his strategic thinking and visionary leadership after spending over 45 years in the business of soccer (Soccer Laduma, 2015).

Gordon Igesund, the previous national team coach, is arguably the most successful coach ever, having won the PSL title four times: with Manning Rangers in 1996/97, with Orlando Pirates in 2000/01, Santos in 2001/02 and Mamelodi Sundowns in 2006/07 (Doda, 2013). The above-mentioned teams are also involved in soccer development projects at grassroots level, where some of the soccer clubs involved in this study are situated. With all these notable successes, it is important for both PSL and SAFA still have to work together to uplift regional football.

2.7 THE SAFA STRUCTURE

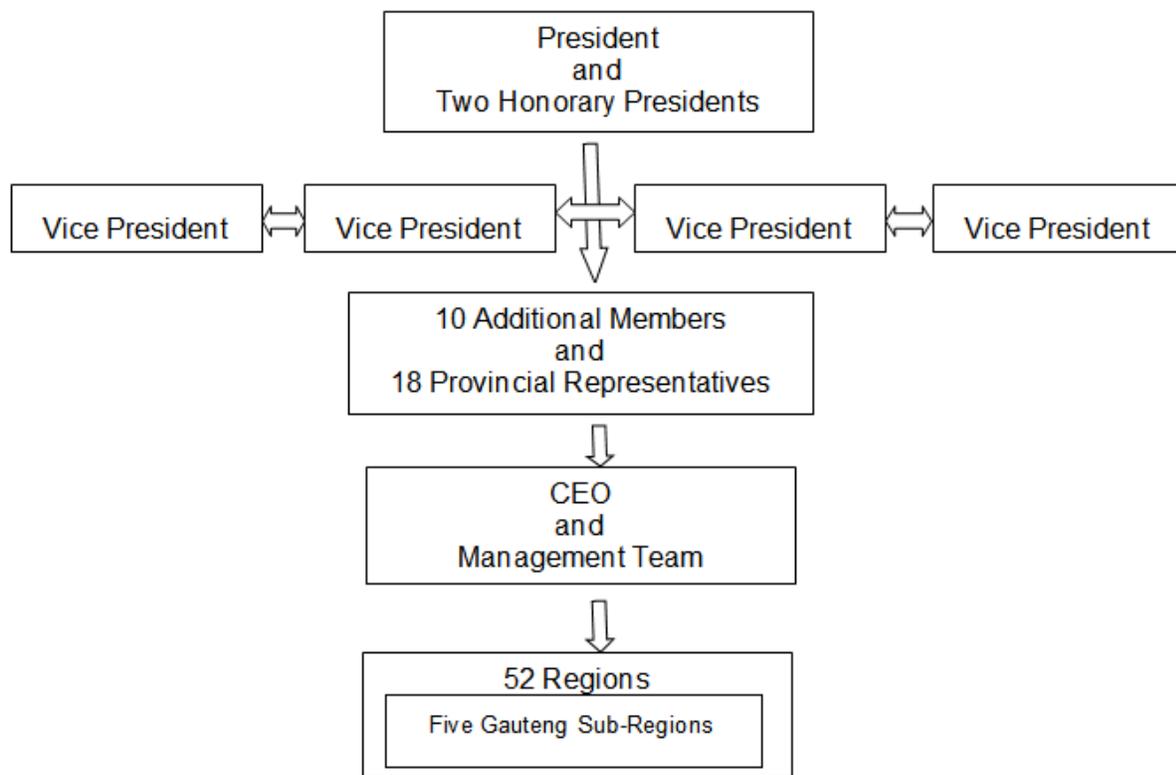


Figure 2.2: SAFA organogram/structure(s)

Source: SAFA (2013)

SAFA structures consist of the president, Dr Danny Jordaan, who is the supreme head of policy. There are also two honorary presidents in Dr Molefi Oliphant and Prof Lesole Gadinabokao who provide advice and guidance to the current leadership.

It further consists of four vice-presidents, namely, Chief Mwel0 Nonkonyana (suspended in October 2014), Mr Lucas Nhlapo, Mr Elvis Shishana and Dr Irvin Khoza. These vice-presidents work closely with the president on issues of policy and governance.

There are also 10 additional members who serve on various standing committees. Moreover, 18 Provincial representatives from nine provinces (two from each province) seek to act as links between the national and provincial structures.

Taking over from Reverend Robin Petersen as Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the organisation, is Mr Dennis Mumble. The CEO is the head of administration and together with his management team they are responsible for the administrative organs ranging from finance, marketing and operations. Moreover, there are 52 regions which are based at grassroots level, responsible for igniting soccer development within their immediate communities. Within these regions lie the five Gauteng regions on which this study will focus (SAFA, 2013).

Over the years, SAFA has worked to provide football structures at all levels within the South African community. Albeit, there is an issue of uneven participation of men in proportion to women in soccer, both in South Africa and globally (Blatter & Valcke, 2013). For many years women soccer has been peripheral as compared to that of men and a lot still needs to be done to address this matter (SAFA, 2013). There is still lack of income for most soccer players, especially women at grass-roots levels, and this affects the level of commitment and overall professionalism. Some improvements occurred when SASOL and ABSA took charge of sponsoring women-only soccer league (Latakomo, 2010).

SAFA enlisted more than 7 000 qualified coaches to do developmental work within its 52 regions country-wide. It is further envisaged that more regions will emerge in accordance with municipal demarcations. The Gauteng province thus consists of six regions in Tshwane, Greater Johannesburg, Ekurhuleni, Sedibeng, West Rand and Metsweding.

At the time of the fieldwork there was no available structure to liaise with in the Metsweding region. As such for both greater Johannesburg and Tshwane an extra one participant was added as a replacement for Metsweding region.

The lack of clarity regarding SAFA's strategic and administrative initiatives at regional and club levels is a matter of concern. It is due to this gap that opportunities for research and development become imperative (Thakali, 2011) Yet still, more needs to be discovered in terms of how soccer clubs can best partake in improving the quality of soccer in South Africa (Alegi, 2010). It is for this reason that the study be undertaken towards the incorporation of the strategic planning processes in local soccer. In this study, the involvement of the soccer clubs in strategic planning processes as they go about the business of sport are being explored. This matter will be addressed at SAFA regions in Gauteng.

The 52 SAFA regions are entrusted with identifying and nurturing soccer talent in South Africa. In this regard they have a strategic role to play in the future of the sport.

Yet over the years, funding and proper infrastructure at soccer grassroots levels have been hard to come by (Thakali, 2011). This has resulted in a lack of sufficient development of soccer graduates (unable to play in professional leagues) who are equipped to support, supply and act as feeders for the professional soccer league and senior national teams. This state of affairs is still viewed as a hindrance towards the development of South African soccer (Alegi, 2010; Thakali, 2011).

It was mainly through the hosting of the 2010 World Cup that development of South African soccer received long-awaited attention. The 2010 World Cup provided for what was called the legacy projects. These legacy projects were about, among other things, developing abandoned soccer and other infrastructure in disadvantaged communities. The Gauteng SAFA regions where this study is to be undertaken and the disadvantaged communities are also situated among these regions. Moreover, these legacy projects were launched to ease the burden of underdevelopment in many soccer-loving communities.

This has certainly improved the soccer development prospects across the country. Some of the legacy projects benefitions included: artificial pitches, stadia, road networks, residential housing, administrative offices, soccer equipment, transport means, finances and many more. However, there is still a need to put coordinated 'legacy' plans in place to try and capitalise on any of the potential benefits of the 2010 World Cup (Mbalula, 2010). There are also soft issues such as social cohesion and social inclusion which the country (especially the previously depressed communities) realised.

The 'legacy audit' report has been commissioned by the Ministry of Sport and Recreation. This has been divided into two broad categories of legacies: tangible legacies and intangible legacies.

Tangible legacies (also called hard issues) include physical infrastructure (for example roads, stadia, sports labs, sports houses, fan parks and dream fields), economic outcomes and greening initiatives (by the national department of Environmental Affairs, City of Johannesburg and other host cities).

Intangible legacies (also called soft issues) deal with the social and ecological impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and include contributions to the image of the country, social cohesion and nation building, ecological sustainability and skills transfer (Mbalula, 2010).

The 'legacy audit' report will also seek to survey links between 2010 World Cup and the development objectives of the country, as the 2010 World Cup has been widely envisaged as a catalyst for development in South Africa. How these legacy projects fully affect ordinary communities, especially the SAFA regions, remains to be fully uncovered (SAFA, 2013).

2.8 CONCLUSION

In this chapter we reported on the state of sport and soccer in South Africa and the rest of the world. Problems with governance and the management of soccer are themes that consistently appeared in the narrative around world, regional and local soccer structures. These lapses in governance and leadership arguably stem from a lack of proper strategic management processes and poor adherence to corporate governance principles. All these concerns vindicate the need for strategic planning and thereby make it an indispensable tool for soccer development. It is accordingly, important to study and understand the extent to which soccer clubs at grassroots level engage in strategic planning and proper governance structures to enact their mandate of creating the future of soccer in South Africa.

In the following chapter the strategic planning process in general, and in the sports context in particular, will be examined.

CHAPTER 3: THE STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESS IN SPORT ORGANISATIONS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of the theoretical foundations of strategic planning and the extant research on strategic planning in general, and sports organisations in particular. The chapter starts off by providing a general discussion of the two major perspectives i to the strategic planning process: the process (prescriptive or traditional) and the emerging (also known as future or non-formalised) perspectives (Lynch, 2012; Lazenby, 2014; Lynch, 2012; Suarez-Serrano & Pina-Mavarez, 2011; Mintzberg, Ahlstrand & Lampel, 2005; Vera & Crossan, 2004; Venter, 2014). Following the discussion of these contrasting approaches, the extant research will be reviewed. Given the focus of the study, this chapter will also focus on strategic planning and sport organisations, in this case soccer clubs.

3.2 STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESSES

Bivainis, and Tunčikienė (2005) suggest that strategic planning is characterised by sufficient foresight of the future, systemic complexity, large possibilities of formalisation, and stable consistency in the planning steps. However, this description of strategic planning may have omitted the emergence of informal strategic processes and issues of strategic flexibility (Young-Ybarra & Wiersema, 1999; Grant, 2003). Louw and Venter (2013) also view strategic planning as the means to arrive at an agreed view of how the enterprise will succeed in the future. The means to arrive at this agreed view can also be regarded as the strategic planning process (David, 2011).

Hassan (2010) identifies the two major characteristics of formal planning processes as follows:

- **Formality**

Formality has to do with the degree to which the norms of the organisation are explicitly defined. Nevertheless, in certain instances plans are seldom formally followed, especially in small enterprises. Furthermore, formal strategies are often developed at informal levels during their initial stages (This aspect has also been mentioned by Hodgkinson, Whittington, Johnson & Schwarz, 2006). For example, a particular strategic decision may first be conceptualised informally before it finds formal resonance and approval in a boardroom.

- **Degree of stakeholder involvement in strategic planning efforts**

The degree of involvement is often proportionate to the degree of one's interest in an organisation. As a result, stakeholder engagement is often encouraged when strategic issues are discussed and formulated (This aspect has also been mentioned by King Committee on Corporate Governance, 2009). If this approach is followed, the stakeholders' buy-in instead of their resistance will be realised. For example, Morton (2013:21) suggests that when employees are consulted through regular meetings, this creates opportunities for positive feedback and ideas. These efforts are generally undertaken by strategists where a number of essential dimensions for rational decision making are considered. Aspects such as environmental analysis are also considered. Moreover, decision making thus occurs with due regard to the environmental analysis findings (This aspect has also been mentioned by Lynch, 2012; Lee, Lo, Leung & Ko, 2000).

Grant (2003) attempts to reconcile the systematic strategic planning processes with issues such as turbulence, complexity and the unpredictability of the business environment being discussed. In this case the following are regarded as key tools to consider to that effect:

- **Scenario planning**

According to Peterson, Cumming and Carpenter (2003) scenario planning is a framework for developing more resilient policies and solutions when organisations are confronted with uncontrollable, irreducible and uncertain market conditions. This tool is required by the organisation to not only predict the future, but configure key environmental variables. It would appear that scenario planning is able to propel the organisation to consider strategic alternatives and thereby foster strategic flexibility which enables it to create option values.

- **Strategic intent and the role of vision**

The strategic direction tools such as vision and mission statements are useful in providing change and embracing clarity whenever uncertainty seeks to prelude planning (This aspect has also been mentioned by Hamel & Prahalad, 1989; Pearce & Robinson, 2013). As a result, strategic and overarching goals are thus required to be in place, and the latter could be articulated through the vision and mission statements.

- **Strategic innovation**

The term “strategic innovation” refers to the credentials and profiles of participants in the strategic planning process. For example, Hamel (2000) suggests that when inferences are made regarding the link between youthfulness and innovativeness, this might encourage organisations to move towards involving younger and more energetic personnel in the strategic planning process.

- **Complexity vs self-organisation**

These two concepts emerge as a result of the complex nature of the business environment which compels the organisation to self-organise. The entire organisation’s unsystematic and informal processes receive conceptual reinforcement from the complexity theory which requires the organisation to be adaptive.

The section above served to explain the typical characteristics of systematic strategic planning processes. This is but one of the lenses through which the strategic planning process can be viewed. Strategic planning may generally encompass direction setting, environmental analysis and the making of strategic choices. Moreover, there are various approaches to strategic planning. In this study both the process and emergent approaches will be taken into account.

3.2.1 The traditional strategic planning process

Strategic planning from the traditional perspective suggests that strategy is a linear, structured and organised process (Lynch, 2012). It further suggests that each strategic planning process component depends on the other before it can be considered (Lazenby, 2014). However, there are various authors who hold different views (Mintzberg, Ahlstrand & Lampel: 2005, Venter, 2014). This section will seek to address the various strategic planning components in strategic direction (vision, mission and strategic intent), environmental (external and internal) analysis, strategic objectives (long-term goals), as well as strategic choices. These are outlined in Figure 3.1 and discussed in the sections that follow.

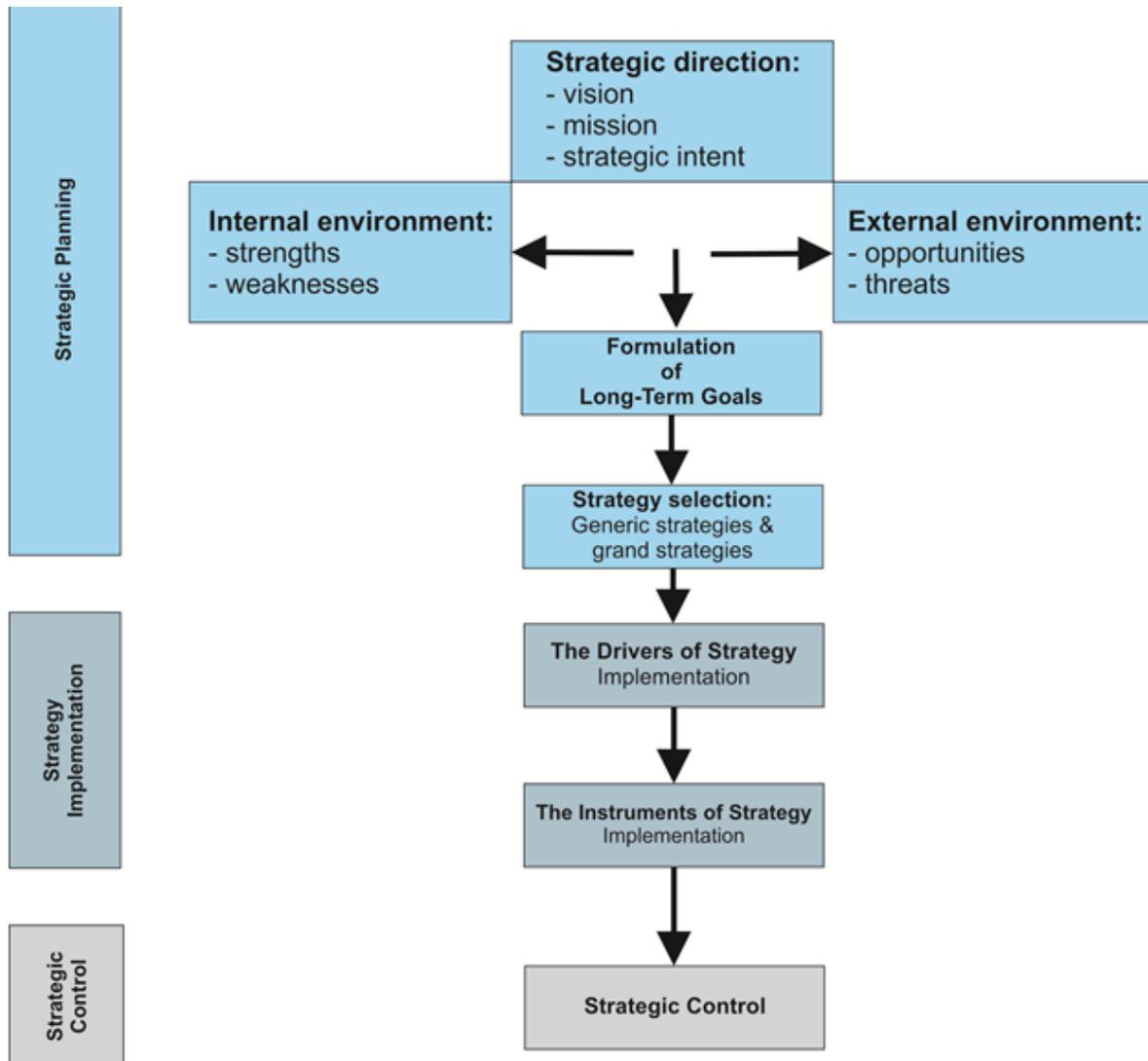


Figure 3.1: The strategic management process

Source: Adapted from Ehlers and Lazenby (2010), Robbins, DeCenzo & Coulter (2012)

The diagram above depicting the strategic management process suggests that strategy is divided into three phases, namely, strategic planning, strategy implementation and strategic control (Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010). Within these three phases lie the various process components. Strategic planning consists of establishing the strategic direction wherein the vision and mission strategic intent occur. This is followed by the internal and external environmental analysis. The long-term goals component completes this phase. The second phase of strategy implementation deals with the various instruments and drivers which bring strategy into action.

Within the strategic control phase, organisations make efforts to evaluate their strategic plans and actions; this with the view to take corrective measures where necessary (Robbins, DeCenzo & Coulter, 2012). The components making up the strategic management process are discussed in detail below.

3.2.1.1 Strategic direction

According to the process approach, the determination of the strategic direction is normally the first step of the strategic planning process. It sets the tone for where the organisation seeks to be in future and how it will get there. According to O'Regan and Ghobadian (2004) the strategic direction makes reference to an ideal future but also paves a realistic picture of the current status quo in terms of the organisation. That said, Barney (2003) refers to the current reality in terms of resources, capabilities, competencies and assets. The latter aspects referred to by Barney (2003) seem to focus on the issue of performance which could yield results promised in the strategic direction (Adnan, Staden & Hay, 2010; Amran, Periasamy & Zulkafli, 2011).

As a result, it addresses survival and sustainability issues relevant to the organisation. It mainly consists of two tools in the form of the vision and mission statements, which when combined, are also referred to as the strategic intent (Singh, Darwish & Anderson, 2012).

These two strategic direction tools as well as the strategic intent will be briefly discussed in the section below.

Vision statement

A vision is regarded as a pivotal tool which charismatic leaders use to gain and maintain power through their influence on followers, and these must be reflected in their vision statements (Kirkpatrick, Wofford & Baum, 2002; Sosik & Dinger, 2007). A vision answers the question regarding what the organisation wants to become (Blair-Loy, Wharton & Goodstein, 2011). Relevant to this point, Cartwright and Baldwin (2006) are of the view that "A vision is able to describe some achievement or some future state that the organisation will accomplish or realise.

A vision differs from a mission statement, which explains an organisation's reasons for existence or for seeking its objectives (Cartwright & Baldwin, 2006). It can thus be regarded as an ideal destination.

Lord (2011) suggests that a vision offers stakeholders, particularly customers, a glimpse of what the future of the organisation will look like. It is thus generally accepted that a vision statement should set the tone for the development of the mission statement (as the latter focuses on the organisation's core business).

In a nutshell, the content of the vision statement ought to be inspirational and instrumental in influencing those who are pursuing it (Strange & Mumford, 2002; Sosik & Dinger, 2007). As a derivative of the vision statement, the mission statement will be discussed next.

Mission statement

The mission statement is often derived from the vision statement. It is referred to as a statement of purpose (Barney & Hesterly, 2012) which describes the scope of business and is also useful to answer the question of how the vision is to be achieved. Amato and Amato (2002), in Williams (2008), suggest that mission statements address stakeholders, including a firm's management, employees, customers or clients, shareholders, and other residents of the communities. Predominantly, the mission statement addresses the primary activities, such as product(s)/service(s), market(s) and technologies used by the organisation in question. There are also additional components to mission statements, as will be discussed in the paragraph below.

These components can include organisational self-concept, survival and sustainability issues, growth and profitability, the organisation's philosophy, public image, customers and quality issues. Mullane, (2002) in David & David (2003) heightens the mission statement as a strategic tool but cautions that it is only effective if it is properly used. This means that the mission statement could be used by the organisation to strategically position itself within the market. From the mission statement, the organisation is able to develop its long-term goals (Ehlers & Lazenby 2010; Lynch, 2012; Barney & Hesterly, 2012).

Williams (2008) seeks to heighten the importance of mission statements in spelling out the scope of business within an organisation and as an expression of goodwill. Moreover, the mission statement provides a rationale for allocating resources (David, 2007). The strategic intent which contains elements of both statements will be discussed next.

3.2.1.2 Strategic intent

While most organisations do have vision and mission statements, some also have a statement of strategic intent. Some organisations refer to only strategic intent, while others include all three strategic direction tools. Louw and Venter (2013) regard strategic intent as the first indispensable step in the strategic planning process, which envisions the desired leadership position. A statement of strategic intent may contain a combination of elements of both the vision and the mission statements (Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010:77).

Rui and Yip (2008) credit strategic intent with the desire to inspire the organisation to acquire its strategic capabilities so as to offset its weaknesses while at the same time leveraging its unique advantages.

Leaders of organisations can use it as a tool to embrace change and chart a sense of direction (Peace and Robinson, 2013).

Strategic intent thus requires the constant examination of key stakeholder relationships so as to reinforce the organisation's standing (Worthington & Patton, 2005).

It follows that strategic intent creates a sense of urgency for all those involved (Hamel & Prahalad, 1996 making it difficult for complacency to set in. Singh, Darwish and Anderson (2012) also state that strategic intent is about three major attributes: sense of direction, sense of discovery and sense of destiny, which positively stimulates the attitudes and practices of the organisation's stakeholders. These strategic direction tools must be executed with due regard to governance issues.

3.2.2 Environmental analysis

Oreja-Rodríguez and Yanes-Estévez (2007) view the consideration of the environment as one of the major steps in all the strategic planning processes of an organisation. The organisation has to deal with internal and external environmental forces which affect it, both directly and indirectly.

This suggests that there is an interdependent relationship between the organisation and its environments (Thompson & Martin, 2010). In order to function well, the organisation needs to analyse its environments.

Moreover, both the direct and indirect influence of environmental uncertainty on the strategy performance needs to be considered (Parnell, 2013). As a result, environmental analysis can help the organisation to plan better, optimally allocate its resources, work towards realising a competitive advantage, and to acknowledge its shortcomings that require action.

The rationale for internal and external environmental analysis will be briefly discussed in this section. The reasons for environmental analysis are:

- For the organisation to plan, prepare and organise better, (Ehlers & Lazenby 2010; Lynch, 2012).
- Due to the dynamic nature of the environment organisations are required to adapt at a rapid pace. Aspects such as globalisation, cosmopolitan consumers and technological advances do not make it easier for modern organisations to remain strategically relevant (Peace & Robinson, 2007).
- The interdependency of the organisation and its environment means environmental changes affect the actions of the organisation, and vice versa.
- To pave the way for the selection and implementation of strategies that are responsive to environmental needs.
- The environmental analysis gaps and opportunities are to be identified and responded to in such a manner that would yield maximum competitive advantage.

- To become realistic about the organisation's level of optimism. Resources are limited and not all markets and strategies can be pursued. An organisation must thus be able to target markets that have a better fit with the organisation's resources and where the organisation has a better opportunity to realise its strategic objectives.
- Internal environmental analysis seeks to identify and rectify the organisation's weaknesses (which may hinder strategic success) and in the process builds on its strengths (which may yield strategic success).
- Opportunities and threats which emerge from the external environmental analysis should be seized and mitigated against, respectively, so as to pursue the organisation's competitiveness and strategic success.

Having discussed the rationale for performing an environmental analysis in general terms, it is worth noting that the macro environment is a broad environment which affects both the industry and subsequently the internal or operating environment (Pearce & Robinson, 2013; David, 2011). The external environment will thus be discussed in the section below.

3.2.2.1 External environmental analysis

The main purpose of an external environmental analysis is to identify opportunities and threats in the macro- and industry environments. These environments are generally beyond the organisation's control (Grant, 2003; David, 2011; Wei-Hin, Kadzrina-Abdul & Abdul-Manaf, 2014).

Furthermore, Wei-Hin, Kadzrina-Abdul and Abdul-Manaf (2014) suggest that environmental scanning more often than not would prologue strategic planning but is a necessary process which could allow an organisation to weigh up its external environmental factors (opportunities & threats) against its resources and capabilities.

This is where opportunities, which are about favourable situations in an organisation's environments, as well as threats, which deal with unfavourable conditions within an organisation's environments, are considered (David, 2011).

In efforts to remain relevant and sustainable the organisation needs to constantly analyse its external (industry and macro) environment and to ensure that its strategies are aligned with the external environment. .

Pearce and Robinson (2013) describe the macro-environmental variables as listed in tabular form below:

Political/ Legal environment	This is where the legislative frameworks govern the existence and functioning of organisations. In this instance, aspects such as the political climate, laws and bills certainly do play a role in how business may be conducted.
Economic/ Financial environment	In this instance, sub-variables such as interest rate, unemployment and inflation may pose a serious challenge in how the organisation positions and repositions itself so as to remain relevant and thereby avoid running out of business.
Ecological/ Physical environment	<p>This deals with the physical environment. Its key sub-variables are among others, the availability of natural resources and the adherence to environmental laws. Authorities may in this instance punish the violators of environmental laws and also reward those who comply.</p> <p>This means that in the future, organisations will need to see environmental improvement as an economic and competitive opportunity rather than as a threat of doing business (Worthington & Patton, 2005).</p>
Socio-cultural environment	<p>In this instance the country's demographics, languages and cultures are key areas of focus.</p> <p>Also noteworthy, are the roles religion and culture as well as social ills may play (such as inequality, pandemics, and lack of</p>

	family structures) which may affect the organisation's interaction with its various social entities.
Technological environment	The level of innovation, expertise and scientific skills play a major role in this instance. For example, nowadays the growing interest in social media has significantly changed how organisations interact with their environment(s). Moreover, many telecommunications organisations have entered the consumer markets, thereby changing the way society interacts.
International environment	The increase in the global economy has necessitated the desire for organisations to become global citizens. An organisation may be compelled to consider aspects such as foreign investments and cultures to remain in existence. This sub-variable may come with its own opportunities and threats.

These macro-environmental variables affect the industry environment, which subsequently affects the organisation.

The widely accepted Porter's five forces model best explains the competitive forces in an industry and their effect on industry players (Pearce & Robinson, 2013). According to Pearce and Robinson (2013) these five forces plus one (where government is an additional force) can be grouped into the following as illustrated by the figure below:

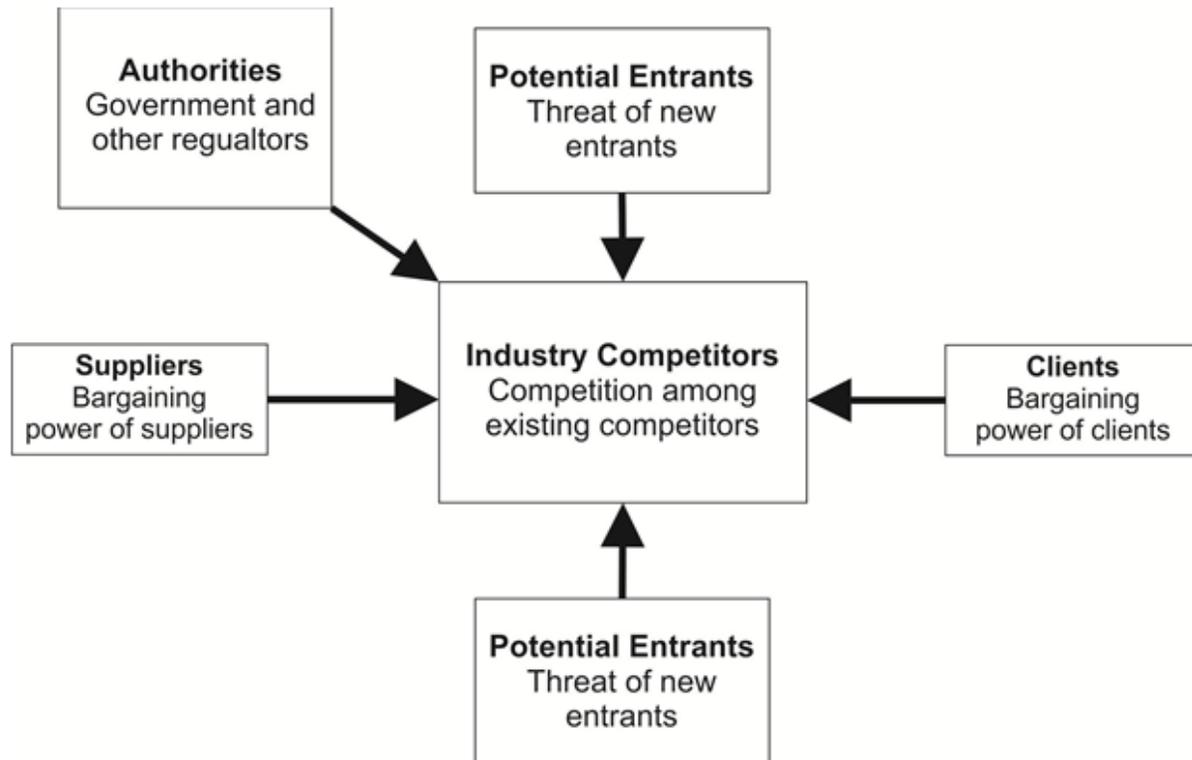


Figure 3.2: The Porter's Five Forces model for industry analysis

Source: Adapted from Porter (1979); Pearce & Robinson (2013)

Each of these will be discussed in the section below.

- **Threat of new entrants**

These new organisations may threaten the survival of existing ones. The existing organisations may be protected by barriers to entry which may discourage the emerging organisations.

- **Bargaining power of suppliers**

Suppliers may have more bargaining power where there is a greater interdependence between clients and suppliers. Suppliers are generally in short supply for soccer clubs.

- **Bargaining power of clients**

This is generally realised when dealing with clients or supporters who are price sensitive and are smaller in size and concentration. It is widely known that South African clients are price sensitive and very opinionated; this makes it difficult for soccer clubs to enjoy the measure of support they might wish for.

- **Competition among existing organisations**

The competition between organisations within an industry may be affected by, among others, access to resources and the nature of the client base, to name a few. This might result in a cut-throat type of competition.

- **Threat of substitute products**

The availability of information may increase the access that sophisticated clients have to alternative products or services. In the soccer context, the growing interest in alternative sporting codes, such as cricket and rugby, can cause soccer to become vulnerable to loss of support and following. This may result in loss of revenue and affect the continued existence of organisations.

- **Authorities/Government (as a sixth force)**

Initially, the Porter's five forces merely consisted of the above forces (Porter, 1979) and this may have ignored an important industry player -the authorities. Through government intervention, regulations are often imposed which may directly or indirectly affect other industry players (Madlala, 2014).

Strategic group analysis is another widely accepted analysis tool that may assist organisations in identifying opportunities and threats in the industry.

According to Suarez-Serrano and Pina-Mavarez (2011) strategic groups, as an environmental analysis tool, dates back to the 1970s during which period it became imperative to conduct a sector or industry evaluation. Porter (1979) and Suarez-Serrano and Pina-Mavarez (2011) define the term "strategic group" as a group of organisations in an industry following the same or a similar strategy within the strategic dimensions of the analysis.

Arpita (2013) regards strategic groups as rival organisations with a similar scope and resource commitments. Thus, competitor analysis in this instance should centre on market commonalities as well as similarities in the resources of competing organisations (Upson, Ketchen, Connelly & Ranft, 2012). This requires that similar strategic patterns within the industry must be investigated, identified and planned around. Moreover, it is required of the strategist to accordingly delimit the strategic dimensions of the competing organisations, and this has to be done without delay, given the dynamic nature of the business environment (Mas, Nicolau & Ruiz, 2005).

Over the years the new approach to strategic groups became that of looking at barriers of entry, and movement of growth within an industry (Gonzalez & Ventura, 2006; Suarez-Serrano & Pina-Mavarez, 2011). This approach thus provides certain similarities when compared to the Porter's five forces model (Pearce & Robinson, 2013). Organisations may also utilise real option theory when seeking to forge network relationships that can resolve issues with regard to arranging the details of collaborative efforts with industry participants (Lee, Feiock & Lee, 2012).

There are a great many tools that are useful for external environmental analysis, but a complete overview of the strategic analysis tools falls outside of the scope of this study. In the next section, the internal environments will be discussed.

3.2.2.2 Internal environmental analysis

This environment is also sometimes referred to as the immediate or micro environment and is generally under the organisation's control. The main purpose of the internal environment analysis is to identify the organisation's strengths and weakness. A strength is a resource or capability available to an organisation that gives it a competitive advantage relative to its rivals. A weakness is a limitation or deficiency in one or more of an organisation's resources or capabilities relative to its rivals.

With that in mind, an organisation has a direct influence in its decisions, and the resources they use to implement their processes. To function well, an organisation needs to continuously analyse its immediate environment (Channon, 2006; Rossouw, Le Roux & Groenewald, 2007).

This can help the organisation to plan its resource allocation and processes and thereby remain in existence.

Various assessment tools and theories may be essential when dealing with an internal environmental analysis. While an exhaustive overview of the tools for internal environmental analysis is once again outside of the scope of this study, there are three widely accepted tools which enable strategists to identify the strengths and weaknesses of an organisation.

Firstly, there is the SWOT analysis which identifies strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. Tafti, Jahani and Emami (2012) also identify the SWOT analysis as one of the tools for analysing the organisation's internal and external environments. On the other hand, Trainer (2004) considers the SWOT analysis as the centre or heart of strategic planning. It follows that a SWOT analysis can help the organisation in its quest to outperform its rivals and thereby realise a sustainable competitive advantage (Rossouw, Le Roux & Groenewald, 2007; Lynch, 2012).

A SWOT analysis, however, is often regarded as static analysis in a dynamic environment (Lazenby, 2014), hence proving inadequate a tool to be utilised in isolation (Lee, *et al.*, 2000). It follows that Lee, *et al.* (2000) also advocate for a combination of environmental analytical tools to be utilised within organisations.

Secondly, the resource-based view (RBV), seeks to categorise resources into tangible, intangible and organisational capabilities (which refers to skills, experience and talents of personalities) (Barney & Hesterly, 2012). Furthermore, King (2007) and Barney and Hesterly (2012) agree that RBV is an organisational model which focuses on resources and capabilities as drivers of competitive advantage.

The strengths and weaknesses of each resource are taken into consideration and their worth within the organisation is thus thoroughly audited. These resources are deemed to have direct and indirect implications on the organisation's performance.

In contrast, Hoopes, Madsen and Walker (2003) as well as Herrmann (2005) believe that RBV offers little guidance on the key questions that should be asked on how resources can offer strategic value and competitive advantage. This means that it is prudent for an organisation not to be over-reliant on this tool alone.

Finally, the value chain analysis (VCA) assists the organisation to categorise its activities into primary activities (which deal with the physical creation of products and/or services) and secondary activities (which entail support processes) (Porter, 1985; David, 2011). With that in mind, David (2011) also further elaborates that VCA differs from industry to industry and from one organisation to the next.

Research has also revealed that VCA complements the RBV's examination of the organisation's assets, resources and capabilities (David, 2011). The three tools discussed above, seem to dominate strategic management literature and thus appear to constitute the core of internal environmental analysis methods which an organisation may employ (Lazenby, 2014; Lynch, 2012; David, 2011).

From a process perspective, once the environmental analysis has been completed, the long-term goals may be set. These goals may be set with due regard of the environmental analysis findings. The next section discusses the setting of the long-term goals.

3.2.3 Setting long-term goals (LTGs)

From a process viewpoint, once the internal and external environments have been analysed, the organisation can develop long-term goals (Lee, *et al.*, 2000). According to Lazenby (2014:330) the long-term goals are used by organisations to project their long range intentions, typically for five to 10 years.

LTGs are generally derived from the mission statement and should be measurable, realistic but challenging, understandable and congruent (Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010).

Although the mission statement is a broad statement of purpose, the long-term goals, also referred to as strategic objectives, are much more specific as they entail measurable targets (Barney & Hesterly, 2012).

Good LTGs should be specific (which address the questions of what and when), measurable (the questions of how and when are important), attainable (must not set difficult goals), realistic (this is likely to serve as motivation) and time-bound (Rossouw, Le Roux & Groenewald, 2007, Pearce & Robinson, 2013).

LTGs are necessary to provide direction, allow synergy, aid in strategy evaluation, establish priorities, reduce uncertainty, minimise conflicts and assist in the allocation of resources and jobs.

3.2.4 Making strategic choice(s)

The choice of a strategy will differ from one organisation to the next, as well as from industry to industry. Likewise, the choice of a strategy determines how the organisation feels it will best achieve its strategic objectives. Thompson and Martin (2010), as well as Louw and Venter (2013) consider the following to be essential criteria for strategic choices as they provide guidelines for evaluating strategies.

- Appropriateness

Appropriateness looks at how an organisation can respond to the needs of the environment through its chosen strategy and given the resources available. That is why Mackay and Chia (2013) warn organisations to guard against the unintended consequences of strategic choices which may do more harm than good.

- Feasibility

Feasibility, on the other hand, addresses the question of timing and the availability of resources, especially financial resources. For instance, the effect of a strategic decision on supply chain relationships is to be carefully considered (Jones, Fawcett, Wallin, Fawcett & Brewer, 2014).

- Desirability

Desirability deals with the ability of the strategy to satisfy the organisation's objectives and the stakeholder's preferences (This aspect has also been mentioned by Arnott, 2006).

- Validity

This requires meaningful and grounded calculations and assumptions of the strategy in question (This aspect has also been mentioned by Lynch, 2012).

It follows that this should be based on credible business information. To this end, there are many modern tools to assist organisations in this regard (This aspect has also been mentioned by Pearson & Wegner, 2013).

- Attractiveness to stakeholders

The stakeholders' belief systems play a role in what can be perceived as attractive strategic options (This aspect has also been mentioned by Arnott, 2006). Moreover, due to its aim to remain sustainable, an organisation cannot afford to disregard its stakeholders which also have an impact on its strategic choices.

- Consistency

This aspect deals with the importance of establishing whether the strategy to be chosen is in line with and does not deviate from the initial strategic intent and strategic objectives of the organisation. This also requires stakeholders' engagement and constant reflection into the strategic direction and objectives of the organisation (This aspect has also been mentioned by Sidhu, 2003).

In the same way, Kaplan, Murray and Henderson (2003) affirm that there is a connection between strategy process and the executive's mental model of the environment that should form the basis for strategic choice. Karamehmedovic and Bredmar (2013) also regard strategic choice-making as being subject to managerial experience and prevailing market opportunities.

This in essence means that managers rely on their knowledge about environmental conditions when making strategic choices. It follows that any changes in the environmental conditions could have a significant impact on the type of strategies to be followed. For example, during an economic recession an organisation may have to employ defensive strategies to survive.

Like other managerial actions, the strategic planning process may be subjected to cognitive bias, which has to do with what managers prefer, believe and their perceptions about reality (Arnott, 2006).

Once again, a detailed discussion of all the possible strategic choices does not fall within the scope of this study. However, at the level of individual organisations, the generic business level strategies are perhaps the most appropriate and will be briefly outlined below.

3.2.5 The generic strategies

Four generic strategies are widely recognised by various authors (among others, Ehlers, & Lazenby, 2010; Wheelen & Hunger, 2012), namely, low-cost leadership, differentiation, focus and best cost strategies. Porter's idea of successful businesses focuses on low-cost providers or niche-players within the market (Kim & Mauborgne, 2005; Kim & Mauborgne, 2014). These generic strategies are propositions by Porter to provide an organisation with a competitive edge, even within a saturated market space. The four generic strategies are briefly explained below:

- **Focus**

The focus strategy (also referred to as a niche strategy) is based on adopting a narrow competitive scope within the industry (Votoupalova, Toulova & Kubickova, 2014). Focus strategies grow market share through operating in a niche market or markets not attractive to, or overlooked by, larger competitors who may happen to have left exploitable gaps (Leitner & Guldenberg, 2010). These niches arise from a number of factors including geography, buyer characteristics, product specifications, or buyer requirements. Porter (1979) suggests that a successful focus strategy depends upon an industry segment large enough to have good growth potential but not of key importance to major competitors.

This seems to suggest that focus strategies are ideal for organisations with limited resources and in niches where higher returns can be realised (Leitner & Guldenberg, 2010).

- **Differentiation**

Differentiation consists of the creation of differences in the organisation's product or service offering by creating something that is perceived as unique and valued by customers relative to those of its rivals ; Barney & Hestely, 2012, Votoupalova, Toulova & Kubickova, 2014). It follows that differentiation could take the form of prestige or brand, technology & innovation, rapid response, product reliability, a unique taste and customer service; attributes that customers are willing to pay a premium price for (Kim & Wang, 2014). An organisation seeking to compete using a differentiation strategy requires considerable resources and capabilities (Votoupalova, Toulova & Kubickova, 2014).

- **Low-cost leadership**

A low-cost leadership strategy is pursued when an organisation focuses on producing a product or service that appeals to a broad market at a significantly lower cost than its rivals (Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010; Barney & Hesterly, 2012). Marcus (2005:54) state that businesses which primarily focus on activities in which they portray competencies generally save time and money and are more likely to achieve high market shares which are made possible by scale economies.

- **Best cost**

Best cost is in essence a combination of both the differentiation and low-cost leadership strategies. Thompson, Gamble and Strickland (2006) suggest, with regard to best cost strategy, that businesses adopting the combination strategy outperformed competitors by adopting both the low-cost strategy and the differentiation strategy.

However, Lazenby (2014) warn that organisations may underestimate the challenges and expenses associated with providing low prices and differentiating at the same time.

3.2.6 Strategy implementation and control

Even though that strategic planning process stage is the focus of this study, strategy implementation and control are briefly discussed for the sake of completeness.

Strategy implementation is also called the action stage, where everyone is involved in seeing to it that the plan is being operationalised (Pearce & Robinson, 2013).

In this phase, through the touch of strategic leadership (which puts all resources together), the instruments and drivers, such as culture (which is about the organisation's personality), structure (which deals with the allocation of resources, especially human capital), short term objectives (which seek to bring specificity of goals into the equation), policies (which outline standard operating procedures) and reward systems (which seek to incentivise strategy participants who positively respond to the strategic call) are dealt with (Singh, Darwish & Anderson, 2012; Lazenby, 2014).

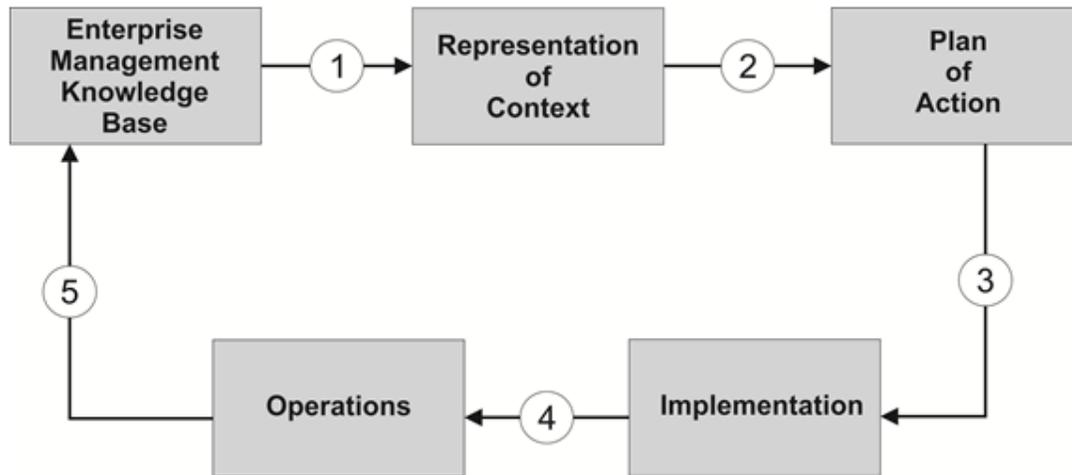
The strategic drivers and instruments are specifically utilised to successfully implement a chosen strategy, although strategy implementation does not always happen as planned. Therefore, strategic control and evaluation are needed for strategy assessment purposes (Pearce & Robinson, 2013). This is also called the checking phase. It is in this stage that pockets of excellence and solutions to challenges can be identified, and the control process feeds back into the strategic planning process.

3.2.7 Other views of the strategic planning processes

Two models of the strategic planning process perspective are outlined and discussed in this section. The first model is that of Church and Smith (2008:309) who made their contribution by developing a model on the Conceptual Elements of Strategic Planning Process. The second model is that of Grant (2003) on the generic strategic planning cycle.

These may serve to confirm the stubborn presence of the process perspective, even though there are studies regarding the emergent perspectives of strategy (Lynch, 2012).

Figure 3.3 presents a graphical representation of the Conceptual Elements of Strategic Planning Process.



1. Inference based on manager’s knowledge
2. Selection of alternative strategic initiatives
3. Decisions about resources required
4. Resources allocated
5. Learning from the actual costs and benefits

Figure 3.3: Conceptual elements of the strategic planning process

Adapted from: Church and Smith (2008)

In Figure 3.3, Church and Smith (2008) depict the strategic planning process in the form of five broad elements which are: Enterprise Management Knowledge Base (EMKB), representation of context, implementation, plan of action, and operations. Regarding “Enterprise Management Knowledge Base”, the managers’ knowledge (both tacit and explicit) of their environment is imperative. It follows that managers have to align themselves with the needs of the organisation, its clients, competitors, and other internal and external stakeholders. Moreover, Lovavallo and Kahneman (2003) and Church and Smith (2008) went on to compare the managers’ personal beliefs and perceptions with those of the major role players in the knowledge base.

The next element illustrated in the figure “representation of context”, may be prone to cognitive biases and managerial overconfidence which should be guarded against since this can limit the number of alternatives to be considered when making strategic decisions.

The “plan of action” refers to considering and selecting strategic alternatives which will henceforth become determining factors. In this element, various analytical tools, such as net present value, internal rate of return and real options theory which can serve well when strategic planning and capital budgeting, are considered (also see Graham & Harvey, 2001 in Church & Smith, 2008). Proper capital budgeting and the subsequent efficient resource allocations are also crucial at this point. It is, however, prudent for the organisation to avoid setbacks and inappropriate plans as a result of cognitive biases by its managers (also see Arnott, 2006 in Church & Smith, 2008; Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2013).

When dealing with implementation, the organisation’s allocation of selected and plan-based resources should reflect its intentions. Moreover, the organisation may in this instance, incur initial costs of resources as well as changes in systems and processes.

Nonetheless, partial (which require a turnaround strategy) or complete failure (which may sometimes only be remedied through liquidation) may cause a complete deviation from the initial plan (also see Lazenby, 2014). Finally, the operations element does take place. This element involves the performance of business processes within the organisation’s competitive environment.

This process thus becomes the feedback loop of EMKB which qualifies to become a continuous and organisational process (also see Prahalad, 2000).

Grant (2003) also seeks to outline the way strategic planning processes actually occur following his research in multinational oil companies. This is outlined in the form of the strategic planning cycle as shown in Figure 3.4, which is followed by a brief discussion thereof.

Given the fact that Grant’s findings are rooted in the context of the oil industry, it would be imprudent to apply his findings as a blanket approach across industries. On the other hand, the possibility of learning valuable lessons from organisations across industries or even sectors can never be ruled out.

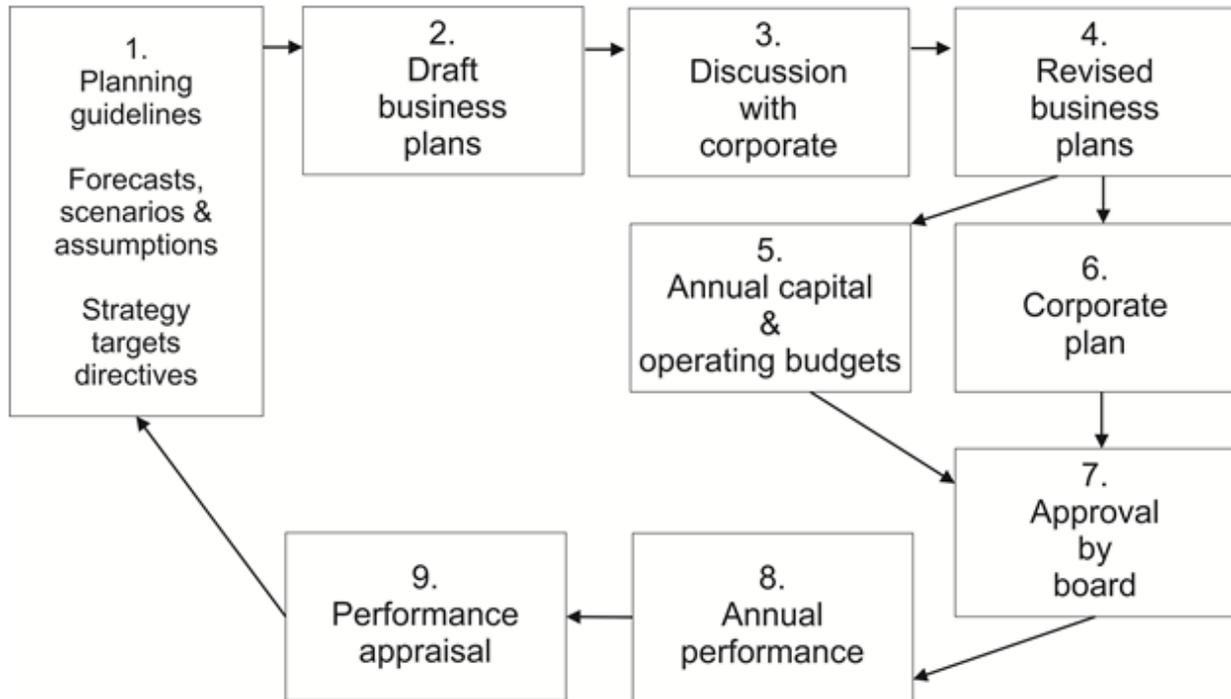


Figure 3.4: The generic strategic planning cycle

Adapted from: Grant (2003)

- *Planning guidelines.* An announcement is made by the corporate headquarters concerning guidelines and assumptions to be used by the businesses in preparing their business-level strategies. These guidelines could also be articulated during strategic planning workshops (This aspect has also been mentioned by Hodgkinson, Whittington, Johnson & Schwarz, 2006).
- *Draft business plans.* Strategic plans are formulated bottom-up: the individual businesses take the initiative in formulating their strategic plans. The bottom-up approach is featured in strategic management literature (This aspect has also been mentioned by Prahalad, 2000).
- *Discussion with corporate.* The draft business plans are submitted to the corporate headquarters for discussion. This is widely employed by large organisations. Recommendations can thus further be made thereafter.
- *Revised business plans.* The draft business plans are then revised in the light of the discussions.

- *Annual capital and operating budgets.* The strategic planning process is thus closely linked with the annual budgeting process.
- *Corporate plan.* The corporate plan results from the aggregation of the business plans, which has been undertaken by the corporate planning department. Resource allocation should always be in line with the chosen strategy (This aspect has also been mentioned by Pearce & Robinson, 2013).
- *Board approval.* The final formality of the strategic planning formulation has to do with the approval of the corporate and business plans by the board of directors.
- *Performance targets.* These targets are related to the life of the plan with a more detailed emphasis on performance targets for the coming year.
- *Performance appraisal.* The performance plans provide the basis for corporate-level appraisal.

According to Grant (2003) and Grant (2010) the above planning stages were followed by multinational oil companies. Likewise, there are commonalities and variances between the planning processes of the corporate sector and not-for-profit organisations. It follows that the strategic planning processes should be flexible and responsive enough to cater for environmental uncertainty and the organisation's specific complexities. This should be the case across industries and fraternities. Moreover, it is important to contextualise strategy; hence strategies by sport organisations are discussed.

It is noteworthy that, when discussing the current research in strategic planning, it becomes apparent that the process approach is still a widely used method (Grant 2003, Church & Smith, 2008; Grant, 2010). This seems to suggest that even some modern organisations still continue to pursue the traditional approach to strategy. This study will seek to explore this factor. Also to be discussed are the strategic planning processes for sports organisations such as sport clubs.

Table 3.1: Summary of literature on the process approach to strategic planning

Concept	Description	Key author and year
Process versus emerging perspectives	Process and emerging strategies are compared. This is done extensively in this chapter.	Moore (2011) Ngalungu (2011)
Strategy	Strategy was defined as a game plan, originally used to defeat enemies during war.	Channon (2006) Hodgkinson, <i>et al.</i> (2006)
Strategic planning	Strategic planning as a foresight about the future.	Miller and Cardinal (1994) Bivainis and Tunčikienė (2005)
Strategic planning process	This process generally entails stages such as strategic direction, environmental analysis, strategic objectives and strategic choices. The issues of efforts taken, degree of involvement and formalities within the strategic planning process are also outlined.	Young-Ybarra and Wiersema (1999) Grant (2003) Hassan, (2010) Karamemedovic and Bredmar (2013)
Strategic management	This deals with the optimum integration of resources over the long term so as to satisfy the organisation's stakeholders, particularly its clients.	Channon (2006) Hodgkinson, <i>et al.</i> (2006)
Strategic management process	This process incorporates the three major stages in planning/ formulation (thinking phase), implementation/ roll-out (action phase) and control/evaluation (checking phase).	Channon (2006) Hodgkinson, <i>et al.</i> (2006)
Strategic direction	Vision statement (which is about ideal future), mission statement (outlining the scope of business) and strategic intent (which is a combination of the former two tools).	Adnan, Staden and Hay (2010) Amran, Periasamy and Zulkafli (2011) Cartwright and Baldwin (2006) Hamel and Prahalad (1996) Lord (2011)

		Singh, Darwish and Anderson (2012).
Environmental analysis	This encompasses both traditional and emerging analytical tools from the internal and external environmental perspectives.	Grant (2003) Lee, <i>et al.</i> (2012) Madlala (2014) Parnell (2013) Porter (1979) Upson, <i>et al.</i> (2012)
Competitive strategies	While competitive strategies (such as best cost, low-cost leadership, focus and differentiation) are concerned with gaining and maintaining competitive advantage.	Becker (2011) Kim and Mauborgne (2005) Kim and Mauborgne (2014) Mackay and Chia (2013) Porter (1985)

Source: Author's own compilation

This table provides a summary of the literature on the strategic planning from the process perspective. The various process components, ranging from the strategic direction to strategic choices were discussed. The literature search mainly focused on authors who articulated their views on strategic planning and its various components. It should be mentioned that although there is a lot of literature on the various concepts listed in the table above, only a fraction of the overall literature is relevant to the area of strategic planning from the process, which is better positioned to respond to the research questions of this study.

3.3 THE EMERGENT PERSPECTIVE ON STRATEGIC PLANNING

The prescriptive perspective is generally referred to as the traditional way to develop strategy in which the process perspective is the *status quo*. This process was alluded to

in our discussion above where the strategic planning and strategic management components were addressed in a systematic and stringent manner (Young-Ybarra & Wiersema, 1999). This also suggests that each component has to meticulously follow the other, which Lynch (2012) regarded as a formalised and structured way of making strategic options. However, emerging views on strategic planning and management have challenged the process perspective and its relevance to modern organisations. Lynch (2012) goes on to explain some contrasts between the traditional and the emerging perspectives. This is illustrated in Figure 3.4 and subsequently explained.

Part A:



Part B:

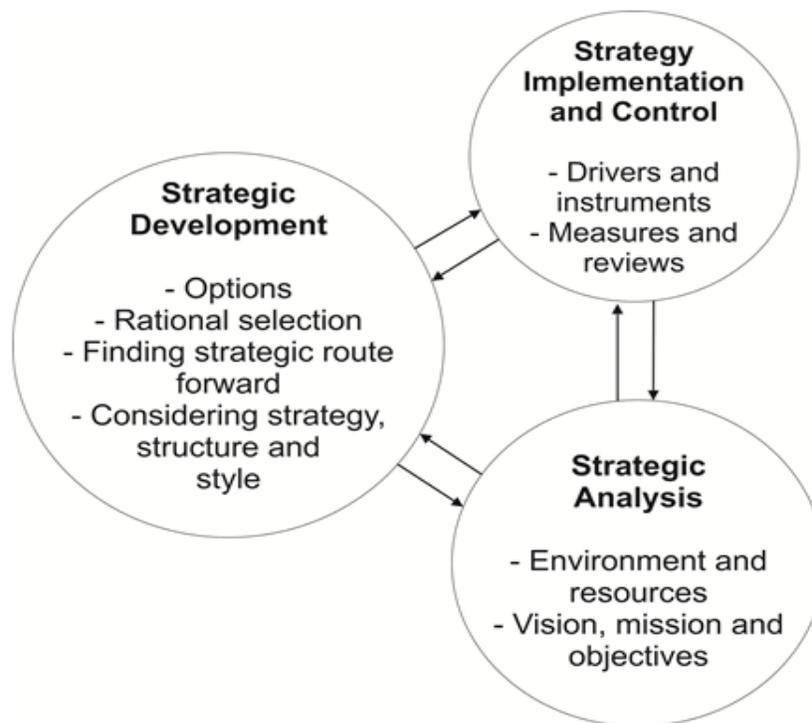


Figure 3.5: Strategic management elements/ components from the process and the emergent perspectives

Adapted from: Lynch (2012:20)

Lynch (2012) suggests that there is no definitive emergent route to strategic success. Figure 3.5 seeks to illustrate the distinction between the process and emergent perspectives. In this order, strategic analysis, strategy development and finally strategy implementation and control are the sequential components of the strategic management from a process perspective (Part A in Figure 3.5). Moreover, there is no clear distinction between the various components and the three stages of strategy development/ planning, implementation as well as control/evaluation. Venter (2014:8) argues that strategic management ought not to be perceived as a neat and rational process. Unlike with the process perspective, there is no stringency in terms of the sequence of the process components and strategic options.

Barney and Hesterly (2012) regard the emerging perspective as an internationalised, flexible and non-formalised approach to strategy. This approach might typically occur where the product lifecycles are much shorter than in industries or organisations where the traditional perspective is preferred. In agreement with Barney and Hesterly (2012), Lynch (2012) goes on to suggest that there is no single strategic view that emerges within an organisation. This means that various strategic views may emerge at any given point within an organisation. With that in mind, Mintzberg, Ahlstrand and Lampel (2005) consider the various emergent strategies and these are illustrated in diagram format below.

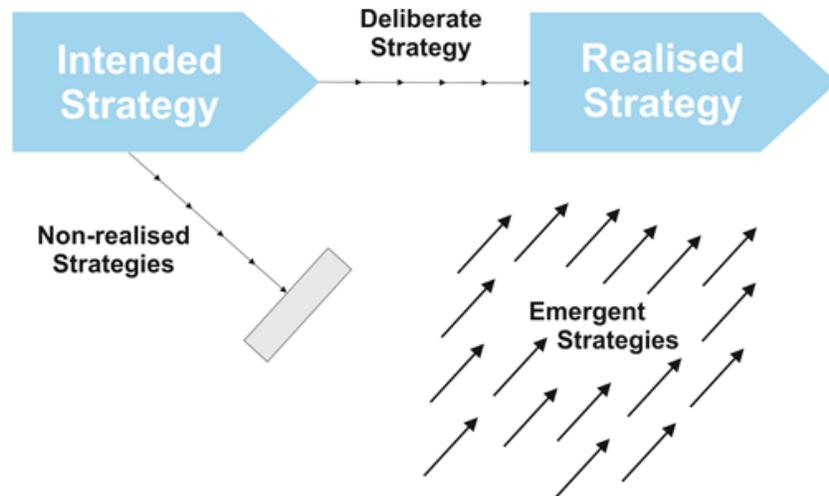


Figure 3.6: Strategies: Deliberate and Emergent

Adapted from Mintzberg, Ahlstrand and Lampel (2005: 416)

From Figure 3.6 it becomes clear that Mintzberg, *et al.* (2005) incorporate emergent strategies to make it apparent that strategy can occur in various ways, namely:

- **Intended strategy**

In this instance, events occur as initially envisaged. This is possible when environmental factors are predictable and less complex, which is seldom the case (This aspect has also been mentioned by Grant, 2003).

- **Deliberate strategy**

This is about making a conscious decision, with a set outcome and deliverable. This is useful to allow for better strategic evaluation and control (This aspect has also been mentioned by Lazenby, 2014). Intended and deliberate strategies are generally the products of a process approach to strategic management.

- **Unrealised strategy**

This occurs when unintended consequences emerge. Moreover, this can also be regarded as strategic failure which is a subject of various factors such as vision, management issues, limited time dedicated to strategy, people and resource barriers (This aspect has also been mentioned by Business Day, 1999; Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010). Moreover, Lazenby (2014) further suggests that the strategic management approach might sometimes suffer from a lack of buy-in from potential participants, negative perceptions and unrealistic expectations.

- **Realised strategy**

In this case an ideal situation takes place where the set strategic objectives are achieved. Realised strategy can emerge as a combination of intended, deliberate and emergent strategies.

- **Emergent strategy**

With this approach, informality and flexibility are the key virtues for its success (also see Lazenby, 2014).

Moreover, this approach is credited for its ability to allow the organisation to be more responsive to environmental challenges given its elastic nature (also see Lynch, 2012; Lazenby, 2014). Still on emergent strategy, this aspect has also been mentioned by (2014) and Lynch (2012) on the integration of strategic planning and strategy implementation. A disadvantage presented by this approach is the difficulty to effectively evaluate a non-formalised and less structured strategic approach. Moreover, these strategies may not necessarily be developed by top managers but also by other key stakeholders of the organisation (This aspect has also been mentioned by Nieboer, 2011).

There are several authors who mention aspects of the emergent perspective, for example, (Venter & Tustin, 2009; Moore, 2011; Pearson & Wegner, 2013; Pellissier & Nenzhelele, 2013; Singh, Pearson & Aluru, 2013). It should be appreciated that there are various analytical tools which may be employed when following an emergent perspective; most of these tools, nevertheless, fall beyond the scope of this study.

Moore (2011) goes on to declare that the emerging strategies are gaining popularity and will thus inevitably be pursued. This provides enough reason to accommodate the emerging perspectives in academic and business discourses. Mintzberg, Ahlstrand and Lampel (2005), as well as Vera and Crossan (2004) are some of the authors who compare the deliberate to emerging strategies. It must be emphasised that modern organisations have many environmental tools which they may employ. For the purpose of this module only the above tools will be discussed as far as emerging strategic analytical tools are concerned. These are consistent with the current literature in this area (Yang & Lee, 2010; Suarez-Serrano & Pina-Mavarez, 2011; Pearson & Wegner, 2013; Singh, 2013). Moreover, there is no “one size fits all” when analytical tools are employed.

Modern organisations are compelled to keep an open mind and thus be flexible to deal with strategic opportunities, challenges and realities. The same should apply to soccer clubs, in this case the SAFA Gauteng soccer clubs.

It is to be noted that there is no reason why the deliberate strategy processes cannot use the tools discussed under the prescriptive perspectives.

The above in part constitute some of the many other tools which may be employed within both the prescriptive and emerging perspectives.

Hence, the more innovative organisations became, the more compelling it will be for them to try and do things differently.

Table 3.2: Summary of literature on the emergent perspective to strategic planning

Concept	Description	Author and year
Prescriptive versus emerging perspectives	Prescriptive and emerging strategies are compared. This is done extensively in this chapter.	Vera and Crossan (2004) Bivainis and Tunčikienė (2005)
Business intelligence, analytics; real options theory	This about integrating internal and external data sources which can facilitate data dissemination needed to make strategic objectives and decisions.	Venter and Tustin (2009) Moore (2011) Pellissier and Nenzhelele (2013)
Deliberate and emergent strategies	With reference to deliberate strategies, conscious decision making exists, whereas emergent strategies allow the organisation the flexibility to be responsive to the environment.	Vera and Crossan (2004) Bivainis and Tunčikienė (2005) Suarez-Serrano and Pina-Mavarez (2011)

Table 3.2 provides a summary of the major literature regarding strategic planning from the emergent perspective. The literature search strategy for this section focused on the concepts which compared the process and emergent perspectives of strategic planning. There are numerous authors who contributed towards the discourse on the emergent perspective. Albeit, the listed authors were chosen with due regard to the research questions of this study.

3.4 STRATEGIC PLANNING IN NOT-FOR-PROFIT ORGANISATIONS

This section focuses on research in the strategic planning of not-for-profit organisations. Following his research in Dutch social housing schemes, Nieboer (2011) proposes the following strategic planning model specifically for not-for-profit organisations. The elements thereof are further compared with those of profit-making organisations.

Such comparisons are likely to assist managers to draw lessons from other organisations which may differ in terms of their primary objectives.

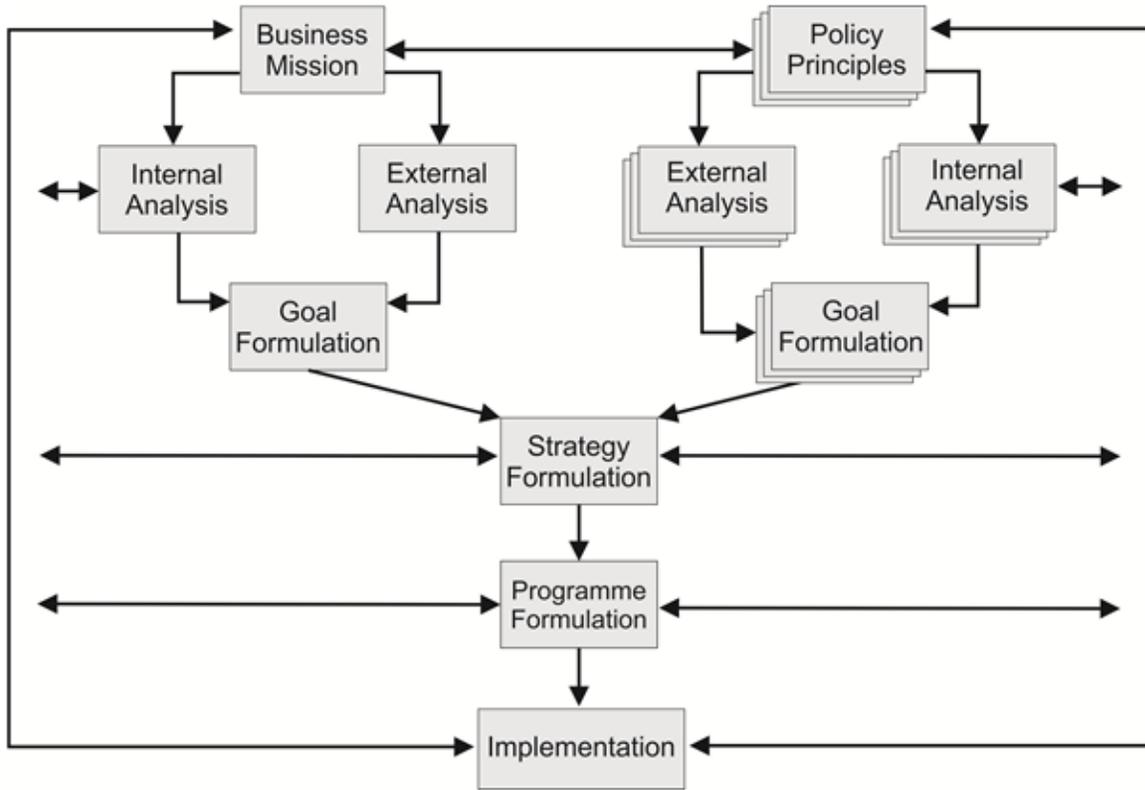


Figure 3.7: Strategic planning models

Adapted from Nieboer (2011)

As illustrated in Figure 3.7, Nieboer (2011) primarily focuses on the strategic planning processes for non-profit organisations (NPOs), which also include sport organisations such as soccer clubs. Although there are still noticeable differences, particularly with regard to strategic direction (for corporate organisations) and policy principles (in the case of NPOs) and programme formulation, most of the processes are still the same in both cases (This aspect has also been mentioned by Kotler, 2003; Robbins, *et al.*, 2012). It is important to note that policy principles serve as strategic directives for some of NPOs. The commonalities are in the following components, namely, internal and external environmental analysis, long-term goals/strategic objectives/ goal formulation, strategic formulation and implementation (This aspect has also been mentioned by Lynch, 2012; David, 2011; Lazenby, 2014).

Strategic evaluation is also a noticeable omission, however, this is not unusual since other authors have also omitted it (This aspect has also been mentioned by see Lynch 2012). The above common components will not be discussed any further as these were comprehensively dealt with in the previous sections of this study.

On the other hand, the use of policy principles instead of strategic direction is very interesting. Nieboer (2011) regards policy principles as a way to vertically steer the organisation to success and also a way to stimulate the necessary social interaction. Moreover, the policy principles are regarded as a way to transfer social norms and values between interested parties and/or stakeholders (also see Crane & Matten, 2007). It follows that a good policy should help the organisation better achieve its strategic objectives. It will be interesting to see what other authors suggest regarding research in strategic planning. For example, Church and Smith (2008) in the next section outline the conceptual elements of the strategic planning process (refer to Figure 3.3 that illustrates these conceptual elements). This section also suggests that despite the prominence of the emerging approach the process approach cannot simply be discarded.

3.5 STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESSES AND GOVERNANCE

This section will discuss the strategic planning processes and governance in general and in the sport context. Strategic planning processes in the sport context will be discussed first; thereafter governance and its significance to strategic planning will be discussed. Moreover, the various types of strategies in sport context will be briefly explained. Governance will be discussed in general and further considered in the sport context.

3.5.1 Strategic planning processes in the sport context

Within the formalised sporting codes the wellbeing of the teams or clubs is generally maintained by the team or club management. Sometimes the management may consist of the executive and the board.

These personalities play significant roles in the functioning of the clubs. It is thus important to look into these personalities' ability to successfully run the clubs.

With that in mind, research on strategic planning of sport organisations still leaves much to be desired (Ferkins, *et al.*, 2009).

Furthermore, the board's and management's involvement and strategic capability have a significant influence on their performance, and subsequently the overall organisational performance. Stiles (2001) and Roberts, McNulty and Stiles (2005) also infer that boards in general fail to realise their potential in the strategic decision-making process.

It is commonly known for the board to provide the organisation's strategic direction while the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) and executive management are responsible for translating it into an operational plan. Moreover, the importance of shared leadership between the board and the CEO, the complex interplay in balancing this relationship and the need to integrate strategy into board processes are becoming increasingly significant (Ferkins, *et al.*, 2005; Ferkins, *et al.*, 2009).

This means that the roles of the board and those of the executive, managers and CEO are often linked even though they fulfil different roles. Greater board involvement in strategy may advance the organisation's ability to perform its strategic function (Ferkins, *et al.*, 2009).

Barrows (2009) warns about managers' passive approach to strategic issues, especially regarding accountability for the strategic management process stages of planning, implementation and evaluation. This passive approach may be realised when managers sometimes feel afraid of exercising accountability during which reviews are continually rescheduled or dropped from the calendar altogether (Barrows, 2009; Hrebinaik, 2006). The Gauteng soccer clubs board and/or management inputs will thus be necessary to shed some light on their involvement regarding the strategic planning processes.

3.5.2 Governance in general, governance & strategy and governance in the sport context

In this section, governance will be discussed in general and subsequently in the sport context. This is informed by the desperate need for governance within the business of sport (Mbalula in Vice, 2012).

3.5.2.1 Governance in general

Governance deals with systems of accountability by all the organisation's stakeholders, with a greater degree of such accountability vested on the board of directors and the executive management.

Governance is fast becoming a vital part of business conversation and processes (Peace & Robinson, 2013). It follows that this aspect requires an inclusive approach of all affected stakeholders. The King III Report of 2009 proposes the following as seven characteristics of good corporate governance (King Committee on Corporate Governance, 2009), namely, accountability, discipline, fairness, independence, social responsibility and transparency.

These characteristics also apply to non-profit organisations such as soccer clubs. Corporate governance relates to strategic management in that the King III Report was prepared by the Institute of Directors in Southern Africa (IoDSA).

This report further recommends adherence to good corporate governance characteristics or practices when formulating a mission statement and strategic plans. With the principles of accountability, fairness and transparency in mind, the King III Report further provides guidelines for the remunerations of top and other managers (King Committee on Corporate Governance, 2009).

3.5.2.2 Governance and strategy

The word governance has been featuring prominently in academic discourse. However, Alm (2013) alludes to several instances where governance was loosely used. All the same, Tuan (2013) perceives governance as a mechanism of leveraging the buy-in and trust of both the internal and external stakeholders of the organisation. Moreover, governance forms an integral part of the strategic planning processes (King Committee on Corporate Governance, 2009). This means that all the strategic planning processes of an organisation ought to adhere to good governance principles that will benefit the organisation and its key stakeholders and also ensure sustainability.

McIntyre and Murphy (2012) infer that all organisations need to observe good governance principles in accountability, discipline, fairness, independence, social responsibility and transparency. Morton (2013) advocates for the organisation having a structured way of involving, consulting and communicating with key stakeholders, particularly employees, for inputs in a transparent manner before a strategy can be adopted and implemented. The chosen strategy should first be tested in terms of its adherence to good governance principles and this could be done through rigorous engagements before it can be adopted and implemented. That said, Kibert, Thiele, Peterson and Monroe (2012) are particularly concerned with the sustainability of the strategy. This means that the wealth maximisation and social wellbeing of the key stakeholders and the surrounding environment ought to be realisable if a strategy is to be regarded as being of value to those who are affected by it. This is also applicable to sports organisations (Alm, 2013). As such, also in this study the strategic planning processes of soccer clubs were considered with governance principles in mind. This is why Amran, Lee and Devi (2014) conclude that the organisation's involvement in the process of embedding governance and social responsibility practices within itself is an important step in devising an effective sustainability programmes. Moreover, the need for accountability has become a significant ingredient towards sustainability of the organisation, its key stakeholders and the immediate environment (Adnan, Staden & Hay, 2010; Amran, Periasamy & Zulkafli, 2011). In the next section governance in the sport context is considered.

3.5.2.3 Governance in the sport context

It is thus ideal that these characteristics be considered by all organisations. In this study for instance, we will examine how soccer clubs ethically engage with various stakeholders, such as players, sponsors, regulatory bodies, supporters and the media (Hoye & Cuskelly, 2007; Hoye & Doherty, 2011). It is further advised that an inclusive approach should be followed when dealing with the affected organisational stakeholders.

In their study on African national cricket bodies, Jansen van Rensburg, Venter and Kriek (2013) affirm the importance of governance in sport organisations, especially within the African continent. Hoye & Cuskelly (2007) also regard governance as a critical component for the effective management of sport organisations.

Wyngaard and Hendricks (2010), as well as Jansen van Rensburg, *et al.* (2013) conclude that due to the new Company's act 71 of 2008, adherence to governance standards have since become legally binding.

Despite these developments, many African organisations (including those involved in the business of sport) still don't find it necessary to comply, let alone, command some of the seven principles of good corporate governance in accountability, discipline, fairness, independence, social responsibility and transparency (King Committee on Corporate Governance, 2009). It is worth noting that the King III Report recommendations apply to both local and international sport organisations, that include SAFA, CAF and FIFA which have been under scrutiny in the recent past (Sparre, 2006; Jansen van Rensburg, *et al.*, 2013; Jennings, 2014).

With the above in mind, governance in sport organisations still leaves a lot to be desired. When outlining what they referred to as their "Thematic Schema of Sport Governance", Ferkins, Shilbury and McDonald (2005) hold strategic performance, conformance to and development of policy, as well as operational efficiency in high regard. Ferkins, *et al.* (2005) suggest that these latter aspects are governance-driven and are necessary for modern-day sport organisations. Moreover, governance capability could propel the organisation to develop inclusive strategies, and thereby yield strategic success. In essence, governance capability is central to strategy development, implementation and evaluation (Schulman, 2012).

Moreover, Schulman (2012) when dealing with ethics and governance, argued that the general "prescriptions" listed below, may also be applicable to sport organisations:

- Do not be in an unethical business in the first place. This aspect has to do with testing one's gut feel and conscience.

- Obey the law and spirit of the law everywhere you do business. This has to do with the principles of conformity, compliance and good citizenry (also see Ferkins, *et al.*, 2005).
- Articulate a complete strategy, including purpose. An idea can only become a strategy if it is communicated, hence communication is indispensable.
- An inclusive approach of stakeholders is important when seeking to articulate strategy (also see Morton, 2013).
- Explicitly articulate values as a key component of the strategy. Values should be reflective and exemplary of the organisation's leaders.
- Do not rely on auditors, ethics officers, compliance officers, law enforcement agencies, regulations, manuals, and audits as the vehicle to insert ethics into the strategy. All these aspects are essential, but they should not be there to replace the organisation's moral capital.
- Emphasise principles more than rules. (This is the best way to be more demanding of the organisation). Principles remain even when the rules change or are absent.
- Individual ethical responsibility and accountability are never less important than any corporate or organisational rule. There is no "my company said it was okay" defence.
- Be totally transparent with your constituents, and make that part of the strategy. This is in line with an inclusive approach which strategists should pursue at all times (also see King Committee on Corporate Governance, 2009).
- Have a framework and process for the resolution of ethical issues. A modern organisation requires a fully functional and responsive ethics committee.
- Have the right organisational structure. The organisational structure must be such that is manageable and must be set according to the strategy being pursued (also see Pearce & Robinson, 2013; Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010).
- Have rewards based on the right metrics. The organisation's reward system must be linked to strategy (also see Peace & Robinson, 2013; Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010).
- Make employee development part of strategy and make ethics training part of employee development. A good foundation on ethical practices is indispensable in modern organisations.

- Encourage all employees to be challenging and demanding in the ethical domain. This will in turn create a culture of ethics.

With all the above governance issues considered, there seem to be a shift by modern organisations, from mere compliance and conformity towards moral duty, and in turn this is expected to yield strategic success on the long run.

There also seems to be a growing need to link corporate governance with organisations' sustainability and strategic success (Roberts, McNulty & Stiles, 2005; Ferkins, Shilbury & McDonald, 2005) making governance indispensable. With governance in mind the environmental analysis is also important.

In Figure 3.8, below, Ferkins, Shilbury & McDonald (2005: 205) seem to suggest that there is an association between the sport organisation's governance capability and strategic development. As mentioned before, corporate governance deals with systems of accountability by the entire organisation's stakeholders, and this should be led by the organisation's management (also see King Committee on Corporate Governance, 2009). Strategic development, on the other hand, is made up of four critical components, namely, performance, conformance, policy and operations (also see Ferkins, *et al.*, 2005).

To accentuate the significance and indispensability of governance in sport and other organisations, it is apparent that strategic development can never occur autonomously.

Strong systems of governance have to be in place, for example, to develop inclusive, sustainable and relevant strategies (also see Ferkins, *et al.*, 2009). Figure 3.8 highlights the thematic schema of sport governance capabilities.

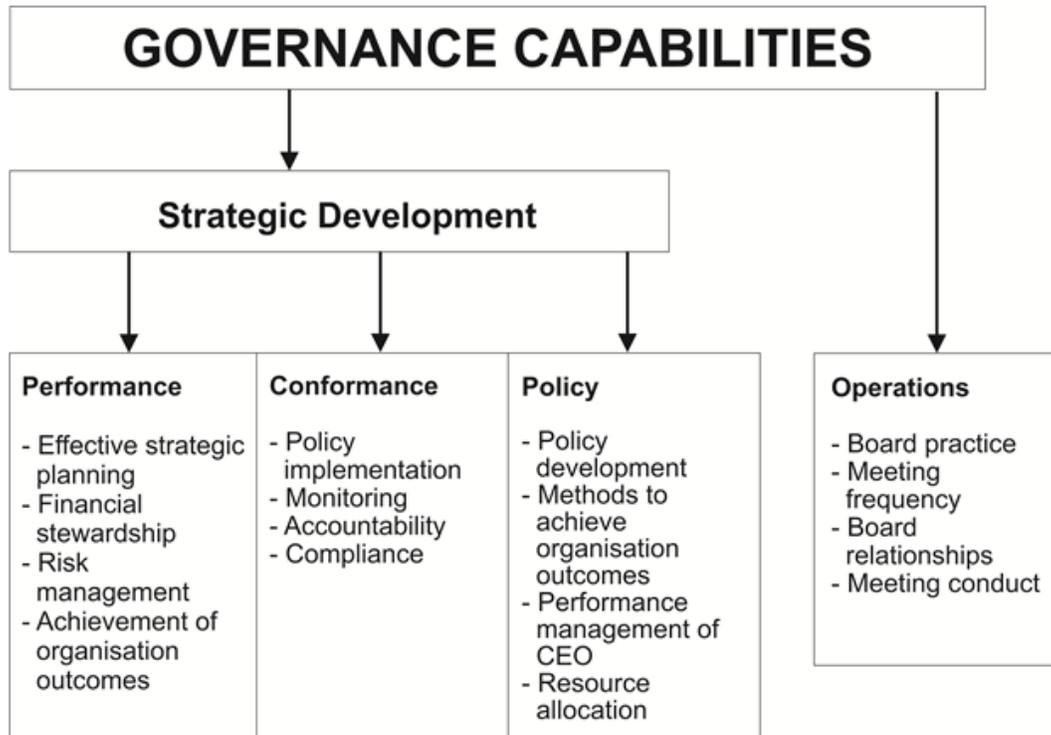


Figure 3.8: Thematic schema of sport governance: governance capabilities

Adapted from Ferkins, Shilbury & McDonald (2005: 205)

The thematic schema of sport governance deals with four broad components in strategic performance, conformance, policy and operations.

Strategic performance is derived from effective planning, organisational achievement (financial & non-financial), risk management, and financial stewardship (which form part of the aspects of the agency and stewardship theories [This aspect has also been mentioned by Hoye, 2004; Miller-Millesen, 2003]).

On the other hand, conformance is a subject of proper policy (which is about standard operating procedures), strategy implementation, accountability and compliance (This aspect has also been mentioned by Crane & Matten, 2007; David, 2011).

The policy component has to do with policy development, performance management and resource allocation (This aspect has also been mentioned by Church & Smith, 2008; Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010).

It follows that policies provide the much needed detail to monitor the linking of administrative practices against the set strategic targets and also to safeguard the organisation's integrity (This aspect has also been mentioned by Crane & Matten, 2007; Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010).

The operations component deals with daily practices, norms, relationship building, management conduct and meeting frequency which may all overlap with, and sometimes be summed up as strategic inputs (This aspect has also been mentioned by Edwards & Cornforth, 2003).

Strategic development and other related activities must always be in line with good governance principles in accountability, discipline, fairness, independence, social responsibility and transparency (This aspect has also been mentioned by King Committee on Corporate Governance, 2009). This sets the tone for governance-based strategic planning processes.

3.5.3 Strategies for sport organisations

As it is the case with corporate organisations, there are various strategies which sport organisations may employ. This may differ from one sporting code to another, or even from sport organisation to sport organisation. Thibault, Slack and Hinings (1993) seek to highlight various types of strategies which sport organisations may employ.

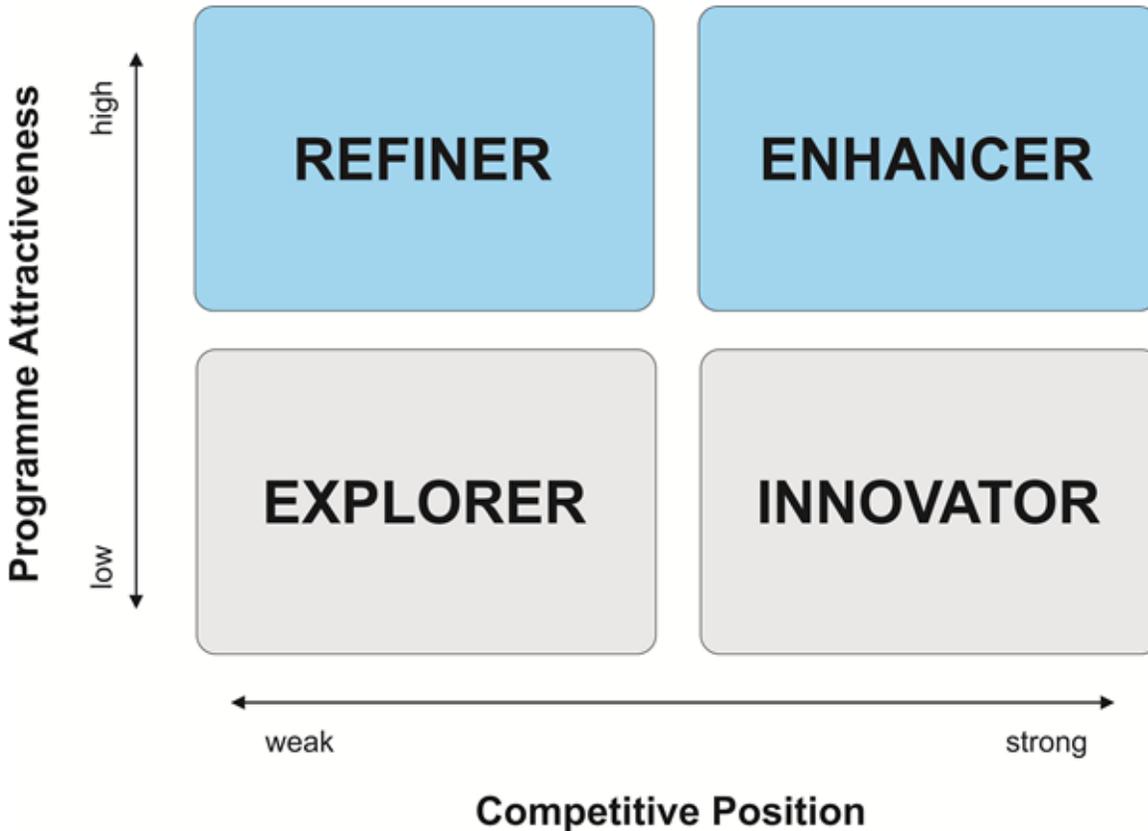


Figure 3.9: Strategic types of sport organisations

Adapted from: Thibault, Slack and Hinings (1993)

As shown in Figure 3.9, sport organisations may use the explorer, innovator, refiner and enhancer strategies. The explorer strategy seeks to dress issues such as the low levels of programme attractiveness and weak competitive advantage. This approach is often experimental in nature and allows the organisation to refine their strategic offerings according to the market needs. This could be done to increase the number of members by offering new programmes and services while seeking ways to reduce the costs of entry into the sport industry, whereas refiner strategies are used to fine-tune the organisation's programmes and services (Thibault, *et al.*, 1993). These are often remedial actions undertaken as a result of areas of weaknesses identified within the sport organisation. Furthermore, innovator strategies are focused on developing new programmes and services so as to increase the number of members and participants in the sport. For example, a marketing campaign may be undertaken by the organisation's leaders to recruit supporters and to increase the membership of the clubs.

It follows that the enhancer strategy allows sport organisations' leaders to maintain and enhance their high level of programme attractiveness and strong competitive advantage (Thibault, *et al.*, 1993). For example, sport organisations' leaders may embark on a project to host a particular event or tournament. (Also see Figure 3.9).

Legg (2003) identified three types of strategies that are relevant in the sport context, namely, governance strategies, fund-raising strategies and inclusion strategies. Governance strategies focus on planning, restructuring, the recruitment of personnel and communications, whereas fund-raising strategies focus on generating financial resources for the organisation's operations, programmes, and services. Inclusion strategies, on the other hand, focus on communication and negotiation with other sport organisations. This study particularly addresses the processes of governance strategies. These may include issues of planning, restructuring, recruitment of personnel and communications. The soccer clubs in Gauteng and their involvement in strategic planning processes and/or activities will thus be examined.

3.6 A CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR STRATEGIC PLANNING IN SOUTH AFRICAN SOCCER CLUBS

During this research it was noted that various authors had different views regarding strategic planning. Of note were Ehlers and Lazenby (2010) as well as Robbins, DeCenzo and Coulter (2012) who held a process approach to the strategic planning process. As such, the components of the strategic planning process, such as strategic direction, environmental analysis, long-term goals, as well as strategic choice were discussed at greater length. The discussion was completed by a discussion of strategic implementation and control, which are the two other phases of the strategic management process. The above arguments are also not far removed from those of Grant (2003; 2010) and Church and Smith (2008) who developed the generic strategic planning cycle and the conceptual elements of strategic planning process, respectively.

When discussing the strategic management components from the process and the emergent perspectives, Lynch (2012) held the view that there is no definitive route to strategic success, while in their illustration and discussion titled “Strategies Deliberate and Emergent”, Mintzberg, Ahlstrand and Lampel (2005) advocated for multiple routes towards strategic success. The above studies have shaped the discussion towards the conceptual model for strategic planning in South African Football Association soccer clubs. This conceptual model is outlined in Figure 3.10 which is discussed in the section below.

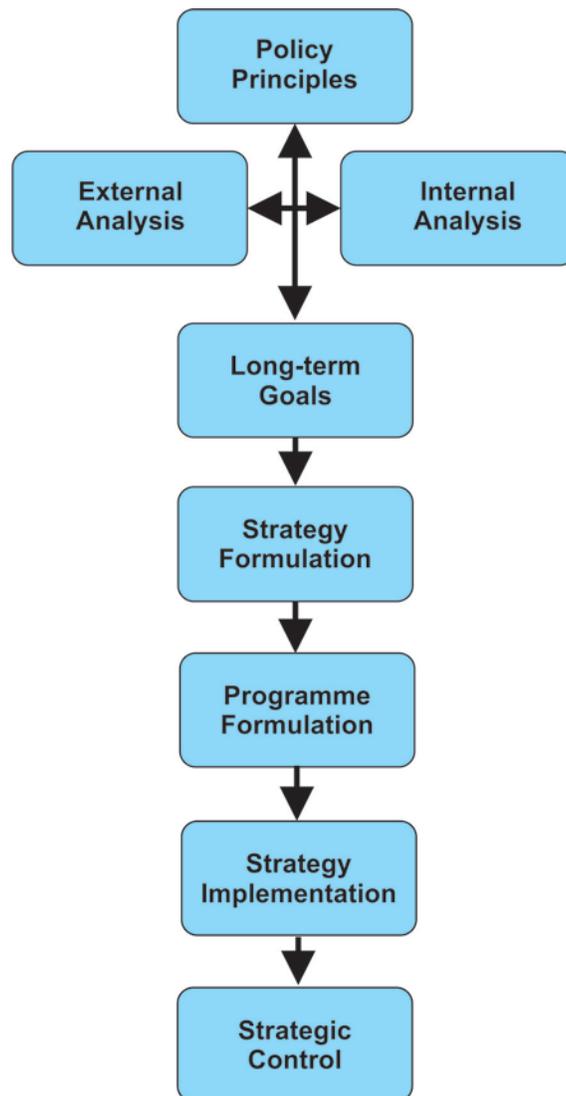


Figure 3.10: Conceptual model for strategic planning in South African soccer clubs

Adapted from Nieboer (2011)

While this study values the various views of strategic planning, it is important to note that the systematic nature of the process approach could go a long way in enabling NPOs, particularly soccer clubs, to better organise themselves and thereby realise their strategic objectives. A conceptual model for strategic planning in South African soccer clubs as shown in Figure 3.10, entails various components in policy principles, external environmental analysis, internal environmental analysis, long-term goals, programme formulation and strategy implementation and control. This model starts with policy principles which may emanate from SAFA, as the mother body. Policies should be such that they enhance the standards of soccer in the country and should serve a framework for governance principles which the soccer club should adhere to (This aspect has also been mentioned by Kotler, 2003; Nieboer, 2008; Jansen van Rensburg, *et al.*, 2013). Within this framework, SAFA's core values should be as unambiguous as possible to cater for all stakeholders, even those at grassroots level. The soccer club should thus internalise these policy principles and be reflective of its core mission and values.

An external environmental analysis ought to be undertaken as this may alert a soccer club of possible opportunities, threats, changes and challenges which may emerge from the ministry of sport, CAF and FIFA which regulate and govern SAFA and its soccer clubs (This aspect has also been mentioned by Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010). The soccer club must perform its internal environmental analysis in a timely fashion to align itself with the stakeholders' requirements (Parnell, 2013). In response, and with due regard to the policy principles and environmental analysis, the soccer club can thus set its long-term goals. In these components, timelines and targets can be set, ranging from four to eight years, according to FIFA World Cup periods (This aspect has also been mentioned by Lazenby, 2014).

From the long-term goals, a particular set of strategies may be set which may require stakeholder engagement to finalise (This aspect has also been mentioned by King Committee on Corporate Governance, 2009). The strategies may further be broken into actionable programmes which be regarded as tactics which can make the implementation possible.

For implementation to be effective, the optimal allocation of resources, as well the drivers (such as leadership & culture) and instruments (such as rewards & incentives) are imperative. The process requires strategic control which can provide the soccer club with regular and long-term feedback, monitoring and evaluation (This aspect has also been mentioned by Robbins, DeCenzo & Coulter; 2012). To this end, valuable lessons can be learned and strategies can be refined to better serve the soccer clubs, and also for the betterment of South African soccer.

Table 3.3: Summary of major literature on the governance and strategic planning for sport organisations

Concept	Description	Author and year
Governance and ethics	Governance principles, especially accountability were considered. Formal and informal relationships, as well as moral capital were explored.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ferkins, <i>et al.</i> (2005) ▪ Hoye and Cuskelly (2007) ▪ King Committee on Corporate Governance (2009) ▪ Legg (2003) ▪ Jansen van Rensburg, <i>et al.</i> (2013) ▪ Jennings (2014) ▪ Karamehmedovic and Bredmar (2013) ▪ Morton (2013) ▪ Sparre (2006) ▪ Schulman (2012) ▪ Thibault <i>et al</i> (1993) ▪ Wyngaard and Hendricks (2010)
Governance capability and strategic development	Governance capability as key and indispensable ingredient towards effective and inclusive strategic development.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Amran, Lee and Devi (2014) ▪ Adnan, Staden and Hay (2010) ▪ Amran, Periasamy and Zulkafli (2011) ▪ Ferkins, <i>et al.</i> (2005) ▪ Sparre (2006) ▪ Hoye and Cuskelly (2007) ▪ King Committee on Corporate Governance (2009)

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Schulman (2012) ▪ Jansen van Rensburg, <i>et al.</i> (2013) ▪ Jennings (2014) ▪ Karamehmedovic and Bredmar (2013) ▪ Morton (2013)
Strategies for sport organisations	The various types of strategies in sport contest are highlighted.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Legg (2003) ▪ Ferkins, <i>et al.</i> (2005) ▪ Thaubalt and Slack (2007)

Table 3.3 provides a summary of major literature on the governance and strategic planning of sport organisations.

The literature search strategy for this section focused on the concepts of governance, ethics, strategic development and strategies for sports organisations. These addressed issues of accountability, moral capital, as well as types of strategies for sport organisations.

3.7 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, various strategic planning process components and aspects were considered. The two major perspectives of process and emerging were explored. Various authors offered views in favour of and against these major perspectives. These strategic planning components were further contextualised from a soccer club standpoint, with governance and ethics featuring prominently in many strategic conversations. Moreover, it was discovered that strategic decisions to follow a particular approach may differ from one organisation to the other.

It is essential to note that strategic planning processes do not exist for their own sake, or that they cannot be considered in isolation.

They can, nonetheless, be viewed as a means to an end, which has to respond to the strategic direction of an organisation. Therefore, the level of involvement in strategy should not just be reduced to planning only; managers must actively partake in the implementation and be keen to take responsibility when strategy evaluation takes place.

Furthermore, this study is open to two perspectives, namely the process and emergent perspectives. Many of the studies regarding strategic management and governance issues were conducted in the corporate context. While a few lessons were highlighted in terms of sport organisations, more can still be explored to that effect. Moreover, lessons can be learned on how soccer clubs in South Africa fare when dealing with the strategic planning process and matters of governance.

It is noteworthy that, while efforts were taken to review literature on various strategic planning processes (from both process and emerging perspectives), the researcher still regards the process approach as a relevant standpoint to be pursued.

Henceforth, the soccer fraternity participants, particularly those inclined to craft and/or participate in strategic planning processes will be engaged so as to afford this study a meaningful comparison of theory and practice. The findings of engagements with soccer clubs' participants will be outlined in the subsequent chapters.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

This chapter seeks to explain the research design and methodology that was used to address the identified research questions and objectives. In this chapter, the research questions and objectives are restated, and the research design and methodology are presented. The type of research chosen, which forms part of the research design, is also presented. Also enclosed are the unit of analysis, research methods adopted and how data will be analysed and interpreted. The ethical considerations, as well as trustworthiness and integrity are the penultimate issues to be discussed.

4.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

In light of the above, Mouton (2001) deems the research design and research method as the blueprint of how the researchers propose to conduct their research. The world people live in does shape how people think and perceive things; this is also referred to as a paradigm. A research paradigm has to do with conceptual frameworks of beliefs within which scientific theories are constructed (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). Therefore, paradigms determine what is believed to be the truth and the parameters of thinking. They thereby shape and predestine the research study outcomes. It follows that qualitative research is based on a relativistic, constructivist ontology that conceives that there is no objective reality but rather multiple realities constructed by human beings who experience a phenomenon of interest (Krauss, 2005).

This study is exploratory and falls in a constructivist paradigm. Burr (1995) identifies four basic assumptions that underpin a constructivist approach:

- It takes a critical stance towards taken-for-granted knowledge, and thereby opens up the opportunity for discussion;
- It recognises the social classification of things produced through social interactions;
- Knowledge is sustained through social processes and conventions of communication;

- And finally, knowledge and social action go together.

With these assumptions in mind, it would appear that a constructivist approach allows the researcher to actively seek to engage the participants, in this instance Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs, regarding strategic planning. The social processes and conversations occur when the managers are engaged in strategic planning and other related sessions. The study will thus seek to compare how the soccer clubs undertake their planning processes in relation to the literature in question. Exploratory research is further explained below.

According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) exploratory research is a valuable means of finding out what is currently happening, to seek new insights, to ask questions, and to assess phenomena, with a new outlook. This type of study is extremely useful when it is required to clarify a particular problem. Exploratory research can be conducted through, for example, a search of literature; interviewing experts on the subject; and conducting focus group interviews. For the purpose of this study an interview guide will be developed.

In the light of the above, how will the research problem be resolved? How will the research questions be answered? Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999:29) regard a research design as a strategic framework for the action that serves as a bridge between research questions and the execution or implementation of the research.

Pellissier (2007) suggests that research is an enquiry or search for knowledge, or a systematic investigation to establish facts. It follows that there are two main research strategies to choose from, namely, quantitative and qualitative research strategies. Sometimes both these two research strategies could be followed resulting in mixed research methods.

In this study, a quantitative method was not pursued because of its inability to stimulate engagement which is critical to gaining rich insights regarding the soccer fraternity and its strategic planning processes.

Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008) on the other hand, credit qualitative research with enabling the researcher to revisit the research plan and to reformulate the research design so as to align with the researcher's current conditions. Moreover, qualitative research affords the researcher constant circularity and the ability to link empirical analysis to a flexible literature review and theories. This study employed the qualitative research method and a semi-structured interview guide was used. Saunders, *et al.* (2012) suggest that semi-structured interviews afford the researcher the opportunity to probe useful answers and allow respondents to elaborate on their responses. Due to the design and the scope of this study, other data collection approaches, such as focus groups or in-depth interviews seem to be less practical than a semi-structured interview guide. The researcher thus seeks to avoid any operational pitfalls and concerns which these latter approaches can pose, such as inviting the wrong people or restrictions caused by individuals being unwilling to open up due to being too conscious about other audiences present (Azzara, 2010). The semi-structured interview thus allows for rather hidden and confidential information to be shared without any fear of negative consequences. This research approach was also chosen so as to afford the researcher the flexibility and expediency necessary to capture the data which can make the findings credible.

Moreover, closed-ended and open-ended questions were included in the interview guide in order to ensure that the richness of data is not compromised. It is important to note that this design is perhaps best described as phenomenological research (investigating an approach from the perspective of a practitioner), in this case the soccer club manager.

4.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND/ QUESTIONS

The research objectives will be outlined below.

4.3.1 Research objectives

- (i) The **primary** objective of this study is to explore which strategic planning processes are employed/ followed by the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs.

Secondary objectives:

- (ii) To expound on the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs' involvement in strategic planning processes.
- (iii) To explore the perceptions that Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs may have towards the value of strategic planning processes.
- (iv) To learn which strategic planning process component(s) are employed by the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs.
- (v) To discover which strategic analysis tool(s) are employed by the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs.

The clubs' involvement in strategic planning processes is envisaged to yield new insights into the strategic planning processes in the South African soccer context.

4.3.2 Research questions**Primary research question:**

- (i) What strategic planning processes are employed/ followed by the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs?

Secondary research questions:

- (ii) Who is involved (and how are they involved) in the strategic planning processes at Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs?
- (iii) What perceptions do the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs have about the value of strategic planning processes?
- (iv) Which strategic planning process component(s) are employed by the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs?
- (v) Which strategic analysis tools are employed by the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs?

4.4 SAMPLING

A sample is a number of people/objects considered to be representative of a certain population (Strydom, 2011). The researcher usually has to employ the smallest permissible sample, however Saunders, *et al.* (2009) point out that the appropriate sample size depends mostly on the objectives of the study. After due consideration of the spread of SAFA Gauteng (five regions) a sample size of about 12 (at least two participants per region) was selected, with the exception of Greater Johannesburg and Tshwane (which had three participants each) given their relatively large size and they served as replacements for Metsweding region which was not operational at the time of the fieldwork due to demarcation and other related challenges. This was due to the fact that they constitute the largest regions in Gauteng in terms of potential respondents. This makes it a credible approach for qualitative data collection, given that Guest, Bunce, and Johnson (2006) advocate that at least six interviews are ideal before saturation point may be realised. This study consisted of 12 interviews (by 13 participants since participant two insisted that a colleague must also participate in the interview session). The rapport-building approach afforded the researcher the opportunity to capture the interest of the participants and consequently to receive less restricted feedback from them. Due to the difficulties experienced by the researcher to find credible participants on their own, the researcher mainly relied on the assistance of participants, as well as SAFA's membership office, given their knowledge of the industry and soccer fraternity. A list of potential participants was eventually obtained from SAFA. The Gauteng soccer clubs were the units of analysis, while the club managers will constitute the unit of observation.

The research objectives and literature review formed the basis from which the study drew its relevant themes and questions. However, this study rather referred more to "selection of participants" instead of using the word "sampling". This is because the interest is more on realising a good mix of participants instead of seeking representation. Therefore, the selection of participants, measuring instrument and data analysis and interpretation will be discussed in the next section.

4.5 SELECTION OF PARTICIPANTS

According to Saunders (2011), as well as Ebersöhn (2012), it is useful to ensure a good mix of participation for the following reasons:

- due to the impracticality of surveying the entire participants,
- insufficient budget to collect data from entire participants, and
- insufficient time to collect data from the entire population.

As a result, in this study the researcher only had access to participants within Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs who form part of SAFA regions. With that in mind, the study aimed to understand the soccer club's strategic planning processes in the soccer context.

A purposive selection of clubs within the SAFA Gauteng regions who meet the sampling criteria was pursued (Cohen, *et al.*, 2011). Moreover, Lucas (2012) views purposive selection of participants as a way that requires the researcher to choose the participants whom they think would be most appropriate for the study. This method can be regarded as the theoretical selection of participants, given that participants are selected according to their potential to respond to the objectives of the study. This method is ideal in instances where the researcher has a limited number of people that have expertise in the area of study.

This assisted the researcher to source the relevant data from the relevant participants, despite the complex and inconsistent nature of SAFA structures (due to demarcations and political issues) in Gauteng and other regions (Alegi, 2010).

As alluded to above, five out of just over 50 SAFA regions are in Gauteng. These Gauteng regions constitute more than 10% of the SA regions, thus making it viable in terms of the size of participants and credible activities (Cohen, *et al.*, 2011). Furthermore, according to the information received from the SAFA Gauteng region, it is estimated that an average of 20 teams exist in each region. A list of 36 soccer clubs was made available by the SAFA membership office, and this was regarded as those clubs which were currently having active SAFA membership and were involved in competitive leagues.

This was a mixture of women, men as well as mixed gender clubs. As a result, a maximum of 12 interviews from 13 participants (at least two per region, except for Greater Johannesburg and Tshwane who each had three interviews each) took place. It was thus envisaged that at least 12 interviews (which ended up being conducted with 13 participants) could reflect a picture of the state of affairs of soccer in the Gauteng region. This constituted at least one third of the available units to select from. The selection of participants was done in a random manner however due regard was given to the physical address of each soccer club in order to cover all the five Gauteng SAFA regions.

This method was used when seeking to engage with the existing participants from the SAFA Gauteng regions that met the criteria. The participants thus recommended other relevant participants meeting the criteria.

The following constituted the criteria:

- The participant must be a soccer club's member of management or board.
- The soccer club must be from the SAFA Gauteng region(s).
- The participant must be somehow involved in the strategic planning processes of the soccer club.

It is important to note that the participant's demographic and other information is furnished in Chapter 5.

Goodson and Sikes (2001) inscribe that "it is impossible to pronounce how many participants will be involved in any project". Hence it was only suggested and envisaged that that up to 12 participants could deliver credible data which can be used to find the key themes and insights (Goodson & Sikes, 2001).

Saturation is fast becoming an ideal standard by which purposive sample sizes are determined in social science research work (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006). Saturation occurs when new themes and ideas from participants no longer occur (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006), Morse, 1995). Therefore the suggested number of 12 participants may be increased if necessary (which happened to be the case in this study), until theoretical saturation is reached.

The major limitations of the purposive selection of participants included lack of generalisability, participant's possible bias and lack of representation.

However, the techniques outlined above facilitated a process of choosing a number of participants who are accessible and were able to give in-depth and otherwise hidden (undisclosed) information regarding soccer clubs and their strategic planning processes (Cohen, *et al.*, 2011).

Other possible limitations of this method include behaviour and bias on the part of the interviewer that may distort the results, and the interviewer's actual physical presence (Cooper & Schindler, 2008), making it an expensive exercise. These possible human factors or errors were taken into consideration and minimised as much as possible.

4.6 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

A semi-structured interview guide was used as the primary instrument to collect data. It consisted of questions which were derived mainly from the research questions, research objectives and questions to be included in the interview guide of this study and from the literature review. In addition, the annual reports of the participating clubs were requested but were not available.

The questions asked were related to strategic planning processes and the clubs functioning at the strategic level. This measuring instrument was used to capture the richness of data which alternative instruments would not be able to capture. Moreover, during the interviews, ambiguity and difficult jargon was avoided so as to allow for the responses to be the true reflections of what was asked (Zikmund & Babin, 2007).

4.6.1 Questions included in the Interview guide

The table below explains the rationale behind asking the interview questions, as well as some of the key authors who contributed in literature to that effect. Part of the interview guide consisted of soft questions, such as the credentials of the soccer club manager. The demographic factors that were considered were employees, number of years in the business of soccer, qualification, and so on.

These demographic factors were drawn out as open-ended questions which can cater for greater flexibility during engagements (Saunders, *et al.*, 2012).

Table 4.1: Questions in the interview guide

No	Question	Rationale	Author and year
1	How long have you been part of the management of your soccer club?	Resource-based view is interested in establishing the organisation's resources, capabilities, experience, knowledge and skills.	King (2007)
2	<p>During your tenure, what were the major changes you observed with regards to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ the manner in which your management operates ▪ the external environment ▪ resources availability 	This can also be regarded as strategic failure which is a subject of various factors, such as vision, management, people and resource barriers. Moreover, the various authors attest to the ever-changing nature of the business environment and its effect on the organisation and strategic processes.	<p>Business Day (1999)</p> <p>Grant (2003)</p> <p>Venter and Tustin (2009)</p> <p>Pellissier and Nenzhelele (2013)</p>
3	<p>Describe the strategic management process within your soccer club:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Who is involved and what are their respective roles? ▪ Are there specific timeframes that you need to adhere to? ▪ Which strategic planning process component(s) do you consider or utilise? ▪ Which strategic analysis tool(s) do you employ? 	The strategic analysis tools and planning components from both the process and emerging perspective. Many organisations are still using the process approach, whereas others are making a transition to the emerging approach. This also addresses the stakeholders' engagement in strategy. Moreover, the targets which are set in strategy do have timelines.	<p>Young-Ybarra & Wiersema (1999)</p> <p>Grant (2003)</p> <p>Mintzberg, <i>et al.</i> (2005)</p> <p>Hassan (2010)</p>
4	How often do management set aside time for planning and dealing with strategic issues?	<p>Time dedicated to strategy is often limited or non-existent. This is a management issue.</p> <p>This can also be regarded as strategic failure which is a subject of various factors, such as vision,</p>	

No	Question	Rationale	Author and year
		management, people and resource barriers.	
5	<p>In terms of leading and managing the soccer club, what is the role of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The management of the of the soccer club ▪ Volunteers ▪ The board (if applicable) 	Different theories seek to clarify the roles which the management of the soccer club may play. These are agency (managers as agents, stewardship (acting in the best interests of their principals) and managerial hegemony (management assuming real responsibility) theories.	<p>Shilbury (2001) Stiles (2001) Cornforth (2004) Hoye (2004) Hoye and Cuskelly (2007)</p>
6	What do you think can be done to improve the strategic management process?	Strategy evaluation and control processes are often used to address areas of improvement and also to eliminate complacency.	Barrows (2009)
7	When you consider your current strategic management process, what works well and what are you proud of?	Strategy evaluation and control processes are often used to address areas of improvement and also to eliminate complacency. (this is the same as no:6)	Barrows (2009)
8	When you consider your current strategic management process, what keeps you awake at night (key challenges)?	These can also be regarded as strategic challenges, which is a subject of various factors such as vision, management, people and resource barriers.	Barrows (2009)
9	How involved are you with the day-to-day running of the club?	The degree of involvement is often proportionate to the degree of one's interest in an organisation.	Hassan (2010)
10	Which academic qualification(s) do your hold to help in executing your task(s)/role(s)	Resource-based view is interested in establishing the organisation's resources, capabilities, experience, knowledge and skills.	King (2007)
11	Do the management and team(s) undergo training to equip them for their roles?	Resource-based view is interested in establishing the organisation's resources, capabilities,	King (2007)

No	Question	Rationale	Author and year
		experience, knowledge and skills.	
12	Do you offer orientation for new members of management? (If yes, what does it cover?)	Resource-based view is interested in establishing the organisation's resources, capabilities, experience, knowledge and skills.	King (2007)
13	Are the management team paid for their services? (If yes, for which services?)	The degree of involvement is often proportionate to the degree of one's interest in an organisation.	Hassan (2010)
14	What other roles do you play within the sport fraternity?	The degree of involvement is often proportionate to the degree of one's interest in an organisation.	Hassan (2010)
15	Is there anything else that you may need to add to all that you have already mentioned?	This it to cater for any themes, inferences and aspects which may arise during the course of engagements.	To emerge from the engagements.

4.7 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Issues such as vagueness or doubt were taken into consideration when collecting and analysing data (Hycner, 1985; Lester, 1999). Zikmund & Babin, (2007) suggest that a follow-up in the form of a telephone call, email or revisit (if the participants are easily accessible) may be conducted. Of the above options, there was an instance where a telephone was used to call a participant to clarify an inaudible response. As mentioned in the sections above, the members of management/board from selected Gauteng soccer clubs were interviewed (at least one from each club) and the data resulting from the interviews was analysed for content through the use of the Atlas.ti software program. Relevant words, phrases, sentences, codes, categories and subsequent themes (also referred to as families) were drawn up. As stated above, telephone calls were made to find clarity where the audio from the interview was inaudible.

A summative content analysis method was employed which sought to compare and thereby categorise key words and concepts constituting similar meaning (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). The analysis thereof was done with the use of Atlas.ti software and typological analysis with which the classification of themes (sometimes referred to as families) took place. Overall, Sinkovics, *et al.* (2008) seem to recommend Atlas.ti for the enhancement of trustworthiness, given its ability to group and link concepts by building on features such as code-banks, master-lists and family trees. This process makes for credible analysis of findings; hence as initially alluded to, this is why the researcher employed Atlas.ti for data analysis purposes.

Furthermore, Atlas.ti is regarded as a powerful workbench for the qualitative analysis of large bodies of textual, graphical, audio and video data normally used by many universities and research institutions (Muhr, 1993). In this study, words with similar context and meaning were grouped into themes and sub-themes.

In this study, the first order analysis involved open coding, which required the researcher to manually highlight and circle words, phrases and sentences describing the strategic processes and analytical tools of the soccer clubs in question.

Thereafter, the second order analysis occurred, which dealt with sorting a large number of codes into groups (Gallicano, 2013). The emerging relevant patterns and themes were thus identified and grouped accordingly. The literature review, the research objectives and research questions of the study were also considered. The responses from the interviews were compared with the literature review, the research objectives and research questions to address issues of similarities between the theory and practice.

A summative content analysis which sought to categorise data into keywords and themes was employed (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Data was transcribed and typed into MS Word documents. Data was thus edited for cleaning and sense-making was ensured. Only at this stage was the data imported into Atlas.ti. Through the Atlas.ti, data was then coded and grouped into words, phrases, sentences and paragraphs which form a certain pattern and themes (Graham, 2012).

This was done with due regard for the research objectives, research questions of the study and links to literature.

4.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Most ethical issues fall into one of four categories: protection from harm, informed consent, right to privacy, and honesty with professional colleagues (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). With this in mind, a study may have to deal with concerns which stem from all of the four categories. The data collected through interviews was and will thus be used only for the purpose of research (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; 2010). This was clearly explained to the participants to assure them that they would suffer no harm through their participation in the study.

In line with what Trochim (2006) infers, in this study the following ethical principles were adhered to:

- Voluntary participation

All the participants took part voluntarily in this study, without pressure from the researcher or any other entity. The power to choose whether to partake or not to do so, remained entirely with the participant(s).

- Informed consent

All the participants who partook in this study were informed about the intentions of the study by the researcher and first had to agree to participate by signing an informed consent letter. After rapport building, the researcher relied on the assistance of SAFA national and regional offices to persuade their members to cooperate with the requirements of this study. SAFA granted written permission for the study to be conducted,

In this case, key gatekeepers who were likely to control access to empirical material and data were engaged so as to establish mutual trust (Glesne, 1999; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008).

- Confidentiality

The information/ data obtained from this study is and will be for research purposes only. That was clarified from the onset with participants and the organisation which they are affiliated with. The safeguarding of confidential and privileged information was and will be assured by the researcher towards the participants (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008).

- Anonymity

Also related to confidentiality, the names and identity of the participants and their organisation are not revealed in this study or its findings. In order to conserve their anonymity, participants assumed a *nom de plume*.

As Groves, Fowler, Couper, Lepkowski, Singer, and Tourangeau (2009) suggest the ethical practices in survey research are set to produce valid conclusions so as to avoid plagiarism, falsification or fabrication of data.

To further minimise ethical risks, the questions to be asked should not be too long since this may sometimes increase the difficulty for reviewers and potential participants to follow (Alfred Hospital, 2011). Thus shorter, and more easily read information is essential (Biggs & Marchesi, 2013).

Furthermore, as a researcher it is imperative to guard against disempowering participants by representing a story that may harm them, their family or their community (Goodson & Gill, 2011). These types of errors were avoided in all instances. The researcher consciously adhered to good ethical practices and in doing so instilled credibility in their work while at the same time protecting the identity of participants. The researcher also applied for and was granted (attached at the appendixes of this study) the formal ethical clearance from their designated institution.

4.9 TRUSTWORTHINESS AND INTEGRITY

Trustworthiness and integrity refer to components such as credibility, validity, dependability, transferability, reliability and conformability which need to be established to qualify qualitative research (Sinkovics, Penz & Ghauri, 2008). Credibility has to do with making logical and accurate conclusions to the research problem, questions and objectives. This research endeavoured to make a link between the data collected against the literature. Furthermore, validity in a nutshell, has to do with the correctness of the research outcomes. Schwandt (2001) compares validity with the ability to conclude that the research findings are true and certain. Validity has to do with the correctness of description, explanation, interpretation, account or conclusion (Maxwell, 1996).

Reflexivity enhances validity in the realisation that every role entails differing power relationships between the researcher and the participant(s), and this in the end affects the outcome of the study (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). Some of the useful approaches to realising validity are triangulation, member check and analytical induction (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008).

For the purpose of this study, the researcher only employed the latter, due to time, limited funds and other constraints. Strauss (1987) as well as Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008) recommend analytical induction due to its ability to allow the researcher to integrate the recently collected data with the existing theory. Of note, the analysis in this study was done inductively.

This allowed the researcher to make sound comparative analyses that are useful towards achieving credibility for the study in question. Dependability, on the other hand, refers to the evidence-based approach by the researcher. Proof of all data collected is attached as supporting documents of the study. Moreover, transferability has to do with seeking to make links and connections to similar studies which took place in different contexts. Literature assisted the researcher with establishing if there is indeed a pattern associated to a particular phenomenon in the study. Conformability has to do with seeking to make meaning of the data and findings of the study. The researcher was seeking to make a meaningful difference to the lives of the audience of the study. This will be through availing (on request) the final conclusions and recommendations of the study to participants for their consideration.

Moreover, reliability is further regarded as the evaluation criteria which seek to confirm the extent to which the research procedure yields the same results on repeated trials, making it possible for replication which can yield similar conclusions (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). In other words, reliability deals with the consistency of findings (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007).

In that light, the researcher was conscious to allay any concerns regarding the validity, credibility, reliability, and overall trustworthiness and integrity of the study. Consistency and correct interpretation of data was always in the mind of the researcher with due consideration towards ensuring that data collected was credible. This was also enhanced by the prolonged engagements of the researcher and participants and the researcher's rapport building.

The researcher may continue on with the engagements until saturation point which is normally reached upon the realisation of the plummeting emergence of new themes.

A signed declaration of the researcher will also be available upon request. In order to establish validity, the reflexivity of the research process will become necessary so as to evaluate its credibility (Schwandt, 2001). Furthermore, the generalisability of findings must be realised so as to make it possible for the study to be tested or explored in other contexts (Yin, 2002).

4.10 CONCLUSION

In this chapter an overview of the research design and methodology were outlined. Also considered were the research questions and objectives and research methods. The type of research chosen, which forms part of the research design is also presented. In addition, the unit of analysis, research methods adopted and how data was analysed and interpreted were mentioned. Towards the end of the chapter the ethical considerations as well as trustworthiness and integrity issues were discussed. In the next chapter the presentation, analysis and interpretation of results will be dealt with.

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS & RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reports on the findings of the study. The strategic planning processes employed by Gauteng soccer clubs were the unit of analysis. The first section in this chapter provides the context and rationale regarding the direction of the findings. Following that the themes relating to the research objectives of this study are discussed. Within these themes narratives as well direct quotations from participants are employed to present the findings as authentically as possible. The themes presented in this chapter were identified from the research data during the analysis phase. To be precise, evidence was extracted from Atlas.ti, the software used to analyse the interview transcripts. Without repeating what was alluded to in Chapter 4, a series of events leading to the completion of this chapter will be discussed.

5.2 BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Data analysis can be done inductively or deductively. Inductive analysis has to do with the researcher's use of detailed readings of raw data to derive concepts, themes, or a model through interpretations (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). According to Thomas (2006) deductive analysis has to do with testing whether data is consistent with prior assumptions, theories, or hypotheses identified or constructed by an investigator. In practice, many evaluation projects use both inductive and deductive analysis (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Table 5.1 highlights the data collection procedure for this study.

Table 5.1: Data collection procedure

Event	Period	Organisation/person(s) responsible	Rationale
Interview guide	August 2014	The researcher	To seek information from participants
Ethical clearance	October 2014	The supervisor and the University of South Africa Research Ethics Committee (Department of Business Management)	To protect the University, the researcher and participants from any possible harm.
Permission to conduct research	October 2014	South African Football Association (SAFA)	To allow access to the researcher and to protect participants from any possible harm.
Data collection (field work)	November and December 2014	The researcher	To personally gather interview data.
Transcription	December 2014	The transcriber	To convert audio recordings of interviews into transcriptions (word documents) which assist in analysis and report writing.
Data analysis and reporting	January 2015	The researcher through the use of Atlas.ti	Content analysis of interview transcriptions.

Source: Author's own compilation

As indicated in Table 5.1, the interview guide, as well the ethical clearance and permission to conduct research formalities were finalised in October 2014. Between the months of November and December 2014 the actual interviews were conducted. The transcription was also completed in December 2014, and the data analysis and reporting commenced in January 2015. A digital recorder was used to record and store data before the transcription took place.

Once the transcription was completed, the raw data (transcription documents) were loaded into the Atlas.ti software program. This was then followed by the creation of themes and sub-themes through the use of the Atlas.ti program.

The latter was created after the first-level coding was done. Words, phrases, sentences and paragraphs were grouped according to their themes so as to allow for sense-making. Once the grouping of these themes was in place, it became possible to report on some of the findings. The Sub-themes were developed from the main themes, with due regard to the research objectives of the study.

5.3 PARTICIPANTS IN THE STUDY

Table 5.2, below, is divided into logistical and content-related information about each participant. The table in question is instrumental in the reflectivity of the study in terms of providing a broader picture of the type of circumstances under which the researcher functioned. Moreover, the process of identifying common issues which subsequently lead to the researcher to collate them into specific themes is being justified. It further provides some indication of how content analysis was conducted.

Table 5.2: Logistics and a summary of content analysis per participant

Participant	Interview date	Region	Description
1	2014/11/26a	West Rand	<p>Demographics and logistics</p> <p>This was a female participant in a female-only soccer club. One of her other roles was that of being the treasurer of the local soccer association. The participant was the first to respond to the researcher's request to participate in the study. A very energetic young lady immediately confirmed the 12H00 appointment at their stadium offices on the mentioned date.</p> <p>The researcher arrived at the set venue 30 minutes before the appointment time and had to wait for the participant who eventually arrived at the venue at 11H53. She then escorted the researcher to their offices and opened the boardroom for the purpose of the interview.</p> <p>Key contents captured</p> <p>She has been the team co- founder and manager for six years and was also a member of the executive for the local football structure. Noteworthy, most of the responses addressed operational issues and challenges experienced with the current SAFA dispensation. Lack of resources was a prominent feature.</p>
2 & 3	2014/11/26b	West Rand	<p>Demographics and logistics</p> <p>In this instance there were two male participants (& more than 10 soccer players who observed the proceedings of the interview). The active participants were club founder s/managers and coaches in a female-only soccer club. The participant responded to the email request to participate in the interview. The researcher thus went on to call the participant who was keen to participate. The meeting was only possible after 18H00 at a local stadium.</p> <p>The researcher arrived at around 16H00 and had informal conversations and motivational talks with the young ladies' team while waiting for the managers to arrive.</p>

Participant	Interview date	Region	Description
			<p>At around 17H51 the participant who is the co-founder / manager and coach arrived with one of the team managers and informed the researcher that the interview will have to be conducted with both of them at the same time, in the presence of the players.</p> <p>Key contents captured</p> <p>More than 10 other persons were present in the room during the interview. The other manager who was not the initially intended participant was more vocal in the discussion. The researcher also noticed some nodding and smiles in the faces of some soccer players during the interviews. Also to note, most the responses addressed operational issues and challenges experienced with the current SAFA dispensation. The lack of resources was prominent.</p>
4	2014/11/28	Tshwane	<p>Demographics and logistics</p> <p>This was a male participant in a female-only soccer club. The participant was the founder and managing director who boasted of his 20 years of experience. One of his other roles was that of being a fundraiser for the local sport association. The researcher first liaised with the participant's assistant before subsequently setting up an appointment with the participant himself. The meeting was scheduled for 12H00, however the actual interview only took place at 14H30. This was due to rapport building and the passion the participant (who happened to also be a spiritual leader) displayed regarding football and the community at large.</p> <p>Key contents captured</p> <p>The participant had some the strategic issues in his responses but not without some probing questions to guide him away from operational issues.</p>
5	2014/11/29	Tshwane	<p>Demographics and logistics</p> <p>This was a female participant who happened to be a club manager in a female-only soccer club. One of her other roles was that of being the secretary of the regional football league and a sport science student.</p>

Participant	Interview date	Region	Description
			<p>The participant postponed the appointment twice, citing ill-health.</p> <p>Eventually a Saturday appointment was what the researcher had to settle for. To her credit, the participant provided ample time for the interview despite being busy preparing to take a long business trip later in the day. The interview took place at the roof of the stadium at around 08H10, just 10 minutes after the scheduled time.</p> <p>Key contents captured</p> <p>According to her, there seemed to be unity and improvements within the club itself. The researcher made attempts to probe her accordingly, however the participant focused more on operational instead of strategic issues. The interview was completed with insightful ideas of how to improve South African soccer, particularly that of ladies.</p>
6	2014/12/01a	Sedibeng	<p>Demographics and logistics</p> <p>This was a male participant in a female and male soccer club. One of his other roles was that of being a technical adviser for the local soccer association. The meeting was scheduled for 08H00, however the participant only arrived at his work offices at 09H10 and the interview only commenced at approximately 09H27. There were several disruptions from colleagues who demanded the participant's attention despite the researcher's presence.</p> <p>Key contents captured</p> <p>The participant appeared knowledgeable and highly qualified and accomplished (see Section. 5.5.3 on managerial experience and qualifications). He could easily separate the strategic issues from political and operational issues. The participant spoke at length about what South African soccer requires to improve. He appeared to be a man with many ideas even though at some point the interview nearly lost its central focus.</p>

Participant	Interview date	Region	Description
7	2014/12/01b	Sedibeng	<p>Demographics and logistics</p> <p>This was a male participant in a female and male soccer club. One of his other roles was that of being a community leader and philanthropist. After his lack of response from the initial invitation, the researcher called the participant who immediately obliged to partake in the interview at one of the local stadium offices. The interview was scheduled for 10H30; however the researcher arrived 15 minutes late due to being held up at the previous participant and owing to routine maintenance road closure. Upon the researcher's arrival the participant as well the co-founder /coach received the researcher well and his apology for late arrival was graciously received. The co-founder excused himself and only then did the interview take place.</p> <p>Key contents captured</p> <p>This was by far the longest interview of them all. However, very few strategic issues came out even though governance as well as social responsibility issues surfaced a lot.</p>
8	2014/12/02a	Greater Johannesburg	<p>Demographics and logistics</p> <p>This was a male participant in a female-only soccer club. One of his other roles was that of being a community leader. Following a telephone call from the researcher the participant was keen to be interviewed.</p> <p>The meeting was scheduled to take place at 8H00, however due to difficult terrain the researcher arrived at 08H10 for the appointment at the participant's home on the mentioned date. An apology for late arrival was tendered and accepted. The delay did not deter the enthused participant from sharing his managerial experience of handling a young ladies team.</p> <p>Key contents captured</p> <p>His knowledge about strategic management and strategic planning processes was impressive when compared to the other participants in the study. His education level, as well as knowledge about grassroots football were apparent.</p>

Participant	Interview date	Region	Description
			He discussed at length the challenges facing South African soccer, while also proposing solutions to that effect. The social responsibility, community upliftment issues, moral regeneration as well as the importance of education were some of additional information mentioned.
9	2014/12/02b	Greater Johannesburg	<p>Demographics and logistics</p> <p>This was a male participant in a male-only soccer club.</p> <p>There was no problem in making an appointment with the respondent. The participant welcomed the researcher timely for a 10H15 appointment. Given that the interview took place at the participants' place of residence, and during school holidays, the interview was interrupted by some of the participants' children.</p> <p>Key contents captured</p> <p>The participant also focused mainly on operational instead of strategic issues as per interview guide. His responses were concise and brief. This is despite some probing from the researcher's side. The interview ended well and the researcher felt well received.</p>
10	2014/12/02c	Greater Johannesburg	<p>Demographics and logistics</p> <p>This was a male participant in a male-only soccer club. One of his other roles was that of being a business advisor to young players. The researcher initially gained access through the club founder who secured an appointment with his subordinate, the club manager. The meeting was scheduled for 12H00 at a specified shopping mall but the participant only arrived at 12H30. Just before the interview could start, he further delayed the meeting by over two and half hours citing family responsibilities. The interview was later done in a corner of a restaurant in the presence of a soccer player (a gentleman) who was travelling with the participant.</p>

Participant	Interview date	Region	Description
			<p>Key contents captured</p> <p>The participant focused more on football tactics instead of strategic issues. This could be due to the fact that he is both the manager and coach. The researcher did his best to probe him to focus on managerial issues and not the technical aspect. To his credit, he seemed to have ideas on how to solve some of the South African soccer administrative problems.</p>
11	2014/12/02d	Ekurhuleni	<p>Demographics and logistics</p> <p>This was a male participant in a female and male soccer club. Following a telephonic enquiry the club founder delegated the club manager who happened to also be the ladies' team coach to participate in the interview. The researcher was given the liberty to arrive at any time of the day, and this was a welcome gesture as the previous participant's (nine) predicament affected the researcher's schedule.</p> <p>The researcher, however, had to wait for almost an hour for field training to be completed before the interview took place at the roof of the grand stand.</p> <p>Key contents captured</p> <p>Despite having 15 years of industry experience as a soccer player, the participant was still trying to find his feet regarding his new managerial role for the club. His focus was mainly on operational instead of strategic issues as per interview guide. He expressed his frustration regarding poor facility management and the lack of ethical standards within the soccer fraternity.</p>
12	2014/12/03	Tshwane	<p>Demographics and logistics</p> <p>This was a male participant in a male-only soccer club. One of his other roles was that of being a voluntary administrator in other local clubs. The participant wanted a thorough explanation regarding the reason for him to partake in the study. The researcher was happy to oblige. The participant opted to personally drive to the researcher's premises to be interviewed there. The participant arrived five minutes before time.</p>

Participant	Interview date	Region	Description
			<p>Key contents captured</p> <p>The participant has been in his position for over seven years. He dwelled a great deal on operational and technical matters instead of strategic issues. The researcher did his best to probe him but was not always successful. This is probably because he is also an ex-professional player and had a lot say from a technical point of view. The participant concluded the discussion by raising concerns regarding poor officiating and maladministration which he claimed existed within South African soccer.</p>
13	2014/12/09	Ekurhuleni	<p>Demographics and logistics</p> <p>This was a male participant in a male-only soccer club. One of his other roles was that of being a community leader. After a struggle (due to incorrect details on the contact list) the researcher and the participant agreed to meet at 12H30 on the date in question. The researcher was frequently calling the participant for directions until he reached his destination (the participant's home). Upon arrival, the participant informed the researcher that the venue he had set aside for the interview was no longer available. As a last resort, the car in which the researcher was travelling was thus utilised for the interview. After a great deal of rapport building the interview eventually commenced.</p> <p>Key contents captured</p> <p>The participant focused on operational issues instead of strategic discussions as per questionnaire guide. A great deal of the interview time was spent on problems experienced by South African soccer clubs. Also apparent was the participant's concerns regarding the lack of adherence to FIFA rules and poor officiating.</p>

Source: Author's own compilation

Note: The province of focus is Gauteng. As alluded to in the preceding chapters, this is relatively the most strategic province in terms of sport activities, infrastructure and other critical resources.

This table does not include information on education and the participants' experience, as such details are furnished and deliberated upon in the subsequent sections of this chapter. This information can be useful when seeking to understand why certain participants provided certain responses, and to provide the reader with a mental picture of the type of participants who were involved in the study.

It is noteworthy that when interviewing Participant 2, his colleague, who is a co-manager, also participated in the interview. This interview was done in the presence of around 10 persons, some of whom happened to be players. The researcher was also keen to observe non-participating persons' (soccer players who were present during the interview) body gestures (which were positive) when club managers attempted to respond to the questions being asked. Nonetheless, the atmosphere was vibrant and enthusing. Only two of the 13 participants were women. This is despite the fact that almost half (5 out of 13) of the clubs were ladies-only clubs. Moreover, a quarter of the participants were from dual (male and female) clubs. These numbers and other observations were captured in the researcher's personal journal.

A total of 118 pages were captured in this study. The average number of pages per participant is $9.83 = 10$ ($118/12$). The input(s) of participant 2 and 3 were combined, as they were interviewed together.

Fluctuations and trends regarding the page and word counts could have been due to many factors. Saturation point could have been one of the major factors which may have played some role in the variation of page frequencies and word counts of the interviews (Morse, 1995; Guest *et al*, 2006). It could also be as a result of the level of participants' involvement in the strategic issues of their respective organisations. Other reasons for variance in the words counts could be subject knowledge and subject interest levels of these participants. Furthermore, the various themes which emerged and which are linked to the research objectives will now be discussed.

5.4 THEMES LINKED TO THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This section was developed as a result of what the researcher observed during first-level coding (see Table 5.2). The first-level coding sets the tone for the second-level coding which is thus the basis from which the themes were developed. Consequently, this second-level coding served to address the various themes which are linked to the objectives of the study. The themes are further divided into sub-themes. These themes and sub-themes are derived from codes which are provided by participants. The codes were highlighted with due regard to the research objectives.

The common themes which were noteworthy during the second-level coding analysis were the involvement of clubs in strategic planning processes; perceptions about strategic planning processes; strategic planning process components; strategy analysis tools; and the value attached to the strategic planning process. A hermeneutic approach was used to holistically interpret and thereby seek to understand the meaning of data within the context of the study (Remenyi, 2015).

5.4.1 The involvement of clubs in strategic planning processes

This section should address the two questions of who is involved and how are they involved in the strategic planning processes of soccer clubs. The involvement of clubs in strategic planning issues was highlighted to address the objectives regarding who and how often the clubs take part in the strategic planning processes. In this theme the role of participants and those involved in the planning sessions and other strategic planning processes issues are considered as sub-themes. These sub-themes were aspects of the research question of “who is involved and how are they involved in the strategic planning processes Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs?” and were pertinent to addressing the research objective of “to expound on the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs’ involvement in strategic planning processes”.

5.4.1.1 Who is involved in the strategic planning process of soccer clubs and how often do the planning sessions occur.

While it is widely acknowledged that there are challenges in terms of the strategy implementation due to the gap between the executors and strategic planners, nearly all of the participants indicated that they employ a hands-on approach throughout the clubs' strategic planning processes. This was a probable response in that the majority of such participants were fulltime in the employ of the soccer clubs.

The "hands-on" approach may be a good thing for the soccer club manager to have, however this does not necessarily mean that these managers spent sufficient time on strategic planning issues.

Participant 1 indicated that she was in the full-time service of her soccer club. When asked about her level of involvement in the strategic planning processes of her soccer club this is what she had to say:

"Everyday I'm working with coaches, players. Coaching the players." (Also see 1:6:8).

Participant 1 seemed to be the link between the management team, coaches and players. Also not different from what Participant 1 indicated, Participant 8 was quick to mention his hands-on approach in the service of his club.

"I'm hands-on. Each and every day I'm there. Every time, even when players need me they know where to find me and contact me. Each and every player has my number." (Also see 8:5:2).

Participant 12 also seemed to be involved in the activities of his club on a daily basis. What is not clear was which of the activities he was involved in and whether these were actually part of the strategic planning processes.

Participant 12 indicated an everyday involvement with his club.

"I'm hands-on in the day-to-day running of the club" (Also see 11:4:6).

It can be acknowledged that some participants may go about their daily activities without ever thinking about the future.

It is however an encouraging sign to have hands-on managers since strategy is often hampered by poor execution due to lack of initial involvement of participants.

In this instance the researcher considered the time which participants took to attend to their strategic planning processes. The degree of involvement in a particular course of action is often proportionate to the degree of one's interest in an organisation. For instance, with regard to time allocated for strategic sessions, Participant 1 was quoted as follows:

“Because like sometimes you don't like get enough time. Sometimes we can say six months because once we plan something, we don't even often have like many meetings. We like have once a month for planning.” (Also see 1:3:11).

Participants claimed to have little time set aside for strategic sessions. This is despite having indicated that they have a hands-on involvement in the issues of the clubs. There is thus a strong possibility that the major part of their involvements are rather operational and technical in nature and very little focus is given to strategic issues.

This is consistent with what various research studies alluded to (Hassan, 2010; Jansen van Rensburg, *et al.*, 2013). Moreover, Alm (2013) alludes to many instances where governance and strategy come together in terms of time allocated to deal with strategic issues and in instances where accountability for such strategic issues is required (during the strategy evaluation stage). This challenge was particularly highlighted in the corporate context, however, this seems to be also applicable in sports organisations such as soccer clubs.

Regarding strategic sessions Participant 6 was quoted as follows:

“We meet once a quarter to discuss the annual plan. Every Friday we meet just to check how far we are with activity reports on what each of us is doing, and the challenges also.

So we meet four (4) times a year but we make sure that every Friday or every second week, we meet to check the progress reports. So we meet as sports team and we meet individually with managers discussing strategic issues”. (Also see 5:4:3).

This indicates some relatively reasonable time given to strategic issues. However there were some participants who only managed to hold strategic sessions once a year.

Even though this was less regular, it cannot be concluded if that could be deemed as ineffective. However since this study is not about measuring effectiveness, this cannot be deemed a major concern on the participants' part.

For example, Participant 8, when asked regarding the frequency of their strategic sessions was quoted as follows:

"We do have an Annual General Meeting (AGM) that takes place at the beginning of the year so that we go through the plans of the year. And we also have monthly meetings for the committee to be able to deal with short term issues that always arise.

It depends now on what type of meeting we have because an AGM includes everyone that is involved in the club. And then you divide, say on a weekly basis a technical meeting where coaches meet to discuss coaching issues.

You also have a time to deal with stakeholders meeting where we meet with the parents; football authorities to try resolve other issues. So there are different gatherings that we have. Sometimes we have workshops where we educate ourselves in terms of saying this is what we've seen happen in other areas and how we can incorporate it within our place." (Also see 7:4:5).

In this section it became apparent that many of the participants merely focused on the day-to-day issues even though these were registered as a matter of a strategic nature. Very few participants seem to focus on the 3 to 5 year term in terms of their planning processes and planning cycles. Of noteworthy, some participants seems to plan ahead for one year while utilising their interim tactical sessions to keep track of progress. Barrows (2009) also warns of clearly setting apart time allocated to strategic matters as opposed to the time required for day-to-day activities.

Moreover, it was not always clear to ascertain which people were involved in these strategic sessions. The next section considers the few instances where those who were involved in strategic sessions were indicated.

5.4.1.2 How is the involvement of participants in strategic planning processes of soccer clubs?

Participants also explained how they are involved and whom they involve in sessions or meetings of a strategic nature.

The managers indicated that they frequently engaged in these strategic sessions with their colleagues and in some instances categorically stated the number of persons who were involved to that effect. The frequency of such sessions ranged from once a year, which was obviously inadequate, to daily, which appeared to be unrealistic.

As already alluded to, most clubs' managers assumed multiple roles, which were strategic, operational, administrative and technical in nature.

Participant 8 was one of the few who was able to indicate the management structure, and who is also involved in the strategic planning process of his soccer club.

Participant 8 mentioned the following:

“A structure that runs the team so we set up our management committee where we have the chairperson of the club and the deputy. We have the secretary that deals with paper work and secretarial issues. We have the treasurer that leads the finance committee. We have the team manager that manages the whole team.” (also see 7:2:4).

The above, as well as other participants shared their experiences in terms of their sessions of a strategic nature. Of interest is how some of the participants mentioned how little time they had to spend on strategic sessions. This is in line with literature, that little time is dedicated to strategy (see Section 3.4 of the literature).

Only a few of the participants appeared knowledgeable and relevant in dealing with issues of strategic nature. One of these participants was Participant 5.

“We meet once a quarter to discuss the annual plan. Every Friday we meet just to check how far we are with activity reports on what each of us is doing, and the challenges also. So we meet 4 times a year but we make sure that every Friday or every second week, we meet to check the progress reports. So we meet as sports and we meet individually with managers discussing strategic issues.” (Also see 5:4:3).

Participant 6 clearly separated what was strategic and what was not. Table 5.3 highlights the frequency of and number of attendees at strategic sessions.

Table 5.3: Frequency and attendees at strategic sessions

Participant	Number occasions per year/ month/week	Stated attendees
P1	2 times per week	Management team (including the participant) and coaching staff
P2 & P3	Daily	Not clearly stated
P4	Once a week	Managing director (the participant), coaching staff and the board.
P5	2 times a month	Football manager, team manager (the participant), logistics manager and coaching staff
P6	4 times a year	Football manager (the participant), 2 x team managers and coaching staff
P7	Once a week	CEO/manager (participant), management team and coaching staff
P8	Once a year	Management team (including the participant), coaching staff and the board.
P9	Once a month	Management team (including the participant) and coaching staff
P10	Daily	Management team (including the participant) and coaching staff
P11	Once a week	Not clearly stated
P12	Once a year	Management team (including the participant) and coaching staff
P13	Once a month	Management team (including the participant) and coaching staff

P=stands for participant

Source: Author's own compilation

The table above lists the strategic sessions which are attended by club manager and their colleagues. Participants 2 (& 3) and 10 indicated that they spent the most time on strategic sessions, which according to them took place on a daily basis. This however appeared to be unrealistic. The researcher believed that this appeared to be impractical, given the number of days available to do work per year.

On the other end, Participants 8 and 12 appeared to be relatively the least active in terms of holding strategic sessions with each recording one session per annum. The latter were closely followed by Participants 1 and 6 with two and four sessions each, respectively. It is to be noted that the researcher did not have any prescribed guidelines of how frequently the strategic planning session should be held, particularly by soccer clubs.

In terms of the number of attendees per sessions, the findings were inconclusive, given that most the participants did not feel inclined to state this categorically. Noteworthy though, more than half of the participants made inferences that their strategic sessions, as well as decisions being taken involved more than three persons. It was also not very clear who the decision makers were and/ or what the attendees' capacities were, in terms of executive management, administrators, the board, the technical team or volunteers. Perhaps these managers may have misinterpreted and thereby confused strategic sessions with team talks and other sessions of operational nature. For instance, Participant 10 demonstrated misinterpreting which issues were strategic in nature.

“How it works is that we have a full-on season plan and now and then, or should I say daily, one needs to revisit. Fortunately I sit by myself and on very few occasions I get to sit with my superiors to discuss. But now, I can safely say daily, one sits and thinks about how to make ends meet in this club.” (Also see 9:4:3)

Such kind of short-term mind set could be at the root of the unrealistic feedback which some of the managers may have provided to that end. Overall, there was at least some level of involvement in strategic issues. At the heart of the latter reality lied the key reasons, such as passion for the game, limited resources as well as the clubs inability to attract and retain credible volunteers.

Participant 3 mentioned the involvement of the board during the strategic planning sessions.

“There are coaches and the management team and the board of directors.” (Also see 3:2:3).

Participant 8 also indicated the use of the board.

“They also engage our local football association as to say being the governing body, how can they help in terms of making sure that we fall in line with what is required from a football club. That is our board that helps us in terms of managing and guiding the club to be in line with our main objectives and goals. And then we have the management of the club, that runs the club.” (also see 7:5:3).

Participant 5 is one of the few who indicated the people involved in the strategic planning sessions.

“We have the head of sports who helps us with our planning. Also when we plan we have to report to him to make sure we are in the right line. We have the coaches, two coaches: the head coach and assistant coach. We have myself, the manager. And we also have a logistics manager who normally looks after the kit.” (Also see 4:2:6).

Nonetheless, some of the data provided useful indications of some strategic activities and the lack thereof from the soccer clubs in question and in a broad sense. There seem to be some confusion between what is strategic and what not, since some of operational and technical issues were registered by participants as strategic matters. Moreover, there seem to be less formalised structures which can also address issues of strategic nature. There is an apparent lack of the board participation (who could have been more inclined to become involved in strategic issues in most of the clubs). The above observations are also coupled by the annual or even shorter focus, instead of a 3 to 5 year focus which is apparent from literature. All the mentioned issues seem to raise questions regarding the perceptions which the participants may have about the strategic planning process.

5.4.2 Participants' perceptions about the strategic planning process

There appeared to be some uncertainties regarding which activities were operational, tactical and strategic in nature. For instance, a weekly meeting to discuss the soccer match fixtures and the logistics thereof, the team talk between players and the coach, as well as annual planning meeting by management often appeared to be of strategic importance to some of the participants.

While all these activities are indispensable and integral to the aspiration of the clubs, not all of them are strategic in nature.

The participants often accentuated their perceptions with regard to changes within their internal and external environments. Moreover, it seemed as if some participants regarded these environmental changes as either challenges and threats or strides and opportunities for their clubs. It was not entirely clear how they perceived the resilience of their strategic planning processes in the face of environmental changes and challenges, or of the impact of environmental changes on their strategic planning activities.

Naturally, perceptions of strategic planning differ. With that in mind, when seeking to understand the perceptions of soccer club managers regarding the strategic planning processes of their respective clubs the following were the sub-themes which were highlighted:

5.4.2.1 The environmental (both internal & external) changes observed

According to Oreja-Rodríguez and Yanes-Estévez (2007) the reflection of the environment can be deemed as one of the major steps in all strategic planning processes of an organisation.

This sets the tone for a market-relevant response to the organisation's opportunities and threats in relation to its strengths and identified weaknesses (Tafti, Jahani & Emami, 2012). In light of these, when the participants were asked what the major changes observed during their tenure were, this is what Participant 9 had to say:

"In terms of resources, I should think that they have dwindled from what we [name omitted to protect identity] used to be known for, to what it is today. Resource wise, we are scraping." (Also see 9:1:6).

Participant 12 had this answer:

“Nothing much has changed because we’re always faced with challenges with regards to SAFA delaying kick-offs because they don’t address challenges the team has or had in the previous season so you find delays because the club won’t start the league without having answers to challenges they had the previous season.” (Also see 11:1:6).

Participant 10 experienced negative changes in terms of dwindling resources, whereas Participant 12 did not experience any changes although he had anticipated some form of improved administration of the soccer league. Both these scenarios point to negativity within their respective clubs and may pose undesirable future threats for the respective clubs.

In this section the imperative for soccer clubs to be able to efficiently manage their internal environment became apparent. Parallel to that is the need to mitigate challenges, changes and threats which may emerge from the external environments. These two requirements are only possible if soccer clubs managers are knowledgeable about the dynamics of both the internal and external environments, as such knowledge or lack thereof may affect on how the soccer clubs go about undertaking their strategic planning processes.

5.4.2.2 Potential improvement proposed

The proposing of potential improvements may stem from strategy evaluation reports that have been generated (Hrebinaik, 2006). This strategy evaluation process, however, may not always take place if the level of commitment is misplaced. It is thus why Barrows (2009) warns about the danger of frequent rescheduling or dropping of strategic sessions from the business calendar. In light of the proposing of potential improvements, when asked what they think can be done to improve their strategic management process, this is what some participants had to say:

Participant 6 advocated for the involvement of knowledgeable people who can run South African soccer associations. This seemed to suggest the scarcity of such people.

“I think what we need to do more is firstly to make the powers that we understand the activities of football and football as a business.

We also have to involve more students, especially those in their final years to get as much knowledge as possible, and to make sure that we come up with events that will expose the realities of the industry because textbooks alone don't suffice.” (Also see 5:5:2).

Participant 8 emphasised the need for education for those who are running the soccer clubs and pleaded for assistance from the major stakeholders.

“Most importantly, it's to acquire the right knowledge because one of the problems I've noticed is that we run clubs without the proper knowledge of how to do that. And if we can be able to get that form of assistance in terms of educating people on how to run clubs.” (Also see 7:6:3).

Participant 13 focused on the efforts which his clubs can make to see improvements.

“Telepathy and more training to the team.” (Also see 12:4:2).

Participant 13 joked about telepathy which refers to reading the mind of others as well as the need for his club to train harder in order to realise some improvements.

The proposed improvements of the strategic planning processes by the participants required efforts from both the internal and external stakeholders in order for them to be realised. This is consistent with what Hassan 2010 and the King Committee on Corporate Governance (2009) state regarding stakeholder involvement and their efforts in the strategic planning processes (also see Section 3.2 in Chapter 3 of this study.)

5.4.2.3 Success in strategic planning

The management may need to reflect on the organisation's strategic success according to Ferkins, *et al.* (2005) and thereby seek to build on positive points that have been identified.

In light of positive points, participants were asked what they considered to be working well and what they were proud of as far as their strategic management process were concerned.

When explaining the strategic success of his club Participant 6 indicated the following:

“What I’m proud of our team has produced good players. The first South African national team to win a world cup, if you remember it’s under 12 in France, earlier in 2001. We had a player [Name omitted to protect identity] there who came straight from us. So he managed to play for the national team under 12 and managed to win the whole cup.” (Also see 6:6:3).

This answer may not directly relate to the research topic, but it nonetheless provides some indication of how the latter participant keeps track of the strategic objectives which his club set, particularly regarding the processes undertaken towards youth development, which is one of FIFA’s imperatives.

Participant 13 indicated one of the club’s strengths.

“In this case, we manage time very well. It’s very consistent. That’s what we’re proud of.” (Also see 11:4:2).

Meanwhile, the latter participant perceived time management and consistency as positive points which could yield strategic success. Time management and consistency thus could serve as strategic assets which could positively propel the strategic processes of an organisation and enable it to enjoy a competitive advantage over its rivals. All the same, the strategic planning process can never be without challenges.

5.4.2.4 Key challenges faced by the strategic planning process

Some of the key challenges to the strategic planning process may also be linked to the weaknesses which the organisation may have in responding to the environmental conditions (Trainer, 2004; Barney 2003). Honest and true introspection is required if a solution to strategic challenges are to be found. Participants were also asked what their key strategic challenges were, and this is what some had to say:

Participant 1 was concerned about funding.

“The challenge is funding. We don’t have funding we know because it’s not nice for a kid to go to the ground from 9am with no food. That’s the main thing that keeps me awake.” (Also see 1:5:10).

This indicated a concerned participant who was desperate to find a solution to the problem at hand.

Participant 10 was more concerned about the challenge of having to realise the set goals.

“One would say, realizing one’s dream. Realising the overall vision of the team or of the club. (Also see 9:5:5).

You know, one’s dream or one’s vision personally it gives one joy to selflessly influence change in another human being’s life. Having said that, the boys I have identified don’t only want to come to the fold for financial gain.” (Also see 9:5:6)

At the heart of the challenges to the strategic planning process was a lack of clear-cut solutions by these clubs and this reality hindered the strategic planning processes from yielding the desired fruits. All the above variables are better summarised in Figure 5.1 below:

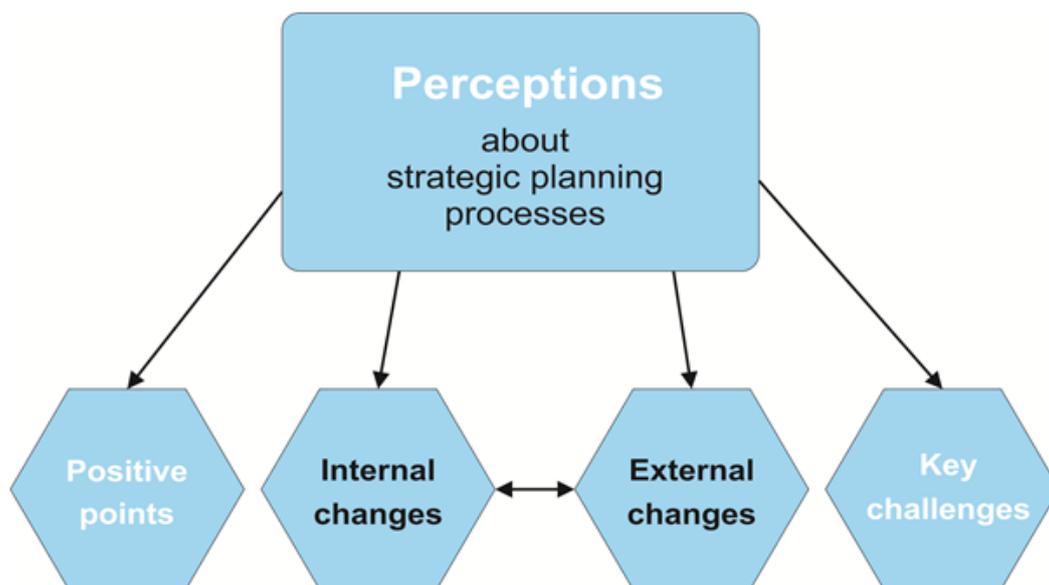


Figure 5.1: Perceptions about strategic planning processes

Source: Author’s own compilation

The perceptions about the strategic planning processes highlight the changes from the internal and external business environments. These changes may be positive and may be regarded as pockets of excellence, or they may be negative and thereby constitute the clubs’ key challenges. The external changes do have an impact on the internal changes.

Some of the external changes are often imposed on the organisation. The onus thus rests with the organisation in terms of how they respond to these changes. Since strategy is a means to an end and not an end in itself, positive points ought to be celebrated, while bearing in mind that there are constant challenges ahead which need to be overcome. There is a need for soccer clubs to differentiate between all those challenges and weaknesses which are within their control (and especially those which may be self-inflicted) and those which may be beyond their control.

With the use of a SWOT analysis and an internal audit (which are part of the strategy analysis tools discussed in this study) these challenges and weaknesses can be isolated, analysed and addressed. If such systematic steps are taken, this could assist soccer clubs in making meaningful progress with regard to their strategic planning processes. The strategic planning process components shall now be discussed.

5.4.3 Strategic planning process components

At least from the traditional or process perspective the strategic planning process components may largely consist of strategic direction, environmental analysis, strategic objectives and strategic choices (see Section 3.2.1 in Chapter 3). Of note was the fact that the most participants focused squarely on the strategic direction and long-term goals and they somewhat disregarded the other strategic planning process components. There was however, no mention of strategic intent from any of the participants. The two broad sub-themes will be discussed under the headings of strategic direction tools and long-term goals.

5.4.3.1 Strategic direction tools

According to literature, strategic direction involves the vision, mission and strategic intent (see Section 3.2.1.1 in Chapter 3). While this was not entirely required, some of the participants were very keen to disclose their vision, mission and long-term goals and how they planned to realise them.

For instance, Participant 7 took time to outline the vision of his club as follows:

*“But our vision is educating, raising a child that is aware of the surroundings.
“(Also see 1:7:5).*

While Participant 12 mentioned categorically which strategic planning process components his soccer club utilised.

“The vision of the team, the mission, long term goals.” (Also see 12:2:11).

For example, Participant 7 demonstrated categorically the achievement of the club’s vision through the long-term goals on youth development which produced top class players which benefitted both the club and the South African national teams.

“From 2008 we had a vision for 2020. By that time we told ourselves that we need to reach that point that at that time we’ll have Grassroots properly run. We have under 11, under 13, under 15, under 17, under 19 and under 21. We’ll be also having a first team that will be playing in PSL. We’ll be having legends that played at PSL before because now we have players that come from Grassroots and our development that are playing at PSL. We have about 5 of them.” (Also see 6:2:6).

While the latter specifics do not supersede details regarding the soccer clubs’ strategic planning process components, they however provided the researcher with an indication of how well the managers could interpret the respective strategic planning process components of their clubs, particularly the vision, mission and long-term goals.

5.4.3.2 Long-term goals

As a sub-theme, the long-term goals enjoyed the highest mentioning of all the strategic planning process components (also see Table 5.4 below). However it was not clear if some of the participants were actually referring to long-term goals in terms of their long-term nature of between 3 to five years. For instance, Participant 5 was not clear when explaining the long-term goals of her soccer club.

“Most of the time, I work with short term because it helps me plan on a weekly plan. But I also look at the long-term where we want to head to. What is our vision for the team?” (Also see 4:3:4).

This provided more questions than answers. On the other end, Participant 6 was able to extricate and also provided a link between the mission and vision statements, as well as the strategic objectives of his soccer club.

This participant clearly accentuated the clubs future targets while also attempting to divulge the process of attaining such.

Participant 6 explained his understanding of the long-term goals.

“And you do have your vision which is the bigger picture. Which is at the end of the day, what do you want to achieve on a bigger scale? And then when you set up your goals, your vision will now guide how you set up your goals.” (Also see 7:3:8).

More on his quotations to that effect will be included in the next section.

In this section, the various strategic planning process components were considered. Noteworthy, the strategic direction component and its tools, as well as long-term goals were predominantly mentioned. This is taking into account all the interviews with all 13 (12 plus 1) participants. The following table indicates the word and phrase count according to the strategic direction tools as well as the long-term goals.

5.4.3.3 The relationship between strategic direction tools and the long-term goals

This relationship between the strategic direction and long-term goals is outlined in Table 5.4 and also explained below it.

Table 5.4: Summary of word and phrase count relating to strategic planning process components

Component	Vision	Mission	Strategic intent	Long term goals/ objectives	Strategic choice(s)
Number of words/ phrases	45	5	0	46	0
Comments	This was the second most popular word appearing.	This was the word that appeared the second least number of times.	No such word appeared in the discussions.	This include the word “long” as well as objectives	Nothing was indicated regarding this matter.

Source: Author’s own compilation

Despite strategic direction tools dominating the interview conversations, no participant alluded to strategic intent as a tool they utilise or consider.

When asked about their strategic planning process components, both the vision statement and long-term goals were the main items of discussion. Some participants went on to share their clubs' visions and long-term goals in some detail. It should be appreciated though, that the focus of their deliberations and the subsequent analysis thereof ought to rather be on process and not content. While not all the quotations indicated issues of a strategic nature, they nonetheless provided a good indication of the participants' understanding of their strategic trajectory. The following participants explained their strategic direction and long-term goals:

When asked regarding their strategic planning process components, Participant 2 and 3 indicated their club utilised long-term goals.

"I can say long term goals because we want to see players most of them play at the Sasol league. That is our goal. A team must always be at the Sasol league. That is our goal." (Also see 2:3:11).

Participant 6 mentioned the alignment of the vision and mission (strategic direction components) with those of the mother body which his soccer club is affiliated with.

"I think what we have done since I came here is to align the mission and the vision of the organisation which the club is affiliated to [identity removed to ensure confidentiality] to the general core business of the [identity removed to ensure confidentiality]. So whatever that we do must be in line with the business models of the university and what the university wants to do. For example, we don't operate in isolation. We operate in conjunction with marketing so our events are known and me as a football major I have my own visions but I also try to align them with the core business of the organisation which the club is affiliated to [identity removed to ensure confidentiality]." (Also see 5:2:5).

Participant 7 further referred to their vision which is part of strategic direction components.

"But our vision is educating, raising a child that is aware of the surroundings." (Also see 6:3:1).

Participant 8 mentioned both the vision and long-term goal and how these two components are related. His articulation was much more comprehensive than those of the rest of the participants.

“We obviously do have goals: strategic goals, which you divide into a short term, medium term and long term goal. And you do have your vision which is the bigger picture. Which is at the end of the day, what do you want to achieve on a bigger scale? And then when you set up your goals, your vision will now guide how you set up your goals. So maybe you’ll say this year, this is our goal, in the two years this is what we need to do. So it grows into a bigger thing which is your vision.

To say maybe, you want to be the best team in the province after so much time. And those small goals that we have become the small steps that you take in achieving your vision. Or they become the map that guides to what you want to achieve on a long term basis.” (Also see 7:3:8).

In this instance, the vision and long-term goal were conspicuously articulated. However, the strategic planning processes towards attaining such, was unclear. It is imperative for participants to express the strategic planning processes components of their clubs.

Participant 10 mentioned the vision, a mission, short-term, long-term, and medium-term goals and how these elements relate with one another within his soccer club.

“Like any other organisation, we have a vision, a mission, short term, long term, medium term goals. Those are the guiding factors for us to be able to realise the ultimate vision. Short term, like I said, we have cycles of five games and in every five games the minimum that we need to get is about 10 points. If we do well we get 15. If we’ve say we’ve done medium, around 12 points. It’s a good standard that we set for ourselves, unlike putting a rope around our neck and say out of every five games that we play we need to get 15 points.” (Also see 9:3:5).

Participant 10 did not clearly separate the mission, short-term, long-term and medium-term goals of his club. To his credit, some of his club’s short-term goals were clearly expressed through the number of points they need to have achieved at a given point in a season. This is done to ensure that the club can remain in their soccer league.

When dealing with the strategic planning process components, particularly the strategic direction and long-term goals, participants were enthused to share them with the researcher. They appeared assertive in what they wanted to achieve in future. The terms vision, mission and long-term goals were in their vocabulary.

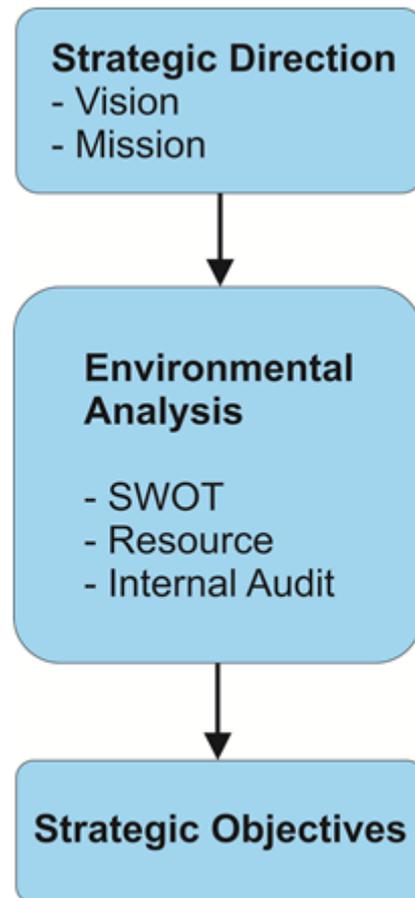


Figure 5.2: Strategic planning process components of Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs

Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 5.2 suggests that strategic planning processes of Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs mainly address strategic direction, environmental analysis, as well as strategic objectives as the key components thereof. This is very much a process perspective. Regarding strategic direction, the vision statement is regarded as a point of departure which articulates the future aspirations of the clubs. Moreover, some consensus is reached by managers in terms of mission statement being derived from the vision statement and that the latter portrays the clubs core business and scope.

Strategic objectives, which are also referred to as long-term goals, conclude the soccer clubs' strategic planning processes components. As sub-themes, both the vision and mission statements were emphasised by the participants. In theory it suggests that strategic choice(s) follow the long-term goals component. However, none of the participants mentioned anything regarding strategic choice(s).

Generally speaking, the participants were also able to make a distinction and link between the various strategic direction tools, as well as long-, medium- and short-term goals.

There were some indications that the participants were focused on what they want to achieve. In terms of the process components nothing was mentioned regarding strategic analysis strategic choice(s) which are useful in enabling them to achieve their goals. The section below discusses the strategy analysis tools used by Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs.

5.4.4 Strategy analysis tools employed

The strategy analysis tools which were discussed were mainly those regarding environmental analysis. The researcher was open to the possibilities of tools which may stem from both the process and emerging perspectives, as discussed in the literature chapters.

Literature suggests that the environmental analysis addresses both internal and external spheres. At the heart of the analysis is the SWOT analysis which is an acronym for strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, as well as the internal audit which is similar to the functional approach (which is a simplistic analytical slant). It follows that the internal and external analyses address the availability of resources and competencies, as well as changes and challenges, respectively. While literature suggests that there are various strategy analysis tools which organisations may employ, it would appear that very few attempts were made by the soccer clubs in question to tap into such tools. Moreover, the proposed tools stem from both the traditional and emerging perspectives.

It became very apparent that the clubs in questions still merely employed a few strategy analysis tools from the traditional perspective. As sub-themes, both the SWOT analysis and resource-based view were top of that list. Also mentioned was the internal audit which is synonymous with the functional approach, which advocates for a simplistic analysis of internal functions such as marketing, operations, finance and other similar functional areas. Some of the managers, particularly Participant 10, seemed to be confused about the use of the SWOT analysis. The participant in question suggested that he employed the SWOT analysis in a literal sense within a match situation.

This clearly relegated the latter tool towards the technical instead of the strategic paradigm which it is originally intended for.

This could be owing to the multiple roles (particularly as a manager and coach) which the participant in question undertook within his soccer club.

Table 5.5 indicates the word and phrase count regarding the strategy analysis tools (for process approach only).

Table 5.5: Summary of word and phrase count regarding strategy analysis tools

Tool	Resources	SWOT	Internal Audit
Number of words/phrases	54	10	1
Comments	The word “resource” was the most popular word appearing.	The word “SWOT” was the second most popular word appearing.	This word “Internal Audit” only featured once.

Source: Author’s own compilation

As indicated before, no emerging perspective tools surfaced out of the conversation with all the participants. Moreover, some participants required a follow-up question to really indicate which tools they actually utilised. Noteworthy, the words “resources” as well as “SWOT” analysis (categorically) was the most widely used. When asked about their respective clubs’ strategy analysis tools, this is what some of the participants had to say:

Participant 5 explained how her club made use of the SWOT analysis.

“We can look at the SWOT. We don’t employ, but sometimes I do look at the SWOT. Before the game we look at what team we’re going to play. Then we sit down with the coach in planning for the games, then we look at the strength we have towards that team and our weaknesses. For instance, when we play against opponent [identity removed to ensure confidentiality] we know that our weaknesses against opponent [identity removed to ensure confidentiality] are the corner kicks and crosses.

We know that we’re not that good in heading so we try to plan as much, try to work around set pieces.” (Also see 4:3:8).

This indicated a misunderstanding of what strategic planning is. In this instance the use of the SWOT analysis is misplaced.

The SWOT analysis is taken to the field of play instead of the boardroom where the strategic planning processes are undertaken. While this SWOT analysis may be employed by the participant in question, it was not entirely clear how effective she thought the SWOT analysis was within her soccer club. This participant, however, passionately explained how the team instead of the club planned for their opponents.

Also we know psychologically players have that thing that opponent [identities removed to ensure confidentiality] has a lot of national team players [identity removed to ensure confidentiality] players so already when you mention opponent [identity removed to ensure confidentiality] they've got that psychological impact so we try as much as we can to plan around that so that when we play against opponents [identities removed to ensure confidentiality] we already know that we've prepared the players psychologically and in terms of the game plan." (Also see 1:7:5).

However, some participants outlined how they employed their SWOT analysis in a less technical perspective. This included the strengths of the club in question, as well as a clear analysis of the challenges of the community they were servicing. Participant 7 goes to some detail to explain some of the strengths which set them apart from other rival clubs. In his discussion, Participant 7 was able to highlight some of the weakness which his soccer club had.

"Our strength is that we've got passion. That's where everything lies on us. Passion and understanding of football because most of the managers and coaches have played football before. As in my family we had a club before when we were growing up. So we understand what football protected us from. Like gangsters, being dark, whatsoever. So now, we love football, we live football. That's our strength.

And our weak point is that we don't have education in terms of coaching. The only person that went for coaching courses is coach [name omitted to protect identity].

He only deals with production. As a CEO, I only have matric but I'm good with educating. I'm good with maths.

I've been working with my friends so that helped me in terms of knowing teaching what I want to teach or pass information to the children. If ever we had good coaching skills and best management courses I think I would've done better than I do now. Opportunities: I can count so many opportunities in football. Number one, I always tell them that it's all about health, happiness and love." (Also see 6:3:3).

The strengths of the club were also highlighted in terms of the type of the players the club had. This is also applicable to the resource of the club, particularly in terms of the human resource capabilities.

Our players are good in retaining positions, in knocking out the ball. In fact they play a good South African football - like Barcelona. That's why we're so famous here.

We've got talent that we developed; we have a name we have built for ourselves. I can say that put us in a good level" (Also see 1:7:5).

In strategic planning terms as well as when performing the skills audit, the process of developing quality players can go a long way towards yielding strategic success. Participant 12 alludes to the possible strength and opportunities which his club stands to gain as a result of forming a partnership with a particular PSL club.

"We normally do an internal audit as a team. We do partly since our partnership with PSL team [identity removed to ensure confidentiality] but we join them in their SWOT analysis. We become part of the process and learning on that." (Also see 11:3:4).

The SWOT analysis appeared to be one of the most known analytical tools to participants. There were also analogies of this method within the field when planning for match opponents. However, the participants indicated little knowledge regarding other tools which could be used in conjunction with the SWOT analysis.

This is contrary to what Lee, *et al.* (2000) suggest regarding not utilising SWOT analysis in isolation (see Section 3.2.2). To complete this chapter, the value that participants attach to strategic planning is discussed.

5.4.5 The value attached to strategic planning

The value attached to strategic planning addressed sub-themes such as commitment, level of involvement, experience, and knowledge about strategy. This can also be indicated by the number of strategic sessions held, the people involved in such sessions and the type of decisions taken (Barrows, 2009).

There was no contestation in terms of the significance of the strategic planning processes toward a fruitful future for soccer clubs. However, it would appear that the value attached to these planning processes was misdirected. There seem to be overzealous efforts invested in the activities of an operational and technical nature. The literature suggests that managers spend very little time on strategic issues as they are always doing firefighting within their organisations (Barrows, 2009). The attitudes of participants towards the organisation's strategic planning processes are important to consider as these may determine the outcomes of the strategic planning processes (Singh, Darwish, & Anderson, 2012).

Therefore, team talks as well as routine administrative caucus may also have been registered as strategic sessions by the club managers in question. This erodes the true reflection of how managers valued the strategic planning processes of their soccer clubs. Moreover, while it could be widely believed that value can be determined in terms of the investment of resources by organisations on strategic planning processes, it was not clear how efforts were made to this effect.

Information regarding the strategic planning sessions could have been reflected in the clubs' reporting documents, but these were not availed by the clubs for the researcher's perusal and consideration. When asked if there were any specific timeframes to adhere to, this is what some of the participants mentioned:

Participant 6 outlined some of his pressing timelines.

"We have to submit reports, presentations for the year, budgets and as far as I know, every year by February, everyone must've submitted everything for the year."

And also submit the annual reports by the 30th of November every year. We also sit annually just after submitting proposals. We sit as a department of sports with our manager to discuss all our wish lists. With the leagues, there will be dates and times where we're supposed to release the players. These are times where you submit claims for travelling." (Also see 5:2:3).

This was one of the lowest amounts of time spent by participants in the strategic planning processes of their clubs. Participants also shed some light in terms of what they discussed during their meeting of a strategic nature. For instance, Participant 7 explained how their vision was considered.

"From 2008 we had a vision for 2020. By that time we told ourselves that we need to reach that point that at that time we'll have Grassroots properly run. We have under 11, under 13, under 15, under 17, under 19 and under 21. We'll be also having a first team that will be playing in PSL. We'll be having legends that played at PSL before because now we have players that come from Grassroots and our development that are playing at PSL." (Also see 6:2:6).

Participant 7 explained how they consider their planning cycles.

"We did set ourselves something like that. We set up a long term vision. An 8-year-plan which is vision 2018. Our medium term goal, we set up a 4-year-cycle, vision 2014. So far, we have just completed our 4-year-cycle so we're half way through our long term project to say now we can review to say what we've done right, what has worked, what we need to improve going onto to the other 4-year-cycle we're left to complete the 8-year-plan. Anyway it's a continuous plan." (Also see 7:3:4).

The planning cycle alluded to by Participant 8 is line with the FIFA World Cup hosting cycle which was also mentioned in the literature when the conceptual model for strategic planning in South African soccer clubs was discussed.

Participant 9 indicated the timeframes which he had to adhere to, but again these were operational in nature.

Participant 9 mentioned one of the deadlines his club was faced with.

"Registration of players which were done by the end of November. We registered all the players." (Also see 8:2:3).

Noteworthy, some of these timeframes ranged from operational, such as player registration and adherence to window periods, as well as more long-term strategic issues which deal with the strategic direction of the club such as those alluded to by Participant 8 when adhering to FIFA World Cup calendar.

This required the soccer club to make some form of investment of time, efforts and resources even though these aspects are often limited.

These findings also demonstrated how some managers may have been attaching value to issues of a strategic nature. Some participants were also keen to involve the various stakeholders, such as community members and government officials. This is consistent with what Sosik and Dinger (2007) stated with regard to charismatic leaders using the vision to gain and maintain power through their influence on followers.

Moreover, knowledge about the importance of strategic management answers the questions related to value attached to strategic planning.

The strategic direction tools and long term goals outlined, as well as the timelines to adhere to, may also demonstrate the value they may attach towards their strategic issues. Figure 5.3 summarises the value attached to strategic issues.

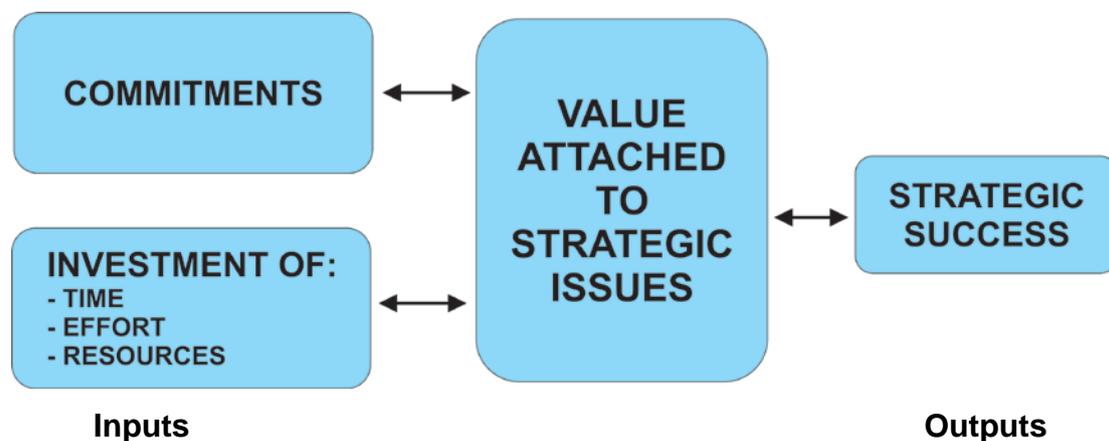


Figure 5.3: Value attached to strategic planning processes

Source: Author's own compilation

According to Figure 5.3, in summing up inputs from participants, the researcher suggests that the value attached to strategic planning issues is a subject of commitment by management, the investment they put in, as well as the knowledge they have about the processes they engage in.

These can be regarded as inputs into the strategic planning processes undertaken. There are expected outputs in the form of pockets of excellence to report about, and the overall achievement of strategic success. These can also be regarded as the benefits of attaching value towards strategic issues.

5.5 OTHER RELATED THEMES WHICH EMERGED FROM THE ANALYSIS

There are other themes which emerged during the content analysis and the interview guide. These themes were not necessarily directly in line with the research objectives, but they are in many ways linked to those themes which addressed the research objectives. While various researchers can choose other themes, this depends on their paradigm and how they view the world they live in (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). The researcher's paradigm enabled him to arrive at these additional themes, as these were related to the strategic planning process even though not directly responding to the research questions of this study. For example, in this study three more themes emerged very strongly and will be also be highlighted, as it may have an effect to the strategic planning processes of soccer clubs. These are governance, ethics and social responsibility; incentives and commitment; managerial experience and qualifications. In no specific order of significance, these are discussed below.

5.5.1 Governance, ethics and social responsibility

This topic also forms part of the policy framework aspect which could serve a guide for strategic planning processes for not-for-profit organisations such as soccer clubs in South Africa (see section 3.5.2 in Chapter 3). In the literature chapters the researcher attempted to show the link between strategic planning processes and governance.

For example, Ferkins, Shilbury and McDonald (2005), as well as Schulman (2012) heighten the importance of governance during strategic planning implementation and control. Schulman (2012) infers that governance capability is central to strategy development, implementation and evaluation. There is a further attempt by the King Committee on Corporate Governance (2009) to link governance, ethic and social responsibility through the King reports. This also sets the tone for the link between governance and strategic planning processes.

As it is widely acknowledged the issues of governance, ethics and social ills dominate the discussions of societies worldwide, with soccer globally experiencing its fair share of problems in this regard (see Section 2.3.1 in Chapter 2).

With the data collected from the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs it became apparent that these aspects constituted some of the clubs' foremost challenges. Calls for urgent interventions by SAFA and the South African government were made in dealing with these changes.

In many instances, the interview participants were often confronted with issues such as corruption, match fixing, biased refereeing and bribery, even at SAFA levels. Almost unanimously, these participants found themselves disempowered to address such challenges and looked upon authorities to intervene to restore due parity and confidence in the soccer governance and match officiating. These challenges regarding poor governance are said to be hampering the strategic planning processes of soccer clubs, since the effects thereof are already filtering down to club levels. It thus came as no surprise that some of the participants advocated for interventions, such as moral regeneration among the SAFA ranks and society at large.

For instance, Participant 4 made the following remarks regarding morality and ethics:

“The thing is - you see - the children need moral regeneration. Religion brings the character. It makes now a challenge to have morals.” (Also see 3:7:2).

Participant 4 continued to mention the following regarding the combination of talent and morals by soccer players.

“A player can be gifted and skilled but if morally, if he doesn’t know how to discipline himself? If he doesn’t have morals, that skill will be wasted. That is why we emphasize this moral regeneration.” (Also see 3:7:4)

The issue of morality and ethics seem to be a concern, not only for players but for soccer officials as well. For instance, Participant 8 alleged how bribery and corruption were ruining local soccer.

“I almost forgot one of the major issues that really frustrated me recently because corruption has been a big issue in terms of officiating because we are playing international leagues right now which is Sasol and there’s relegation and promotions. Referees have been ruining our games because of bribery and corruption. You find out that a certain team already fears a certain team. And then when we go to a game -obviously we have legal match fees that we pay to the referee. And you find that after paying those match fees, certain teams go to a certain extent of overpaying the referee to try to influence the results of the game.” (Also see 7:12:1).

In the literature chapters, it was apparent that issues of morality, ethics, corruption and bribery were not only unique to South African soccer but were also a concern at FIFA level (see Section 2.3.1 in Chapter 2).

In their contributions to the discussions, some participants implored various stakeholders, such as the government, SAFA and the private sector to intensify their efforts in education and soccer infrastructure.

These issues of education, soccer infrastructure and resources were perceived as critical remedies to curb unethical behaviour. As a case in point, the King report mentions seven characteristics of good corporate governance, namely, accountability, discipline, fairness, independence, transparency and social responsibility.

In our study, this section or theme was the most discussed and it was thus fully captured during the interview. All 13 (12 plus 1) participants mentioned aspects which fall within this theme. Therefore, the codes which fall under this theme are the most populated of the codes.

The participants were keen to express their convictions in terms of governance and social responsibility issues. Some of the codes from participants which deal with social responsibility were highlighted.

For instance, Participant 4 stated:

“The thing is - you see - the children need moral regeneration. Religion brings the character. It makes now a challenge to have morals.” (Also see 3:72)

This is generally a welcomed input in any social setting. However, how moral regeneration will enhance the strategic planning process of his soccer club was unclear.

Furthermore, Participant 8 cautioned about the social lifestyles of participants.

“I’d say the social lifestyles. I don’t know how that can be improved because I think it is affecting our sports. As much as we try to collect these kids, as much as we try to build something for them, there’s an always social challenge that we face that I’d say they are beyond us as clubs. It’s a national problem that we do have. We find out the abuse of substances is a problem. (Also see 7:11:1)

The participants further elaborated on the type of challenges which affected their respective clubs as well as their immediate communities. The need for stakeholders’ engagement came out strongly in the proposal to curb the social ills which affected clubs.

Issues of alcohol become a problem in terms of affecting our players. That’s why I’m saying it’s a national thing because it doesn’t only need clubs. Clubs must be part of the solution but alone it cannot challenge. We need the governments and all the organisations that are there to say let’s work together in terms of trying to build our society because social issues have a lot of effect in our football.

We’ve lost so many players due to social ill-discipline where they end up doing the wrong things.” (Also see 1:7:5).

Participant 11 indicated challenges related to match fixing and bribery.

“That’s your match fixing in terms of our football. It’s been there for years - the bribery, that’s what’s demolishing our football or sports in general.”

“It’s to look into these issues regarding the bribery and match fixing. Who are the culprits that conduct this match fixing and briberies.” (Also see 10:7:2).

Both the above and other participants (not mentioned) highlighted their plights and the challenges of those within their surroundings. Not only did the participants mention these social problems, but possible solutions were also proposed. Albeit, this not being the focus of the study, it became encouraging for the researcher to see the participant’s keen interest in some of the governance principles and social responsibility issues. Some of which were moral regeneration through religious values, to improve social lifestyles, to clamp down on the abuse of alcohol, to foster discipline through sport, to involve government in community initiatives, to fight crime and corruption and to heighten good governance principles and ethics.

As indicated in Chapter 3 of this study, the King III Report unequivocally recommends due regard to governance when strategic planning processes take place. Moreover the legitimate claims of the various stakeholders are to be considered.

The notion of social responsibility featured almost spontaneously, as virtually all participants were keen to air their views to this presage. Some went on to share the processes which they were undertaking to this end. For instance, Participant 7 alluded to sport against crime, as well as education for the youth projects which are under his stewardship.

In Figure 5.4 the researcher seeks to summarise the feedback from participants as far as this section is concerned.

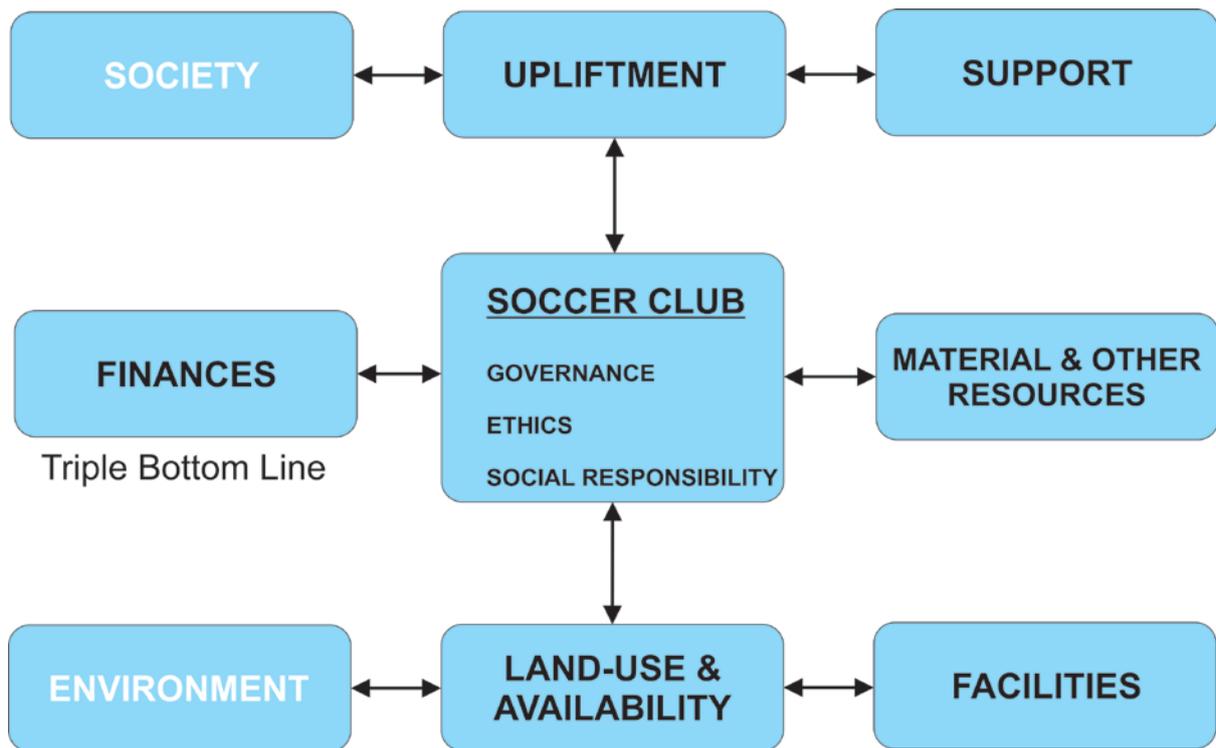


Figure 5.4: Governance, ethics and social responsibility for Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs

Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 5.4 depicts governance, ethics and social responsibility as far as the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs are concerned. These variables are considered with triple bottom line principles in mind. Triple bottom line addresses the social, financial and economic, as well as the environmental impact which the soccer clubs may make to its key stakeholders. This suggests that society draws support and upliftment from the soccer clubs in order for it to survive. Moreover, this is in fulfilment of the soccer clubs' social responsibility mandate. The clubs will have good financial standing and have adequate resources to honour their mandate within society. Moreover clubs use the available land and facilities responsibly and optimally so as to realise the maximum benefits out of them. The environmental protocol dictates how soccer clubs respond to the environment. As opposed to the morally deficient organisations, the morally inclined organisations are more likely to receive buy-ins from their various stakeholders in terms of the strategies and the strategic planning process they may propose and follow. This is because stakeholders will be more at ease to charge the morally inclined organisations to undertake the strategic processes at hand (Schulman, 2012). The theme regarding incentives and commitments of the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs will now be discussed.

5.5.2 Incentives and commitment

With the principles of accountability, fairness and transparency in mind, the King III Report further provides guidelines for the remunerations and incentives of top and other managers (King Committee on Corporate Governance, 2009).

Moreover, an inclusive approach is recommended when decisions of a strategic nature are taken. The incentives for managers of soccer clubs left a lot to be desired. Contrary to popular beliefs, poor incentives had no negative effect on the commitment of the managers of the soccer clubs. The participants discussed at length the commitment to their clubs and their passion for the “beautiful game” of soccer.

When discussing agency, managerial hegemony and stewardship theories, researchers argue that the extent of involvement in the strategic management process and the overall day to day operations of the organisation are considered (Shilbury, 2001; Miller-Millesen, 2003; Hoyer, 2004; Hoyer & Cuskelly, 2007). These theories also infer about the minimum expectations which business stakeholders have about each other. For instance, Miller-Millesen, (2003) alludes to Stewardship theory, where managers are stewards who are motivated to act not out of self-interest but in the best interests of their principals. This is parallel with the self-less contributions which some of these soccer club managers give without receiving payment for their efforts.

In this study, it became apparent that each soccer club dealt with this matter differently. Table 5.6 provides a summary of the incentives and commitment of the participants.

Table 5.6: Summary of incentives and commitment of participants

Participant	Incentive	Full time manager	Comment (if applicable)
1	No	Yes	There is no incentive received
2&3	No	Yes	There is no incentive received
4	No	Yes	There is no incentive received
5	Yes	No	Telephone allowance and study bursary. Currently a full time student
6	Yes	Yes	Stipend
7	No	Yes	There is no incentive received
8	No	Yes	There is no incentive received
9	No	Yes	There is no incentive received
10	Yes	Yes	Stipend
11	Yes	Yes	Performance bonus only
12	Yes	Yes	Stipend
13	No	Yes	There is no incentive received

Source: Author's own compilation

Twelve out of 13 participants indicated that they employ a “hands-on approach” when it comes to the strategic planning processes and other issues of a managerial nature. And yet, only three out of 13 participants mentioned that they receive payment for their services. The rest of the participants do their managerial duties on a voluntary basis and without any payment.

This often tests the degree of one's interest in an organisation (Hassan, 2010). When asked about his involvement in the day-to-day running of the organisation this is what Participant 8 had to say:

“I'm hands-on. Each and every day I'm there. Every time, even when players need me they know where to find me and contact me. Each and every player has my number” (Also see 8:5:2).

Still on the same question regarding incentives, Participant 4 mentioned the following:

“I’m involved a lot. Like I deal with 80% of the team’s needs so every day I have to make sure I’m updated with what’s happening. Even when I’m writing [examinations] I have to make sure that I’m up to date and that everything has been done. The players I have to ask them what their challenges are for the week.” (Also see 4:6:5).

As alluded to earlier, only five out of 13 participants confirmed that they receive incentives for their efforts. These incentives range from a stipend, a performance bonus, a telephone allowance to a study bursary. When asked if management is paid for their services, this is what some participants had to say:

Participant(s) 2:

“No” (Also see 1:7:5).

This is despite having been involved in the management of soccer for over five years. However, Participant 4 had a different experience as she received some form of incentive which enabled her to carry out her duties with little resource frustrations.

Participant 5:

“No, we’re not paid but I do get a bursary. That’s what keeps me motivated and working with my players, they motivate me on a daily basis. Sometimes - monthly they give me like R300 towards my airtime so that I call players. I’m also able to call the coach if I need something.” (Also see 4:7:11).

Participant 6, on the other hand, operated in an environment where monetary incentives existed. This was by far a rare finding in this study.

Participant 6:

“Everyone who is involved is paid. We call it adhoc. Adhoc is when you pay people without contracts. They are paid for their hours spent with the team. I think we pay R50 p/h. (Also see 5:8:3).

While half of the managers did not receive any incentives for executing their tasks, this did not deter them from going about their strategic planning processes.

At no point during the interview was there any indication from any of the participants that they intended giving up as a result of incentives. Therefore, the participants displayed unwavering postures in term of their intentions to soldier on and stay committed to their course. There was deep sense of passion and commitment to soccer and their clubs respectively. Still, no indications of self-seeking tendencies ever emerged during the discourses. What became unanimously apparent was a plea for better facilities, seamless administration, as well as high moral resurgence by SAFA officials who were charged with the duty of improving South African soccer. Managers seem appreciative of any little advances which the clubs and SAFA made in terms of monetary and non-monetary incentives. Their resolute and steadfast passion for the game seems to suggest that they were committed to their strategic courses with or without incentives.

There was confirmation that some form of remuneration took place. It is to be noted that the latter participant's club was one few which was able to offer some monetary incentives to its participants.

Therefore, the researcher picked up that there was no clear link between incentives and commitment as far as the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs' managers were concerned.

It is not clear how monetary and non-monetary incentives, or the lack thereof, affected the participant's ability or enthusiasm towards carrying out the strategic planning processes of their soccer clubs. However, the execution of the strategic planning processes without due monetary incentives may not be sustainable over a long period of time. The managerial experience, as well as qualifications of Gauteng SAFA soccer club managers or coaches will now be discussed.

5.5.3 Managerial experience and qualifications

Managerial experience, as well as education and training featured prominently in the discussion that the researcher had with participants. It became apparent that most participants valued the importance of education in helping them to better manage their clubs and to better deal with their strategic planning processes. The managerial experience ranged from 20 years and to a mere two years.

On the qualifications side, only a few had managerial qualifications. Most participants appeared keen to count the number of year they had spent within the clubs and the soccer fraternity at large. There was, however, some hesitancy whenever these participants had to disclose their qualification levels. Furthermore, the experience most participants alluded to had to do with playing soccer, as well as coaching and other technical aspects. These aspects had little to do with the strategic planning processes of the clubs.

Table 5.7 summarises the participants' experience and qualifications. This is meant to understand the calibre of some of the persons who are responsible for SAFA soccer clubs within the Gauteng regions.

Table 5.7: Summary of participant's experience and qualifications

Participant	Industry experience	Managerial experience	Qualifications
1	Six years	Six years	Secretarial diploma; Sports administration; Financial Management; Coaching courses
2 & 3	Five years	Five years	No formal qualifications were acquired
4	20 years	20 years	Life skills training
5	One year	One year	Officiating and coaching science diploma (still studying)
6	Six years	Six years	B.Ed. in Physical Education; Advanced management programme; Level 2 SAFA coaching certificate; Level B coaching license with FIFA
7	15 years	13 years	First aid course
8	Five years	Four years	Sports administration course; Child tune athletics course, 5 X coaching certificates
9	Five years	One year	Coaching courses; Life skills training; First aid course
10	Nine years	Three years	Coaching course; Life skills training; First aid course
11	15 years	Two years	Coaching course (still studying)
12	14 years	Seven years	Coaching course; First aid course
13	Four years	Four years	No formal qualifications were acquired

Source: Author

With reference to Table 5.7, out of the 12 interviews conducted, Participant 3 is the most accomplished within his industry with managerial experience of 20 years, and this was a huge exception to note. Moreover, Participants 7, 11 and 12 had over 14 years of industry experience, respectively. Participant 6 was the second most accomplished in terms of managerial experience.

When asked about their experience and tenure, this is what they had to say:

Participant 4:

“As a founder and director, I think 20 years” (Also see 3:1:2).

This was by far the most experienced participant who took part in this study.

Participant 7:

*“It’s more than 13 years. It started informally but by 1998 the idea started there.”
(Also see 6:1:2).*

In considering managerial experience, Participants 4 and 8 are the least accomplished with one year’s experience each. When asked about their experience and tenure, various responses were provided.

Participant 5:

“I’ve been here for a year now.” (Also see 4:1:2)

Participant 9 had five years of service.

“Five years, we have a committee that’s been running for one year.” (Also see 8:1:3).

Only Participants 2, 3 and 13 have no formal qualifications and never attempted to acquire and qualifications. However, there was an inference made by Participant 13 that he was not content with his situation. When asked about his qualifications, the following is what Participant 13 had to say:

“Embarrassing none”. (Also see 12:4:14).

This response seemed to be a worrying factor and suggested that the participant was not happy about the status quo. The importance of having a formal education seems to have come to the participant’s attention. Participants 1, 6 and 8 seemed to be the most accomplished in term of job-related and formal qualifications. For instance when asked about their qualifications, this is what they had to say:

Participant 1:

“I’ve got a secretarial diploma. And then I’ve done short courses like sports administration and financial management and coaching” (Also see 1:7:1).

This also benefited the local soccer association, as this participant also offered her services to them as treasurer. The administration and financial management skills were some of necessary assets which enabled her to discharge her managerial duties.

Participant 6 was the most accomplished in terms of the level of education.

"I have a B.Ed in Physical Education, a Sports Science diploma and now I'm doing an Advanced Management Programme which is a bridging course for MBA. You realize that when you study Physical Education, there's a module for football where you do Administration and Management of Football Coaching and Management of Football. I also have Level 2 of SAFA coaching certificate. I have a B license for FIFA, and all of those coaching qualifications to assist me in making sure that the teams are good in coaching and administration." (Also see 5:7:1).

Most of Participant 6's qualifications were much more useful to enable him to deal with technical issues rather than strategic issues. Although, since Participant 5 was pursuing an advanced management programme, this was most relevant towards enabling him to handle managerial matters and issues of strategic nature.

Participant 8 accomplished a lot in terms of technical qualifications, as well as sport administration and sports leadership courses.

Participant 8 had both the technical and managerial qualifications.

"I did a Sports Administrations course in 2010. It was a short two weeks course which was organised by the Department of Sports. And then I also did a couple of short courses - there was one called the Sports Leader - it was a short course dealing with how to organise and lead events, how to manage projects. I also did a couple of coaching courses.

Like, I currently have the SAFA Entry Back-tarry Coaching Certificate. I also did a 10VV, two-day Introductory Coaching course, and then the Child tune athletics, as well as the TTZ. It was last year so I think I do have about five coaching certificates." (Also see 7:9:2).

Participant 8 was able to articulate what the courses he completed were and their usefulness towards helping him fulfil his managerial role within the team. As a sign of encouragement, all the participants appeared keen to acquire more knowledge, skills, education and experience for the benefit of their clubs and community. None of the participants ever suggested the insignificance of education.

Moreover, more often than not, the names of both SAFA and FIFA were mentioned as some of the organisations behind the skills and the knowledge the participants did acquire thus far. There was one participant who had no formal qualifications for the managerial role he played, and did mention categorically that he was embarrassed about it. Moreover, the majority of qualifications ranged from coaching and first aid courses which were more technical in nature and had nothing to do the manager's propensity to handle matters of a strategic nature.

This discovery serves as an indictment to the manager's ineptitude to effectively carry out their strategic planning processes. Some participants were still hoping to improve their education levels and believed this move was critical towards advancing the strategic planning processes of their respective clubs. There is little evidence that suggest that the participants' level of education, as well as industry experience impacted towards carrying out their strategic planning processes. As for strategic management education, it was clear that most of the participants confused the operational and technical issues with matters of a strategic nature.

5.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the researcher reported on the findings regarding the strategic planning processes employed by the SAFA clubs within the Gauteng regions. This study therefore considered how soccer clubs are managed in the context of strategic planning and how strategic planning is perceived and employed. Various themes related to the research objectives were explained so as to allow the researcher to make meaningful conclusions. The following themes were discussed: the involvement of clubs in strategic planning processes, participants' perceptions about the strategic planning process, strategic planning process components, the strategy analysis tools employed and the value attached to strategic planning. These themes were further cascaded into sub-themes with due regard to the research objectives and questions. These were other themes which emerged but which did not directly relate to the research objectives and questions of this study. These additional themes which were discussed were: governance, ethics and social responsibility, incentives and commitment and managerial experience and qualifications. These themes were however important to include since they had some effect in the strategic planning processes addressed in this study.

The findings thereof may prove to be significant to the body of knowledge in that there is no evidence to suggest that a similar study in South Africa was ever conducted in this context before. Most of the studies in strategic planning were in corporate context.

This thus opens up a new window of opportunities to explore sports organisations as far as strategic planning processes are concerned. In the next chapter the researcher will interpret the findings and thereby make conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter serves the purpose of interpreting the findings in an attempt to compare them to the research objectives, as well as the literature which was covered. The status quo for Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs in terms of their strategic planning process is to be discussed so as to afford the researcher to make meaningful conclusions. The findings will be compared with what the literature suggests, and in so doing the gaps between the finding and literature will be established. These gaps will further enable the researcher to make relevant recommendations. The recommendations thereof are stakeholder specific with soccer clubs as the key intended targets. The chapter will be concluded by considering the limitations encountered throughout its undertaking, as well as the contribution of this study to the body of knowledge.

6.2 RESEARCH THEMES COVERED

This section first deals with the secondary objectives of the study. This will be done by reaching conclusions based on findings from interviews undertaken, and linking it to the literature. The final part of this section addresses the overall main objective of this study. Based on this information, meaningful conclusions and subsequently useful recommendations can be made. This section departs with the main research objectives.

6.2.1 Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs' involvement in strategic planning processes

While there are no clear and prescriptive guidelines from literature or from SAFA as the mother body, some of the strategic sessions of the clubs involved were said to be taking place at least on a daily basis. This is unrealistic and indicates a lack of knowledge about what strategic planning actually entails.

It could be safe to conclude that the level of involvement in planning differed from one team to another. For instance, only four clubs indicated that they have a board in place.

This lack of governing structures may hamper governance and accountability and is contradictory to literature which encourages accountability through the agency theory (see Section 1.10 in the literature). As such, it is necessary for SAFA to provide guidelines on who should be involved in the strategic planning sessions of the soccer clubs and at least how often these sessions should be held.

Most of the participants seemed to confuse operational and technical issues and activities with issues of a strategic nature and strategic planning. For example, most of the participants (who are all soccer club managers) were either also involved in coaching or frequently engaged with the coaches on issues of a technical nature. Therefore, sessions with coaches took precedence over sessions dealing with strategic planning. Moreover, a team talk which is technical in nature as well as an operational meeting to finalise travelling arrangement with the logistics manager may have been included in the participants' records of strategic sessions, which may be misleading.

As such, it can be concluded that the participants are very involved with the clubs on a day-to-day basis, but their level of involvement with regard to the strategic planning processes of their soccer clubs are difficult to ascertain. All the same, the current reality calls for urgent training and education interventions with regard to strategic planning and management.

6.2.2 The perceptions of Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs regarding strategic planning processes

Participants were asked about the changes they have observed within their internal and external environments over a period of time. This was a reflective question which attempted to gather participants' analysis and perceptions of a strategic nature. At the same time some of the changes they have observed were operational in nature. For instance, there is nothing strategic regarding changes in the closing dates regarding the registration of players, match rescheduling and payment of match fees, yet these observations features strongly in responses. Moreover, some elements of a SWOT analysis, and in some instances, resources which they have utilised featured a lot in the participants' vocabulary. This is partly in line with what is in the literature in term of the use of a SWOT analysis (see Section 3.4 of the study).

Thus the conclusions of this research objective take the form of both the positive points highlighted and the key challenges reported.

- **Positive points**

Many of the participants alluded to their achievements, most of which were rather operational and short term in nature instead of strategic. Only a few of the participants managed to actually realise and/or exceed their strategic objectives as initially set out. As positive points, a few participants managed to indicate how they have achieved their long-term objectives, and link this to the vision of their soccer clubs.

- **Key challenges faced**

Participants expressed challenges which occurred from both the internal and external environments. For instance, some participants indicated that they lost valuable players to bigger clubs and others were unable to fulfil their financial obligations. These challenges also translated into setbacks, loss of income and other lucrative opportunities. This aspect is normally linked to the unrealised strategy which Mintzberg, *et al.*, (2005) allude to. This can also be as a result of forces from the environment.

Thus the participants perceive strategy as a process which may entail both successes and challenges. This is consistent with what Blair-Loy, Wharton and Goodstein (2011) and Lazenby (2014) allude to (see Section 3.4 in the literature). As such, their expectations ought to be constantly managed. Tafti, Jahani and Emami (2012) also allude to the need for organisation to be prepared to respond to possible challenges and opportunities (see Section 3.2.4 in the literature chapter). There seems to be a reactive approach to challenges and opportunities by the soccer clubs in question. Only a few of the participants were able to anticipate possible challenges and changes and thereby duly mitigate against them. Moreover, it is not clear that the positive points which some of the participants boasted about were as a result of premeditated strategic efforts and thinking. More time needs to be set aside to engage with stakeholders on the strategic planning processes and governance issues of the soccer clubs. (See Section 3.5.2 of the literature chapter).

As such, there appears to be an urgent need for strategic thinking for the soccer clubs in question.

6.2.3 Strategic planning process components employed by Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs

The consideration of what aspects are entailed in the strategic management process is very limited. In the 12 interviews conducted, the strategic direction (vision and mission) and long-term goals were by far the elements that featured the most. Strategic direction was further categorised into vision and mission statements while nothing was mentioned regarding strategic intent.

Contrary to the seeming importance of the notion of strategic intent (Rui & Yip, 2008; Peace & Robinson, 2013; Louw & Venter, 2013) none of the participants expressed the use of or even knowledge of this strategic direction tool. It is thus safe to conclude that the long-term goals and the vision statement are the two mostly considered components as far as the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs are concerned. This constitutes a rather limited view of the strategic planning process, since environmental analysis and strategic choice elements were not regarded as important components of the process, a view that is not consistent with theoretical perspectives of strategic management process (also see Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010; as well as Robbins, DeCenzo & Coulter, 2012).

It can be concluded that in terms of the strategic process components only strategic direction tools (in vision and mission statements), environmental analysis (in terms of SWOT analysis, resources and internal audit) as well as the long-term goals are known to the soccer clubs in question. As such, the strategic direction tools, such as statement of strategic intent, as well as the strategic choice components Ehlers and Lazenby (2010) and Robbins, DeCenzo and Coulter (2012) allude to are not utilised and hence misplaced (also see Section 3.2.1 of the literature chapter). This poses a worrying picture for soccer clubs in terms of their knowledge of strategic planning, with the resultant better responsiveness to environmental challenges and their level of competitiveness in general.

6.2.4 Strategic planning analytical tools employed by Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs

The strategic planning process tools were also discussed. The tools which this study considered were mainly centred on environmental analytical tools. These tools were considered from both the process and emerging perspectives.

From the process perspective, literature discussed tools such as resource-based view, SWOT analysis, value-chain analysis and strategic groups (Pearce & Robinson, 2013; Lazenby, 2014; David, 2011; Worthington & Patton, 2005; Pina-Mavarez, 2011). Most of the participants indicated that some time is allocated for analysing their environments. This is consistent with what Wei-Hin, Kadzrina-Abdul and Abdul-Manaf (2014) suggest regarding environmental scanning and its usefulness towards strategic planning [See Section 3.2 in the literature chapter].

Respondents generally did not make use of strategic analysis tools. The only tool that was mentioned was the SWOT analysis, which was mentioned 10 times, and in some instances this was mentioned in relation to technical issues (such as identifying the strengths and weaknesses of opposing teams). While one respondent did refer to auditing, checking and evaluation, this tool was not regarded as a traditional strategic analysis tool. The plethora of strategic analysis tools available to strategists, such as value chain analysis, resource-based view (in specific) and industry analysis were all but ignored by soccer clubs. Moreover, all other process and emerging perspectives tools did not feature at all, and this represents a mismatch with what the literature suggests (see Section 3.2 in the literature chapter). The under-utilisation of such tools suggests that an opportunity is missed which could have been realised if other strategic analysis tools were explored.

Moreover, there is sparing use of the strategic analysis tools. Even with commonly employed tools such as the SWOT analysis, the use thereof is often misunderstood. For instance, some of the managers especially those who are coaches may want to apply SWOT in match situations instead of in the board rooms where strategic decisions are made.

6.2.5 The value of strategic planning to Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs

When dealing with the value that participants attached to issues of strategic planning processes, themes such as incentives, commitment and the level of involvement were highlighted, since they constituted some overlap.

In this instance, the strategic planning components of strategic direction and long-term goals should also be taken into consideration. Broadly speaking, this objective will be discussed under the headings of incentives, commitment and level of involvement.

- **Incentives**

Only five of 13 participants indicated that they receive some form incentives, only three of which receive an actual monthly stipend. The other two only receive a study bursary plus an allowance and match performance bonuses. The rest of the participants do not receive any incentives. This seems to propose a negative effect in terms of strategy (see Section 3.3 of the literature section). Strategy ought to be accompanied by incentives as part of its key instruments.

- **Commitment**

It was noted that a total of 12 out of 13 participants indicate that they employ a hands-on approach in terms of their strategic planning processes within the clubs, while only one participant indicated otherwise. This display of passion and commitment for soccer and to the club may be an opportunity to find formal employment or to manage a resourceful club (see Section 2.7 in the literature chapter). This element of commitment was further evident in the participants' articulation of the soccer clubs' vision, mission and long-term goals.

- **Level of involvement**

The total number of strategic planning sessions, as well as the number of times per year that participants participate in strategy sessions was inconclusive (see Section 5.3.1 in the findings chapter). There was no indication that any of these sessions ever get cancelled or postponed, which according to Barrows (2009) is a growing reality which soccer clubs may want to guard against (also see Section 3.5.1 in the literature chapter). It is also inconclusive to mention who of the attendees actually honoured these scheduled sessions in a consistent manner.

Moreover, the honouring of these strategic sessions cannot yield any bearing towards the soccer clubs realising strategic success. There is a need for SAFA to provide guidelines in term of the frequency of the strategic planning sessions by soccer clubs as well as who should attend such sessions.

In a nutshell, it can be concluded that for the soccer clubs to show strategic success, greater commitment and involvement by key stakeholders in the strategic planning processes are imperative. Moreover, both the monetary and non-monetary incentives as well as adequate resources are necessary in converting the vision of the soccer clubs into reality. Incentives can never be ignored, as their existence does affect the strategic planning processes (see Section 3.3 of the literature section). This brings the discussion regarding the exploration of the strategic planning processes which are employed/ followed by the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs to a close.

6.2.6 Strategic planning processes employed by Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs

This section provides a summary of all the above themes as it forms the key part of the discussion of this study. During the interviews there was no evidence to suggest that any of the soccer employed or considered employing any other perspectives but the process perspective. It can thus be concluded that the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs follow a process perspective. With the strategic planning process components and the strategic analysis tools captured, the emphasis was and the entire discussions remained domiciled within the process perspective which is traditional in nature. This is contrary to literature which considered both the process and emerging perspectives (see Sections 3.5 and 3.6 of the study). In the past, strategic management has always followed a rigorous process which is the traditional perspective (Mintzberg, *et al.*, 2005). This seemed to be the best way to achieve strategic success. However, Barney and Hesterly (2012), as well as Lynch (2012) suggest the consideration of the emerging perspective. The emerging perspective is regarded as a perspective which can afford modern organisations some strategic flexibility. As a result, both perspectives were considered in this study, but only the process approach appeared to be pertinent to the soccer clubs in question.

It could be confirmed and concluded that there were some instances where most of the participants focussed on both the operational and technical issues as opposed to matters of strategic importance within their respective soccer clubs. This thus cast some doubts in terms of the confidence and knowledge of these participants as far as the strategic planning processes are concerned. The focus on both the operational and technical issues would compromise the time set aside to focus on issues of a strategic nature.

It can thus be concluded that the need for a clear separation of operational and technical issues from the strategic issues merits the urgent attention of the soccer clubs. This confirms what Business Day (1999) as well as Ehlers and Lazenby (2010) state in Section 3.4 of the literature chapter, in terms of the barriers to strategy.

Generally, the participants seem committed to the worthy cause towards improving the standards of South African soccer, particularly at grassroots levels. This is demonstrated by some of the achievements, vision and long-term goals they alluded to. This is despite challenges such as limited resources, lack of finances (monetary and non-incentives), limited stakeholder support, bribery, match-fixing, corruption and lack of professionalism (from officials and colleagues) which they experience in their daily lives as soccer club managers. The challenge, however, lies in the way they go about charting their way forward. Most of their focus is either operational or technical and has little to do with issues of a strategic nature. As a result, the strategic planning processes of such clubs are misplaced. More time, resources and efforts are needed in the issues of a strategic nature if these clubs are to forge forward with their business missions.

With all the themes having been discussed, the following can be concluded:

- Given that these soccer clubs are small organisations, they do not always have the luxury of time and money to spend on strategic planning; as such strategic planning activities are relegated to the periphery of their add-on duties. As such, it is important that strategic planning be put at the mainstream of business of the soccer clubs.

- These soccer clubs are often preoccupied with their day-to-day running, so much that they do not spend any time on strategic planning. In some cases where they claim they do strategic planning, most often this refers to operational and technical planning.
- They tend to use only elements of strategic direction (vision, mission) and long-term goals and spend very little time on strategic analysis and strategic choice, i.e. they focus on where they want to be (which is an element of vision), but not how they are going to get there (an aspect which may be addressed by the mission statement and goals).
- Knowledge of strategic planning processes seemed to be very low. Their knowledge in the area of strategy seemed to be very limited in terms of what strategic planning is and why it is important to them.
- Despite having indicated a hands-on approach, participants seemed concerned about lack of funding and incentives. The lack of these funding and incentives may cause frustrations.
- What is encouraging is that the participants seemed eager to learn more about strategic planning and business management in general. As such, more education and training as well as business coaching and mentoring are indispensable.

Having considered the above, Nieboer (2011) proposes a strategic planning process model where policy principles are used to provide the NPOs with the necessary strategic direction and governance underpinning (see Sections 3.4 and 3.6 of the literature chapter).

Moreover, in Section 3.6 of the literature chapter this study proposes a conceptual model for strategic planning in South African soccer clubs. This model, if adopted, may serve to make a difference in the strategic planning processes of the soccer clubs in question. The next section deals with recommendations to that effect.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

In this section, recommendations and subsequent future research proposals are made. Several stakeholders are affected, mainly soccer clubs, SAFA, the corporate sector and the ministry of sport and recreation.

6.3.1 Recommendations

The following are recommendations for soccer clubs:

- **Education and training**

From the findings and conclusions, it became apparent that the soccer managers did not understand strategic planning and the strategic planning processes of their clubs. From the interviews undertaken with the soccer clubs involved, there seemed to be a rather lot of emphasis on operational issues instead of the strategic perspective.

Knowledge regarding strategic issues was not convincingly demonstrated by most of the participants. A strategic management course is thus recommended for all members of management. This could equip them to apply the principles of strategic planning, strategy implementation and strategic control. The academic sector could play a huge role in fulfilling this aspect since this constitutes part of their social mandate.

Education and training can avail new ways of looking at strategic processes as well as strategic processes components and tools.

- **Business coaching and mentoring**

Due to the commercialisation of sport, soccer ought to be regarded as a serious business. Thus, ongoing business coaching and mentoring is encouraged. The private sector may also offer non-monetary support by assigning mentors to soccer clubs through sponsorship schemes. More exposure in terms of business coaching and mentoring of the strategic process components is necessary for soccer clubs to achieve their strategic success is necessary. This could be realised through constant engagement with current reality, educational initiatives and environmental assessment.

The following are recommendations for SAFA:

- **Ethical and responsible leadership**

Some participants indicated unethical conduct by some of the SAFA officials and how this affects the growth potential of soccer, especially at grassroots level. This should be applicable at all levels including SAFA officials, soccer clubs, community and corporate business. Any of the strategic decisions these stakeholders may make must be such that are triple bottom line compliant by considering the economic, social and environmental feasibilities. This is also in line with the recommendation of the King reports (King Committee on Corporate Governance, 2009).

- **Transparency and accountability**

Some participants registered their concerns regarding the last minute administrative challenges and changes which they experience when liaising with SAFA officials. Lack of professionalism, poor communication, transparency and accountability were key challenges.

This can be addressed if a board of trustees is appointed to oversee the progress and conduct of the executive, managers, volunteers and the technical team. The board may also perform advisory duties. This is in line with agency theory (Shilbury, 2001).

- **Punitive measures to curb the scourge of corruption**

Some of the participants alluded to the challenges of dishonest acts, such as match fixing, bribery and corruption in soccer. The ministry of sport and recreation, SAFA, CAF, FIFA, soccer clubs, sponsors, the media, and supporters must devise and be made aware of harsher consequences for dishonesty and corruption in soccer. Any party found wanting and guilty in this regard should without fear or favour receive due castigation(s). At the same time, progress in curbing dishonesty should be reported on, promoted and celebrated.

- **Stakeholder engagement**

As many stakeholders as possible should be involved when key decisions are taken. This is necessary at club, SAFA and ministry of sport and recreation levels. During gatherings and deliberations proper consultations with all key stakeholders should occur so as to consider their legitimate claims.

This perspective is in line the King report recommendations as far a strategic planning is concerned (King Committee on Corporate Governance, 2009).

- **Monetary and other incentives**

It is often mentioned that those who are involved in the business of sport, let alone soccer, are driven by passion instead of financial gain. Be that as it may, all those involved in soccer do have financial needs, bills to pay and families to support. Strategy may also require among other things, rewards systems in order for it to yield its desired fruits (Lynch, 2012, Lazenby, 2014).

The lack of income was also a reality for football players at grass-roots levels, especially in women soccer, and this has adverse effects on level of commitment and overall professionalism. These state of affairs are concerning hence they cannot be left unaddressed if the development agenda of soccer is to succeed. The business sector, SAFA and ministry of sport and recreation should club together in address the monetary concerns prevalent within the soccer fraternity. As such it cannot just be taken for granted that they can be sustained by passion alone, hence the call for them to be compensated and/ or remunerated for their efforts.

The following are recommendations for the ministry of sport and recreation:

- **Interventions from ministry of sport and recreation**

Nine out of 13 participants complained of the poor state of soccer facilities which they utilise to train and hold soccer matches. This is contrary to the 2010 FIFA World Cup legacy report (Mbalula, 2010); it would appear that many grassroots soccer facilities still leave much to be desired. This may negatively affect the strategic planning of the soccer clubs and their overall growth prospects.

While progress has been made by the ministry of sport and recreation and other stakeholders, soccer infrastructure development needs to be accelerated if the state of South Africa's soccer is to be significantly improved.

6.3.2 Future research

With the above recommendations in mind, it is important that the progress made be monitored and reported. As part of future research, an impact study of the above recommendations is necessary.

A follow-up study ought to be undertaken to monitor if there are improvements and better prospects for South African soccer. This could inform policy and other decision makers in their quest to take the country's soccer, and sport in general, forward.

More education, training, business coaching and mentoring are identified as one of the much needed interventions for the soccer clubs in question. Progress made in this regard ought to be monitored. In future, the strategy implementation and strategic evaluation and control of the strategic planning processes of such clubs may be explored.

6.4 STUDY LIMITATIONS

The study is limited to SAFA regions in the Gauteng province only, and this may pose challenges in realising an accurate reflection of what is happening in other SAFA regions across South Africa. It might be imprudent for the research to generalise the findings thereof, as these may not be a true reflection of what is happening around the rest South African regions, or other existing sporting codes.

A snap shot perspective was employed when data was collected, at a different period with different participants, or at different levels, which means that the findings could be different under different circumstances. There were instances during the interviews where some of the participants made certain accusatory inferences against SAFA. No SAFA official was interviewed in this study, it is possible that such interviews could also have yielded further interesting findings, and this could have suggested a contrary state of affairs.

6.5 STUDY CONTRIBUTION

Grant (2003) argues in order to adapt to turbulent environments, all types of modern organisations ought to have strategic planning processes. Basson (2003) suggests that sport organisations are also compelled to be strategically inclined in order to be able to respond to the challenges posed by the commercialisation of sports. De Grandbois (2013) suggests that with strategy in place organisations are able to plan and organise themselves better and their projections may be well set out. There is thus the need to explore the strategic planning process of soccer clubs. Many previous studies considered the strategic planning processes, particularly in the corporate context. This is given to challenges which the clubs experience in terms of poor planning and greater emphasis on operational issues at the expense of strategic matters. There is a need for theory development on the strategic planning processes which can be located within the not-for-profit organisations and sports organisations, and this is a shift from the traditional focus of researchers on big corporates.

Not enough research has been conducted on the role and effect of strategic planning processes and practices within the not-for-profit sector, and in the sport fraternity in general (Hoye & Doherty, 2011). There is no evidence to suggest that a similar study in South Africa was ever conducted in this context previously, and this may thus provide useful information of how non-corporate organisations, not-for-profit organisations, particularly soccer clubs employ their strategic planning processes. This study thus makes that key contribution to the sport fraternity and to the body of knowledge in this context.

In this chapter conclusions were outlined as the researcher endeavoured to interpret what the findings suggested to be the status quo for Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs. Recommendations were made to all stakeholders, primarily soccer clubs, SAFA, government and academics. There were also several interventions proposed and the effect of study thereof deemed necessary. The penultimate section discussed the contribution which this study is making to the affected parties and to the body of knowledge. The chapter, as well as the study are concluded with highlights of certain limitations identified by the researcher. It is therefore safe to mention that this study was worth doing and it could be interesting to see what similar other studies in future will reveal.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE



DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS MANAGEMENT RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

31 October 2014

Ref: 2014_CEMS_BM_022
Mr Kgaugelo Sammy Boya
Student #:32796331
Prof P Venter
Staff #:1999710

Dear Mr Kgaugelo Sammy Boya,

Decision: Ethics Approval

Name: Mr Kgaugelo Sammy Boya- Principal Researcher (bboyask@unisa.ac.za: 0812795253)

Proposal: Strategic planning process employed by Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs.

Qualification: Postgraduate degree

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Department of Business Management Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Final approval is granted for the duration of the project from the date of issue.

For full approval: The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the Department of Business Management on 22 October 2014.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

- 1) The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UN/SA Policy on Research Ethics.*
- 2) Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the Department of Business Management Ethics Review Committee. An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.*
- 3) The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.*

Kind regards,

Prof Watson Ladzani
Chairperson of the sub-unit RERC
Department of Business Management
wladzani@unisa.ac.za

Prof Raphael Mpofo
Executive Dean
College of Economic and Management Sciences

APPENDIX B: PERMISSION LETTER

Department of Management

RESEARCH TITLE: STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESSES EMPLOYED BY GAUTENG SAFA SOCCER CLUBS

September, 2014

Research conducted by:

Mr. KS Boya (32796331)

Cell: 081 279 5253

Dear SAFA Membership Office

My name is Mr. Kgaugelo Sammy Boya, Masters of Commerce Student at the University of South Africa. I will be conducting an academic study with the aim to establish the strategic planning processes which are employed by SAFA clubs in Gauteng. Your permission to interview soccer clubs managers at Gauteng SAFA regions will be highly appreciated.

Please note the following:

- An hour long one-on-one interview will be conducted.
- At least 12 soccer clubs need to participate in this study (this number may slightly increase given the information provided - if this happens you will be informed.
- All responses will be kept confidential. This means that the report will not identify participants.
- The participation in the study is very important; however, participants may end the interview at any time, as this is voluntary.
- Please take note that there is no financial reward, however, the findings of the study which are set to be finalised in a year's time, may be made available to you upon request.
- There are *no* foreseeable physical or psychological risks involved in participation.
- Please contact my study supervisor, Prof P. Venter at ventep@unisa.ac.za, or (011) 652-0346 if you have any questions, concerns or comments regarding this study.

Please sign the form to indicate that you understand the information given above and that you give your permission to allow club manager to participate in the study on a voluntary basis.

SAFA Membership Office

Witness

Date

APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW SCHEDULES

INTERVIEW SCHEDULES

Participant	Date of interview	Region	Demographic information
1	2014/11/26a	West Rand	Female, African
2 & 3	2014/11/26b	West Rand	Male, African
4	2014/11/28	Tshwane	Male, African
5	2014/11/29	Tshwane	Female, African
6	2014/12/01a	Sedibeng	Male, African
7	2014/12/01b	Sedibeng	Male, African
8	2014/12/02a	Greater Johannesburg	Male, African
9	2014/12/02b	Greater Johannesburg	Male, African
10	2014/12/02c	Greater Johannesburg	Male, African
11	2014/12/02d	Ekurhuleni	Male, Asian
12	2014/12/03	Tshwane	Male, African
13	2014/12/09	Ekurhuleni	Male, African

APPENDIX D: INFORMED CONSENT

From: Mr. KS Boya (32796331)

Department of Department of Management

Cell: 081 279 5253/ Tel: (012) 429-3979

September, 2014

To SAFA Member/Soccer club

Informed consent for participation in an academic research project

STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESSES EMPLOYED BY GAUTENG SAFA SOCCER CLUBS

Dear Participant,

You are herewith invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by Kgaugelo Sammy Boya, a student in the Master of Business Management at University of South Africa.

The purpose of the study is to explore strategic planning processes that are employed/ followed by the Gauteng SAFA soccer clubs.

All your answers will be treated as confidential, and you will not be identified in any of the research reports emanating from this research.

Your participation in this study is very important to us. You may however choose not to participate and you may also withdraw from the study at any time without any negative consequences.

Your willingness to participate in an interview will be highly appreciated. Please answer the questions as completely and honestly as possible. This should not take more than 50-60 minutes of your time.

The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. We will provide you with a summary of our findings on request.

Please contact my supervisor, Prof P. Venter at ventep@unisa.ac.za, if you have any questions or comments regarding the study. Please sign below to indicate your willingness to participate in the study.

Yours sincerely,

Kgaugelo Sammy Boya

I, _____ herewith give my consent to participate in the study. I have read the letter and understand my rights with regard to participating in the research.

Participant's signature

Date

APPENDIX E: INTERVIEW GUIDE

STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESSES EMPLOYED BY GAUTENG SAFA SOCCER CLUBS

INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. How long have you been part of the management of your soccer club?

2. During your tenure, what was the major changes you observed with regards to:
 - (a) the manner in which your management operates
 - (b) the external environment
 - (c) resources availability

3. Describe the strategic management process within your soccer club:
 - (a) Who is involved and what are their respective roles?
 - (b) Are there specific timeframes that you need to adhere to?
 - (c) Which strategic planning process component(s) do you consider or utilize?
 - (d) Which strategic analysis tool(s) do you employ?

4. How often do management set aside time for planning and deal with strategic issues?

5. In terms of leading and managing the soccer club, what is the role of:
 - (a) The management of the of the soccer club
 - (b) Volunteer
 - (c) The board (if applicable)

6. What do you think can be done to improve the strategic management process?

7. When you consider your current strategic management process, what works well and what are you proud of?

8. When you consider your current strategic management process, what keeps you awake at night (key challenges)?

9. How involved are you with the day-to-day running of the association?

10. Which academic qualification(s) do you hold to help in executing your task(s)/role(s)?

11. Do the management and team(s) undergo training to equip them for their roles?

12. Do you offer orientation for new members of management? (If yes, what does it cover?)

13. Are the management team paid for their services? (If yes, for which services?)

14. What other roles do you play within the sport fraternity?

15. Is there anything else that you may need to add to all that you have already mentioned?

Thank you for your time!

