# REASONS FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT BY BLACK LEARNERS AT SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVEL

by

**SANELISIWE JEAN AUDREY MCHUNU**

submitted in part fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

**MASTER OF EDUCATION - WITH SPECIALISATION IN GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING**

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: PROF J G LE ROUX

JUNE 2008

# DECLARATION

I hereby declare that: REASONS FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT BY BLACK LEARNERS AT SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVEL 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.

…….. ……..
SANELISIWE JEAN AUDREY MCHUNU DATE

Student Number: 837 6778

# DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my mother and best friend Emigrant for inspiring me with a strong sense of academic achievement and my mentor and friend Aubrey for ensuring that I become the best that I can be.

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

My sincere gratitude goes out to the following people for their assistance towards the completion of this dissertation:

- Prof J G Le Roux for his expert and professional guidance throughout the study.
- Prof G Bester for technical assistance and guidance with statistical analysis and interpretation of results.
- Thandeka Mchunu for sharing her computer knowledge with me.
- Karlien de Beer for readily, willingly and warmly assisting with library material.
- My colleagues at work, especially Nami Mchunu and Mervyn Naidoo for their interest and encouragement.
- My professional friend, Wendy, for her spiritual love and support.
- Dr M N A Mokoape for language editing and proofreading.

# REASONS FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT BY BLACK LEARNERS AT SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVEL

by

Sanelisiwe Jean Audrey Mchunu

Degree: Master of Education
Subject: Guidance and Counselling
University: University of South Africa
Supervisor: Prof J G Le Roux

## SUMMARY

This study was aimed at finding reasons for nonparticipation in sport by black learners at secondary school level. It was carried out with a group of grade 9 to 12 learners who do not participate in sport at secondary schools in black townships. A nonparticipation in sport at secondary school level questionnaire was developed to measure the most important reasons for nonparticipation. Among the reasons learners cited were lack of sport facilities, political factors, social factors and factors related to self-image. Social circumstances were found to be intimately linked and overlapping with political circumstances. For learners coming from impoverished backgrounds, sport comes a very poor second.

Based on the results of the study, a number of recommendations were made for education managers and sport administrators. Contributions of the study were highlighted and suggestions for further research made.

KEY WORDS

Sport, physical education, black learner, physical activity, nonparticipation, secondary school level, facilities, political factors, self-image, social factors, gender, motivation, exercise.

**CONTENTS**

**CHAPTER ONE**

**ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY**


| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1.1 | BACKGROUND | 1 |
| 1.2 | ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM | 2 |
| 1.2.1 | Awareness of the problem | 2 |
| 1.2.2 | Investigation of the problem | 3 |
| 1.2.3 | Statement of the problem | 6 |
| 1.3 | AIM OF THE STUDY | 7 |
| 1.4 | RESEARCH METHOD | 7 |
| 1.5 | DEMARCATION AND RATIONALE | 7 |
| 1.6 | EXPLANATION OF CONCEPTS | 9 |
| 1.6.1 | Black learner | 9 |
| 1.6.2 | Adolescent | 9 |
| 1.6.3 | Physical education | 10 |
| 1.6.4 | Sport | 10 |
| 1.6.5 | Relations theory | 11 |
| 1.7 | RESEARCH PROGRAMME | 11 |
| 1.8 | CONCLUSION | 12 |

**CHAPTER 2**

**THE HISTORY AND ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOL SPORT IN SOUTH AFRICA AND FACTORS INFLUENCING BLACK LEARNERS' NONPARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL SPORT**


2.1 INTRODUCTION 13

2.2 EARLIER HISTORIC INFLUENCES ON PHYSICAL ACTIVITY AND SCHOOL SPORT IN SOUTH AFRICA 15

2.2.1 Origins of sport 15

2.2.2 Global influences on South African sport and physical education 16

2.3 THE HISTORY AND ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOL SPORT IN SOUTH AFRICA IN THE COLONIAL AND APARTHEID ERAS 17

2.4 POLITICAL FACTORS INFLUENCING NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT BY BLACKS 19

2.5 THE ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOL SPORT IN THE DEMOCRATIC AND POST-APARTHEID SOUTH AFRICA 22

2.5.1 The proposed structure for sport at school level 24

2.5.2 The proposed structure for school sport at zonal and local level 25

2.5.3 The proposed regional structure for school sport 26

2.5.4 The proposed national structure for school sport 26

2.5.5 KwaZulu-Natal Department of Sport and Recreation 26

2.6 FACTORS INFLUENCING PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL SPORT 27

2.6.1 Schools and physical facilities 27

2.6.2 Gender as a social influence on sport participation 28

2.6.3 Socioeconomic status as a social influence on sport participation 28

2.6.4 Role models and sport participation 28
2.6.5 Psychological factors influencing physical activity and sport involvement 29
2.6.5.1 The Attribution Theory 32
2.6.5.2 The Goal Orientation Theory 33
2.6.5.3 Self-efficacy in sport 33
2.6.5.4 Reversal Theory 35
2.6.5.5 The Relations Theory 35

2.7 CONCLUSION 37

**CHAPTER 3**

**THE METHOD OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION**


| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 3.1 | INTRODUCTION | 38 |
| 3.2 | HYPOTHESES | 39 |
| 3.2.1 | Hypothesis 1 | 39 |
| 3.2.2 | Hypothesis 2 | 39 |
| 3.2.3 | Hypothesis 3 | 40 |
| 3.2.4 | Hypothesis 4 | 40 |
| 3.3 | SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE | 41 |
| 3.4 | THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT USED IN THE INVESTIGATION | 44 |
| 3.4.1 | Economic factors | 45 |
| 3.4.2 | Availability of facilities | 45 |
| 3.4.3 | Factors related to self-image | 46 |
| 3.4.4 | Political factors | 46 |
| 3.4.5 | Health related factors | 47 |
| 3.4.6 | Social factors | 48 |
| 3.5 | RESEARCH PROCEDURE | 48 |

**CHAPTER 4**

**RESULTS OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION**


| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 4.1 | INTRODUCTION | 51 |
| 4.2 | ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE | 51 |
| 4.3 | RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE | 58 |
| 4.4 | THE MOST IMPORTANT REASONS FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT AT SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVEL | 58 |
| 4.5 | FURTHER ANALYSIS OF THE MOST IMPORTANT REASONS FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT | 61 |
| 4.5.1 | Facilities | 61 |
| 4.5.2 | Political factor | 62 |
| 4.5.3 | Social factor | 62 |
| 4.5.4 | Self-image | 63 |
| 4.6 | TESTING HYPOTHESES | 63 |
| 4.6.1 | TESTING HYPOTHESIS 1 | 63 |
| 4.6.2 | TESTING HYPOTHESIS 2 | 65 |
| 4.6.3 | TESTING HYPOTHESIS 3 | 71 |
| 4.6.4 | TESTING HYPOTHESIS 4 | 74 |
| 4.7 | SHORT SUMMARY OF FINDINGS | 78 |

**CHAPTER 5**

**EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESEARCH AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**


5.1 INTRODUCTION 80

5.2 EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS 82
5.2.1 The most important findings of the empirical investigation 82
5.2.1.1 Facilities 82
5.2.1.2 Political 82
5.2.1.3 Social 83
5.2.1.4 Self-image 84

5.2.2 Recommendations 85

5.3 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THIS RESEARCH 88

5.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY 89

5.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH 90

**BIBLIOGRAPHY** 91

**LIST OF TABLES**


| | | |
|---|---|---|
| TABLE 3.1 | DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNERS IN TERMS OF GENDER AND GRADE | 42 |
| TABLE 3.2 | DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNERS IN TERMS OF PARENTS' MARITAL STATUS | 43 |
| TABLE 3.3 | DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNERS IN TERMS OF PARENTS' INCOME | 43 |
| TABLE 3.4 | DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNERS IN TERMS OF HOME ENVIRONMENT | 43 |
| TABLE 4.1 | ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SECTION: ECONOMIC FACTORS | 52 |
| TABLE 4.2 | ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SECTION: FACILITIES | 53 |
| TABLE 4.3 | ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SECTION: SELF-IMAGE | 54 |
| TABLE 4.4 | ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SECTION: POLITICAL FACTORS | 55 |
| TABLE 4.5 | ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SECTION: HEALTH FACTORS | 56 |
| TABLE 4.6 | ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SECTION: SOCIAL FACTORS | 57 |
| TABLE 4.7 | FINAL RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT OF EACH SECTION | 58 |
| TABLE 4.8 | THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE SIX FACTORS | 59 |
| TABLE 4.9 | DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE AVERAGE SCORES OF REASONS FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT FOR MALES AND FEMALES | 64 |
| TABLE 4.10 | DIFFERENCE BETWEEN INCOME GROUPS WITH REGARD TO THE ECONOMIC FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT | 66 |
| TABLE 4.11 | T-TEST ANALYSIS OF FAMILY INCOME WITH REGARD TO THE ECONOMIC FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT | 67 |
| TABLE 4.12 | DIFFERENCE BETWEEN INCOME GROUPS WITH REGARD TO THE FACILITIES FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT | 67 |
| TABLE 4.13 | DIFFERENCE BETWEEN INCOME GROUPS WITH REGARD TO THE SELF-IMAGE FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT | 68 |

TABLE 4.14 T-TEST ANALYSIS OF SELF-IMAGE AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT 68
TABLE 4.15 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN INCOME GROUPS WITH REGARD TO THE POLITICAL FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT 69
TABLE 4.16 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN INCOME GROUPS WITH REGARD TO THE HEALTH FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT 69
TABLE 4.17 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN INCOME GROUPS WITH REGARD TO THE SOCIAL FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT 70
TABLE 4.18 T-TEST ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIAL FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT 70
TABLE 4.19 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE GRADES WITH REGARD TO THE ECONOMIC FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT 71
TABLE 4.20 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE GRADES WITH REGARD TO THE FACILITIES FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT 72
TABLE 4.21 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE GRADES WITH REGARD TO THE SELF-IMAGE FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT 72
TABLE 4.22 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE GRADES WITH REGARD TO THE POLITICAL FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT 73
TABLE 4.23 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE GRADES WITH REGARD TO THE HEALTH FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT 73

TABLE 4.24 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE GRADES WITH REGARD TO THE SOCIAL FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT 74
TABLE 4.25 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HOME ENVIRONMENT WITH REGARD TO THE ECONOMIC FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT 75
TABLE 4.26 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HOME ENVIRONMENT WITH REGARD TO THE FACILITIES FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT 75
TABLE 4.27 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HOME ENVIRONMENT WITH REGARD TO THE SELF-IMAGE FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT 76
TABLE 4.28 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HOME ENVIRONMENT WITH REGARD TO THE POLITICAL FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT 76
TABLE 4.29 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HOME ENVIRONMENT WITH REGARD TO THE HEALTH FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT 77
TABLE 4.30 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HOME ENVIRONMENT WITH REGARD TO THE SOCIAL FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT 77

**LIST OF APPENDICES**

**APPENDIX 1**: ORGANIZATION OF SPORT IN SOUTH AFRICA

**APPENDIX 2**: STRUCTURE OF SPORT AT SCHOOL LEVEL

**APPENDIX 3**: NATIONAL STRUCTURE OF SCHOOL SPORT

**APPENDIX 4**: KZN DEPARTMENT OF SPORT AND RECREATION

**APPENDIX 5**: APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

**APPENDIX 6**: NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT AT SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVEL QUESTIONNAIRE

# CHAPTER 1

## *ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY*

### 1.1 BACKGROUND

According to Potgieter (2003:182), among the non-traditional methods of preventing psychological problems, physical exercise is increasingly recommended for the maintenance and enhancement of mental health. It is generally accepted that there are many psychological benefits offered by regular exercise such as promoting feelings of well-being and self-efficacy. Much of modern sport involves learning to control emotions, of disciplining the self and managing emotional lives (Coakley and Dunning, 2000:477). Sport experiences can enrich emotional development by cultivating capacities for care, self-worth, strength of will, good judgment, compassion, understanding, love and friendship. With so much research pointing to many psychological benefits like healthy bodies producing healthy minds, sport boosting school spirit and participation in school sport increasing students' self-esteem, it is then disconcerting to see many learners, especially at secondary school, being less interested or developing a negative attitude towards sport.

According to Horn (2002:118), a number of studies illustrate a strong link between parental influence (in the form of attitudes, beliefs, expectancies and behaviours) and children's self-perceptions, affective responses, self-reported motivation, and levels of activity involvement. It is also true that receiving support from the individual with whom the exerciser relates most directly also influences the exerciser's persistence with the activity.

With all the cited benefits of physical activity, why does it become so difficult for students to engage in exercise? For those who have started why is exercise adherence so difficult? Why do some individuals participate primarily for the inherent pleasure of the activity, whereas others are influenced more by the external rewards available from

participating? Why do some students try hard to persist in situations posing adversity, whereas others seem to exert minimal effort and give up easily?

## 1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

### *1.2.1 Awareness of the problem*

As an educator, the researcher has observed that learners, especially in black township schools, start dropping out of sport before they even reach secondary school, and that learners' involvement decreases at a very rapid rate through their teens and beyond. Many teachers complain that learners do not normally volunteer to join sporting or extra-curricular activities at school. They always have to be cajoled to join even though they should be aware of the health and social benefits of such activities.

While growing up, a child at play will reveal not only some of his cultural background but his own personality as well – his worries, fears and fantasies, his ambitions, hopes and concerns; his joy, exaltation or disappointment (Nayak, 2004:26). What happens to learners reaching secondary school? Can the same types of emotions not be expressed through formal and controlled sport at school? Even though a number of psychological benefits of sport were mentioned, the question is: are educators and students in black township schools really aware of these? As a department of education official in predominantly black township schools in South Africa, one experiences the problem of nonparticipation in sports more acutely than in comparable schools. Admittedly, the very nature of the social and physical environment in which black township schools are located can be a large contributory factor to nonparticipation. The problem of the pervasive self-deprecation and poor self-image of black society in general may be mirrored in the attitudes of black students and their own levels of motivation. The paucity of exemplary role models that instill confidence deprives young black students of the mental stimulus that encourages sport participation.

In addition, there are the obvious physical impediments that confront young students.

Schools have poor or nonexistent facilities. There is a lack of properly trained and motivated coaches and teachers; equipment is scarce or poor; safety and transport issues are other logistical barriers that compound the situation. It is also doubtful if students are sufficiently appraised of the benefits of sport participation. On many school notice boards one comes across displays of different school policies but there is little seen displaying or advocating sport participation benefits.

### *1.2.2 Investigation of the problem*

According to McComb (2004:9), "every person is born with athletic capability and every person is predestined to develop that physical potential." Even Abraham Maslow (1908-1970) who was the foremost 20th century theorist concerning human motivation recognized the fact of predestined physicality. If this is the case, then what are the influences propelling some people to adhere to physical activity and what discourages others from doing so? Hill (2001:89) views motivation in sport as "the desire to engage and persist in sport, often despite disappointments, sacrifice and discouragements." Diamant (1991:17) avers that of a number of reasons why some individuals continue exercising for a significant portion of their lives, the post-exercise affective state or "feel better" phenomenon appears to be a primary one.

Tomori and Zalar (2000) conducted a study whose results showed that among girls and boys, suicide attempts are linked to the attitude that sport is not important for health, and to non-involvement in sport as a coping style in distress. These studies point to the need for greater emphasis among girls and boys to have a positive attitude toward sport. There is a need to regard sport and exercise as important parts of our lifestyle.

Research evidence supports the hypothesis that regular exercise promotes feelings of well-being and can serve as a positive coping strategy (Biddle, Fox & Boutcher, 2000:4; Coakley & Dunning, 2000: 408; Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2005:10; Kirkcaldy, 2002:544; Singer, Hausenblas & Janelle, 2001:643). Another hypothesis attributes the subjective feelings of psychological well-being associated with exercise to the social dimensions of exercise. The latter view has however not been empirically evaluated in

well-designed studies (Potgieter, 2003:190). It is also believed that sport participation teaches young people useful lessons applicable to social life (Bar-Or, 1995:353). With all the many benefits of physical exercise suggested in various literature studies it is highly disconcerting then that anybody, let alone at secondary school level, should show a negative attitude toward sport. Why is it then that more and more students stay away from school sport? The wholistic view of education seeks to incorporate the ancient belief of 'a sound mind in a strong body' concept. This then means teaching styles must target both the left and the right brain development for this to happen effectively (Kirk & Kirk, 1993:9).

Crews and Landers (in Potgieter, 2003:184) also discovered that sport not only has psychological benefits but it contributes to our physical health as well. They concluded that no matter what type of psychological or physiological instruments are used, people who are aerobically fit, show a decreased psychosocial stress response. Brown and Siegel (Potgieter, 2003:185) also found that children who exercise regularly (aerobically or anaerobically) and are exposed to high levels of stress in life, are ill less frequently than their peers who rarely exercise but experience similar stressful conditions. Self-concept is also frequently posited as a mediating variable that facilitates the attainment of other desirable outcomes, such as increased exercise adherence or health-related physical fitness (Andersen, 2000:61).

The research done by Orlick in 1973 (cited in Bar-Or, 1995:418) concluded that at times overemphasis placed on winning and a fear of failure predominantly influenced some students' decision to withdraw from sport. Other reasons cited for the decline in sport participation were: sport is too demanding and time consuming; too much pressure; dislike for the coach; 'conflict of interests' as students wanted to try other non-sport activities and were 'not having fun' (Bar-Or, 1995:418). Orlick's findings were important in that they suggested that the structure and climate in which sports were held were inadequate in meeting the needs of students and this might have a bearing on non-participation.

Research evidence suggests that sporting prowess gives boys status among both their male and female peers. If they do not play sport, or do so poorly, their masculinity may be called into question by their peers or society in general. On the other hand, a female's sexuality may be questioned if she **does** play sport, especially if she is good at it, or if she does not conform to the stereotype expected of her (Videon, 2002:435).

Singer et al (2001:517) also cite internal and external barriers to sport participation. The internal barriers include such factors as lack of physical skills, lack of confidence, lack of feedback, too many vague and conflicting goals as well as unrealistically difficult goals. Among the external or social barriers are such factors as lack of time to train properly, family and personal responsibilities and lack of social support. Other internal and external barriers cited by Kirk & Kirk (1993:86) that can impede sport participation are:

***Internal barriers***

low self-esteem; lack of confidence; conflict between personal values and athletic goals; fear of failure and/or success; inadequate decision-making; and lack of general information.

***External barriers***

few role models; lack of mentors; stereotypes; racism and discrimination; admission criteria; socioeconomic status; family expectations; ethnic background; inadequately trained support staff; and peer pressure to adopt a particular norm.

It is important for counselors, coaches and teachers to be aware of these barriers and to determine to what extent they hinder participation in sport. By making appropriate interventions they can then be able to draw more student athletes toward participation at secondary school level.

Research evidence also found that parental support was significantly associated with enjoyment in sport and with the importance players ascribed to their game. Singer et al (2001:617) attest to this view and state that adults, peers and learners themselves shape the social context within which they play sport. Parents are primarily responsible for

providing children with initial opportunities to play sport and helping to maintain their involvement in sport. Research evidence also exists which points to the fact that parents also have the potential to affect their children's withdrawal from sport (Ibid).

Peers on the other hand are extremely influential in terms of the adolescent's self-perceptions, feelings of belonging and identity as well as social status. Consequently adolescents may find themselves propelled to demonstrate athletic ability or to avoid demonstration of low ability, in front of their peers. According to Kirk & Kirk (1993:4), Erik Erikson's theory of psychosocial development "predicts that adolescents who do not develop a strong sense of self will enter adulthood with considerable role confusion or identity diffusion." In light of the aforementioned statement it is therefore highly unlikely that students who participate in sport will experience this type of crisis. For students who let external events dictate how they think and influence their self talk, there are several variations of self-talk interventions that may serve to boost their confidence.

In spite of all the benefits aforementioned, there are however numerous views about the negative influences of sport participation. Substance abuse and aggression are some of the activities that have been associated with sport participation. Intimidation and violence have also become widely used strategies in contact sports like rugby and soccer (Shields, 1999:503). All these seem to undermine the positive aspects of secondary school athletics.

Since little evidence exists about the reasons for nonparticipation in sport by black secondary school learners in the South African context, this study will therefore focus on black secondary school learners per se.

### *1.2.3 Statement of the problem*

In this research there will be an investigation of scientifically substantiated answers to the following question: What are the reasons for non-participation in sport by black township learners at secondary school level?

## 1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study is:

- To investigate the reasons for non-participation in sport by black students at secondary school level
- To conduct a high level scan of the extent of the problem of nonparticipation
- To confirm and validate the research assertion that sport participation is beneficial

The sub-aim of the study is:

- To determine if significant differences between males and females exist with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport
- To determine if significant differences between learners with parents of different family income exist with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport
- To determine if significant differences between learners in different grades exist with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport
- To determine if significant differences between learners from different home environments exist with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport
- To critically review existing literature and to suggest future research challenges

## 1.4 RESEARCH METHOD

The study will be conducted using mainly the quantitative research method as well as literature review. There will be use of a questionnaire as well as observations made at the selected schools. Information will also be obtained from literature and library documents.

## 1.5 DEMARCATION AND RATIONALE

The main rationale behind the study is that there is a national clamour in South Africa for all sporting codes to include more and more black students among their ranks to reflect

the demographics of the country. To this end government has devised a lot of policies to promote this aim and the various sports organizations have embarked on youth and school development programmes. The progress, however, seems to be slow, all the more reason why this subject is of interest to the researcher.

In addition, there is growing universal concern about the alarming increase in obesity among teenagers, associated with a sedentary lifestyle and junk foods. South Africa is high ranking among obese nations. There is also rising trends in school violence and drug usage as well as teenage pregnancies all associated in part, be it anecdotally with nonparticipation. The old adage still holds true in this case that “the devil always finds work for idle hands.”

A sample will be selected randomly among Grade 9-12 secondary school learners of a few typically black township secondary schools at KwaMashu and Ndengezi in KwaZulu-Natal. Kwamashu is a typical South African township and it is the one of the fastest growing urban centres in KwaZulu Natal. It is also one of nodal areas selected by the president for special development attention. This has created widespread political and educational research interest. The selected grades were chosen because they form the core of student population at secondary school, whereas eighth grade learners are still in transition from primary school.

In spite of the physical and environmental impediments alluded to, there are still other students who show a keenness and motivation to participate in sports at secondary school and beyond. In fact quite a few of them have used sports to fight their way out of abject poverty and dreariness of the townships, some have indeed become celebrities. Here the names of a soccer hero like Doctor Khumalo and well known boxer Baby Jake Matlala can be mentioned. Sport can also be used by black students as a career path which is more important for black children as they previously did not have an abundance of opportunities.

In an environment where sport is one of the few liberators, besides having personal physical and psychological benefits, it therefore becomes even more pertinent to ask the

question "***why nonparticipation*** ". Since there is little literature in this specific area of research and since there is such a need for informed interventions, the researcher would like to make an initial contribution and to stimulate further work by other researchers.

## 1.6 EXPLANATION OF CONCEPTS

This research is aimed at finding reasons for nonparticipation in school organized sport. For this purpose, various concepts that appear throughout this research need to be defined.

### 1.6.1 Black learner

In South Africa, the nomenclature for the various race groups is sometimes confusing. In the strict legal sense, black refers to Africans, Coloureds and Indians; alternatively all those who were discriminated against by the apartheid state. In less specific sense the term refers to Africans, i.e. indigenous Africans. In this study the term is used in the latter context.

### 1.6.2 Adolescent

According to the American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language (2000), the word adolescent comes from the Latin word "adolescere" meaning "to grow up". It is also taken as the person in transitional stage of physical and psychological development between childhood and full adulthood, from onset of puberty to maturity, and representing the period of time during which a person is biologically adult but emotionally not at full maturity (Mwamwenda, 1995:507). The ages of adolescence vary from culture to culture. In South Africa adolescence is generally considered to begin around age thirteen and end around twenty one. For the purpose of this study *adolescent* will be limited to grade nine to twelve learners who attend secondary school irrespective of age.

According to Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg (1999:13), the personality of the adolescent depends to a large extent on significant others and the types of behaviours and role models the adolescent is exposed to as well as the way he/she assimilates the experiences he/she is exposed to in life.

### 1.6.3 Physical education

For quite some time this word was used synonymously with sport but they actually mean different things. *Physical education* is an educational process that uses physical activity as a means to help people acquire skills, fitness, knowledge and attitudes that contribute to their optimal development and well being (Lion-Cachet, 1997:10). In most educational systems, *physical education* is a course which promotes physical activity and various sports. The intent is generally to promote fitness and health, as well as the benefits of team-building, teamwork, sportsmanship and fair play. Lion-Cachet (Ibid) avers that it also teaches students to be able to utilize their leisure time effectively. This ability to effectively use leisure time may translate into adult life as it seems to lay the foundation for adult years.

It can also be used to deter adolescents from engaging in unwanted behaviour. As Nayak avers (2004:105), "there is a marked correlation between juvenile delinquency and lack of constructive leisure-time activity". It is then up to adults (parents and educators) to see that skills are gained in *physical education* activities if they want children to spend their leisure time in physically wholesome ways.

### 1.6.4 Sport

According to Merchant, Griffin & Charnock (2006:22-23), any definition of sport is dependent on its context but should generally contain the following features: "an engagement in physical or psychomotor skills; competitive framework; codification of rules that bound movements and activities within clear and stringent parameters; enacted within a predetermined time frame; tradition and or history of past practice."

Sport is also defined as “an activity which offers the individual the opportunity of self-knowledge, self-expression and fulfillment; personal achievement, skill acquisition and demonstration of ability; social integration, enjoyment, good health and well-being.” (Mhuircheartaigh,1999:6). Lion-Cachet (Ibid) also states that the word originates from the Latin word *desporte*, meaning *to entertain yourself.*

Since this research is confined to schools in Kwamashu and Ndengezi, which are poorly resourced, sport will be limited to easily accessible ones for blacks like soccer, netball and athletics.

### 1.6.5 Relations Theory

The *Relations Theory* is a Unisa psycho-educational model which has as its essential factors the allocation of meaning, experience and involvement. The basic idea is to understand the person’s self-dialogue on the formation of relationships in their experiential world (Roets, 2002:49). In the context of this research it is important to understand the learner’s relationships with significant others that have an impact on the way he/she relates to his/her experiences.

## 1.7 RESEARCH PROGRAMME

The structure of the research programme is as follows:

**Chapter One** provides an introductory orientation to make the reader aware of the background of the study, analysis of the problem, research question, aim and significance of the study, the research method that will be used and definition of terms. **Chapter Two** focuses on the theoretical substantiation of the research project. Information will be obtained from journal articles, research documents, educational indexes, policy documents, newspaper articles and other relevant literature. A review of literature will enable the researcher to make a valid analysis of material available that sheds more light on why black township students scarcely participate in sport. **Chapter Three** comprises the research design where a questionnaire is administered to learners and observations

made at the schools. **Chapter Four** provides an analysis and interpretation of the research findings.

**Chapter Five** forms the conclusion of the study where there will be an indication of the reasons for nonparticipation in sport and possible intervention measures that can be put in place. This chapter will also indicate contributions of the study, its challenges and limitations as well as future recommendations for educational and policy planners. Education implications of the research and suggestions for further research are also discussed in this chapter.

## 1.8 CONCLUSION

For more conclusive research evidence it will be necessary to discuss our findings in terms of the relations theory. It will add valuable insight to our understanding of how the nonparticipating student relates with his/her parents and family, his/her educators and peers, how he/she relates with himself and how he relates with objects and ideas. Other theories which might shed more light on this topic are those on motivation, self-efficacy, self-attribution and social cognitive theories.

The next chapter will be looking at the theoretical aspect of school sport in South Africa focusing on the history of school sport and how it impacts upon black learners' nonparticipation. There will also be a discussion of various factors influencing learners' participation and nonparticipation in school sport.

# CHAPTER 2

# THE HISTORY AND ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOL SPORT IN SOUTH AFRICA AND FACTORS INFLUENCING BLACK LEARNERS' NONPARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL SPORT

## 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Sport consists of physical and mentally competitive activities carried out with a recreational purpose for competition, for self-enjoyment, to attain excellence, for the development of a skill, or some combination of these (en.wikipedia.org). Sport was also defined by the London Sports Council (Mhuircheartaigh, 1999:6) as "*an activity which offers the individual the opportunity of self-knowledge, self-expression and fulfillment; personal achievement, skill acquisition and demonstration of ability; social integration, enjoyment, good health and well-being."* Physical activity on the other hand is defined by the New Zealand Health Committee (Mhuircheartaigh, 1999:6) as "*bodily movement produced by the contraction of skeletal muscle that substantially increases energy expenditure above the basal level….. Common categories include occupational, household, leisure-time, (including competitive sports, recreational activities, exercise training) or transportation."*

As the above definitions indicate, sport and/or physical activities encompass a number of different types of activities in a variety of environments. All these activities are believed to hold some physiological and psychological benefits for the individual. Reports from Centres for Disease Control and Prevention, state that regular physical activity improves health in the following ways (Mhuircheartaigh, 1999:6):

- Reduces the risk of dying prematurely
- Reduces the risk of dying from heart disease
- Reduces the risk of developing diabetes
- Reduces the risk of developing high blood pressure
- Helps reduce blood pressure in people who have high blood pressure

- Reduces the risk of developing colon cancer
- Reduces feelings of depression and anxiety
- Helps control weight
- Helps build and maintain healthy bones, muscles and joints
- Helps older people become stronger and better able to move about without falling

Sporting events and changes in a country are influenced by the economic, social and political situations occurring at the time. Many benefits accrue from participation in sport. It is an important factor which helps in shaping the values and norms of society. It adds to the development not only of the individual but of the society as well. It brings the participants together as they socialize around a common activity. It brings different groups of people together irrespective of race, colour, gender or religion and it also teaches the value of cooperation, competition and mutual support. National teams help to enhance national cohesion while international competition builds friendships across countries.

There is concern across all levels of society at the lack of general fitness and the low level of involvement in sport and physical activity among the general population. According to Smith and Green (2005:241-253), there is broad consensus that declining participation in sport and physical activity are the main causes of a health crisis said to be emerging among all age groups especially the youth and children. This seems to be related to the growing prevalence of ‘unhealthy’ diets, declining levels of daily energy expenditure and an increasing preference for engaging in sedentary leisure activities influenced by the new media technologies. Mhuircheartaigh (1999:8) attributes this decline in physical activity among the youth to increases in mechanization in the workplace and home, the popularity of home-based leisure activities (such as watching television, videos and computer games) and increased use of motorized transport like buses and cars. It is this decline in young people’s level of participation in sport and physical activity that is the driving force behind this research.

This chapter primarily investigates the development and spread of school sport in South Africa during prehistoric, apartheid and post-apartheid era, and how the sport

participation of black children was/is affected. It is important for the reader to understand the historic and political influences that shaped school sport in South Africa in order to be able to understand the dynamics of sport in black schools. As Krog mentions (Pienaar 1998:114), it is important to know the past in order for people to understand today's politics.

## 2.2 EARLIER HISTORIC INFLUENCES ON PHYSICAL ACTIVITY AND SCHOOL SPORT IN SOUTH AFRICA

### *2.2.1 Origins of sport*

The origins of sport can be traced to the beginnings of mankind itself. Research evidence points to the use of sport in prehistoric era as a way to survive and master nature and the environment (Coakley, 1986:44). Activities such as hunting and fishing which were necessary for survival became regulated activities done for pleasure or competition on an increasing scale. Stone-age drawings discovered in the Lybian desert depicting activities like swimming and archery are also evidence of early sport. Howell and Howell (1986:33-35) also aver that rock paintings found in caves indicate that hunting and dancing were two of the most prominent sporting activities primitive man was engaged in. When Captain Cook visited the Hawaiian Islands in 1778, he reported on the sporting activities native people were engaged in, like surfing. The native American Indians engaged in games, running, and other athletic activities.

According to Coakley (1986:45), the games played by the early Greeks were grounded in mythology and religious beliefs. The main aim of the Graeco-Roman education system revolved around military prowess. The military culture of Greece was an influence on the development of sport in that country. The Greeks concentrated on sporting competitions for the entertainment of the citizens and also as a means of social control (Howell & Howell, 1986:60). The Olympic Games were held every four years in Ancient Greece and victory at these games brought honour for the individual and that person was rewarded with an olive branch. These games were held not simply as a sporting event but as a celebration of individual excellence, cultural and artistic variety and they provided an

opportunity for the Greek people to showcase their architectural and sculptural innovation (Van der Merwe 1989:33). It is therefore reasonable to assume from these and other historical sources that sport is as old as mankind itself.

### 2.2.2 Global influences on South African sport and physical education

In England, different centuries went through different phases of sporting experiences and these greatly influenced the sporting history of South Africa. Though football in Britain was a popular sport of the masses from the 8$^{th}$ century onwards, the game was at that time a war game. Towns and villages played against rival towns and villages and kicking, punching, biting and gouging were allowed. So violent did these matches become that there were many attempts by the authorities to ban soccer. In 1331, King Edward III of England passed laws to try and suppress soccer. In 1424, King James I of Scotland proclaimed in parliament that no man was allowed to play soccer. Later on Queen Elizabeth I of England had a law passed which provided for soccer players to be "jailed for a week, and obliged to do penance in church" (Hutchison, 2006:1). All these attempts at using law enforcements to stop soccer in Britain failed. The game was just too popular.

The Industrial Revolution freed people from continuous labour and afforded them increased leisure time. The result was a greater flourishing of sport. England was among the first countries to present sport as an organized form of recreational activity (Van der Merwe in Lion-Cachet, 1997:18). The dramatic development of sport in England during this period had a significant role to play in physical education across the world. It is also a period during which the foundation of many modern games and sport was laid. Rules were formulated for games such as tennis, golf, soccer, cricket, rugby and bowling (Howell and Howell, 1986:94). This was at the peak of British imperialism when Britain exported its culture to the rest of the world, including South Africa.

Another great influence on South African sport from Europe was the 'Primary Gymnastics' of Niels Bukh from Denmark who promoted this system when he toured South Africa with a group of gymnasts and staged several displays (Lion-Cachet, 1997:23; Mohlala, 2004:16). The Austrian system by Gaulhofer and Strecher also

influenced the South African sport scenario. According to Mohlala (2004:17) the *'Ligaamsopvoeding'* journal published by the Department of Physical Education at the University of Stellenbosch promoted this system successfully. The system was also spread through the immigration of physical education educators from countries abroad like the Netherlands, Great Britain, Denmark and Germany. American influence was also felt through many South Africans who completed postgraduate studies in America during the 1950s and 1960s and contributed toward the development of the sport syllabus in South Africa in 1972 (Mohlala, 2004:17).

## 2.3 THE HISTORY AND ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOL SPORT IN SOUTH AFRICA IN THE COLONIAL AND APARTHEID ERAS

According to Van der Merwe (Lion-Cachet, 1997:21) the first indications of sport in South Africa were around the year 1660 in the form of a skittle game. This activity originated in the Netherlands and got introduced in South Africa by the Dutch settlers who came to settle at the Cape. After the takeover by Britain, crew members from the British ships played an important part in the development of sport and the encouragement thereof (HSRC – Sport Research 1982(1):35). Organized sport in SA was then used as part of the recreational programme so as to prevent laziness and boredom among the troops and regiments. With the discovery of diamonds, more people arrived who considered sport such as cricket, soccer, rugby and gymnastics as important activities (Van der Merwe in Lion-Cachet, 1997:22).

According to Mohlala (2004:17) the first attempt to include physical education in the school curriculum dates back to the Batavian Republic (1803-1806). Physical education was introduced to educators by Commissioner-General J A de Mist who emphasized that it be part of the secondary schools curriculum. He established a school where modern languages, commercial subjects and physical education were part of the curriculum. The programme consisted of music, dancing, fencing and horse riding.

According to Du Toit (Lion-Cachet, 1997:24) physical education was formally introduced for the first time in South Africa in the Cape Province school curriculum in

1897. At this stage there was more bias towards girls being offered physical education than boys. In 1918, Dr Karl Bremmer, the first inspector for physical education in the Cape Province included sport and games to the physical education programme for boys (De Klerk cited in Lion-Cachet, 1997:24). The third Superintendent General of Education in the Cape Province, Thomas Muir (1892-1915) expressed a keen interest in promoting physical education (Mohlala, 2004:18).

Although educators were encouraged through vacation courses to do physical education, considerable development took place in this field of physical education between 1936 and 1939. A degree in physical education was offered for the first time in South Africa at the University of Stellenbosch. This initiative led to physical education occupying a central part in the school curriculum (Du Toit cited in Lion-Cachet, 1997:24).

Between 1936 and 1939 considerable interest was shown in physical education which resulted in the formation of the National Advisory Council for Physical Education in 1938. The main function of the Council was to coordinate and stimulate the development of physical education for learners. Most schools then started encouraging participation in sport. Secondary schools adopted a policy that only teachers with specialized training were allowed to teach physical education. By 1939, physical education was not only made a compulsory subject in government schools but it was also included in the Union Defense Force programmes and those of the South African Railways and Harbours (Archer & Bouillon, 1982:129).

There was an improved standard of living which enabled greater participation in sport for most social groups but professional sportspeople had a long battle to be given fair rewards. Of significance was the establishment of the advisory Sports Council in 1965 and the independent executive Sports Council in 1972. Gradually physical education moved away from educational values and physical recreation towards health-related fitness. With the passage of time various academic qualifications in physical education stimulated scrutiny of the subject and physical education is now established in the national curriculum as a foundation subject.

The most significant development in the physical education and sport arena in South Africa was the establishment of a *Government Department of Sport and Recreation* in 1966. The aims of the Department were to:

- render a service to the various sport associations
- encourage activities which were aimed at the development of a strong and healthy nation and to grant subsidies for such activities
- make funds available to scientific research in the field of sport and recreation.

Another outstanding feature was the establishment of the *Sport Foundation of South Africa* by a prominent public company. It was a non-profit organization which provided expert tuition and coaching to amateur sport (Du Toit in Lion-Cachet, 1997:25).

## 2.4 POLITICAL FACTORS INFLUENCING NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT BY BLACKS

Even though physical education had been made compulsory in government schools by 1939, this did not provide equal opportunities to all racial groups. The only place where black children were exposed to physical education was in missionary schools established in 1799 by the London Missionary Society (Lion-Cachet, 1997:25). However, by the end of the nineteenth century there was a huge demand by Whites to have separate education. This led to the formation of the four state education departments for the four main ethnic groups (Whites, Indian, Blacks and Coloureds) (Mohlala, 2004:19). Compulsory education for Whites up to age 14 was instituted in the four provinces between 1905 and 1908 (Christie & Gordon, 1992:402). Blacks, on the other hand did not receive free or compulsory education. While White education was government funded and compulsory, education for Blacks was in the hands of the missionaries, poorly funded and with very little equipment, if any (Archer & Bouillon, 1982:164; Behr, 1984:177).

Although Indians were allowed to attend White schools between 1885 and 1905, they received very little education. A separate curriculum was imposed on African children in

1904. In 1907 the opening of the first state school for Africans followed (Archer & Bouillon, 1982:26-27). Opportunities for studying physical education for coloured teachers were initiated in 1939 at the Wesley Training School and for Black teachers in 1943 at Healdtown Training Institution (Du Toit in Lion-Cachet, 1997:26). Outside the formal school structure the majority of Black children had no opportunity to play sport. Things got worse when in the early 1950's the government stopped acknowledging the education offered in missionary schools. The Bantu Education Act of 1953 led to the control of Black schools being removed from the missionary bodies and placed under the Department of Native Affairs (Archer & Bouillon, 1980:47).

According to Mohlala (2004:19), the situation got worse when in 1956 Dr T E Donges, South Africa's Minister of Interior at that time, called for a framework stipulating separate development in sport. This was seen as the first South African formalized apartheid sports policy that included the following:

- Whites and '*non-Whites'* must organize their sport separately and only non-mixed sport would be allowed within the borders of South Africa;.
- mixed teams should not be allowed to go abroad;
- any international team coming to South Africa to play against White South African teams must be all white according to common practice in South Africa. When South African teams traveled overseas they could play any teams according to the laws of the country they are playing with (irrespective of the racial makeup);
- '*Non-White'* sportsmen from overseas could only compete against South African '*Non-Whites'* in South Africa (Van der Merwe, 1989:93).

The system of white supremacy in South Africa was applied in the field of sport as much as in all other walks of life. Apartheid was not only limited to the level of administration of sport and selection of participants. As spectators, the African, Coloured and Indian people were subjected to rigid segregation. The main sports arenas had separate entrances, seating enclosures and toilet facilities for '*Non-Whites'*. At some arenas, '*Non-*

*Whites'* were banned altogether from attending sports gatherings (*United Nations Notes*, 1971; Alegi, 2004:2).

It was not until the mid-1950's that the status accorded to all-white South African sports bodies by the international sports community was effectively challenged. This challenge was mainly launched by sportsmen who were directly affected by this system of racial segregation, namely, South African *Non-white* sportsmen. Battles to eliminate racism in sport were fought in the fields of table tennis, soccer, cricket and the Olympic games. By 1959 the campaign to gain recognition for *Non-White* sportsmen had reached a new level with the formation of the South African Sports Association (SASA), which had Dennis Brutus as Secretary and Alan Paton as its patron. Numerous attempts were made by the South African government to silence Mr Brutus through banning orders and even an attempt at his life but he continued to fight. In May 1970 the International Olympic Committee (IOC) expelled the white body of South Africa from the Olympic movement (*United Nations Notes, 1971).*

International pressure continued to mount and the movement of protest gained momentum. Matches played against South Africa abroad, especially in England, were played in an atmosphere of siege and there were often clashes between demonstrators and the police. While international isolation forced some white sportsmen to voice their protests inside South Africa the greatest impact was made on the oppressed African, Coloured and Indian people, who were greatly encouraged by the protests and demonstrations all over the world (*United Nations Notes, 1971).*

While all this prevailed, there was a considerable shortage of teachers and classrooms in Black schools (Lion-Cachet, 1997:26). This led to the use of the 'platoon' system or the double sessions for pupils which resulted in the school day to be shortened by approximately one-third (Mncwabe, 1992:59). This meant that physical education and school sport could not be featured in the short day. Children had to leave school with no knowledge of physical education or sport (Lion-Cachet, 1997:27). While it was compulsory in White schools as a subject, physical education in Black schools was barely taught. Many principals in Black schools declined to enforce it as a compulsory subject.

This was understandable considering the inadequate facilities that existed in these schools. There was also general apathy and lack of passion for organized sport exhibited by the educators in Black schools when compared with educators in ex-model C schools (Lion-Cachet, 1997:117; Mohlala, 2004:20).

## 2.5 THE ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOL SPORT IN THE DEMOCRATIC AND POST-APARTHEID SOUTH AFRICA

The South African democratic elections of 1994 brought about many changes and initiatives to address the inequities of the past. Of significance in the new curriculum was the removal of apartheid in school sport and curriculum. It was agreed that there was a need for a national policy on sport (Lion-Cachet, 1997:104). The scene was set for negotiations concerning a new sport dispensation for all South Africans irrespective of gender or race. Renewed government support was experienced and this gradually brought about an end to international isolation and more participation in sport (Lion-Cachet, 1997:104; Mohlala, 2004:20).

The major role players in South African sport became the Central Government; the Department of Sport and Recreation (DSR); the National Sports Council (NSC); the National Olympic Committee of South Africa (NOCSA) and the National Sports Controlling Bodies or Federations (NFs) (cf **Appendix 1**) (Lion-Cachet, 1997:105). All the above bodies had different functions in the structure of sport.

After 1994, the newly elected Government committed itself to supporting sport at all levels, including school sport (Department of Sport and Recreation *Draft White Paper,* 1995:71-97). The new Department of Sport and Recreation issued a National Policy Framework under the theme “Getting the nation to play”. One of the objectives was to motivate all children to move to higher levels of the sports development continuum and lay the foundation for mass participation in sport (Department of Sport and Recreation *Draft White Paper,* 1995:16).

To ensure that previous disparities in sport were addressed and physical education and school sport were integrated into the school curricula even in Black schools, the DSR together with the provincial members of the executive council for sport and the one for Education proposed to:

- reintroduce physical education as a recognized school subject
- assign the task of organizing sport within each school in the province to suitably qualified educators
- allow a minimum of 80 minutes per week, during school time for the sole purpose of sport tuition and playing
- provide incentives so that educators take an active interest in sport e.g. there could be credits considered in terms of promotion
- make sport compulsory for all learners
- organize inter-school competitions at both local and provincial level
- ensure that there is a sport fund at each school for funding school sport activities and requirements
- ensure that the DSR provides the necessary input to the content of the Physical Education Syllabus (Department of Sport and Recreation *Draft White Paper*, 1995:17-20)

Development programmes were a prerequisite for South Africa's return to the international sport scene (Lion-Cachet, 1997:96). This led to the launching of a national development programme called *Protea Sport* by the National Sports Council (NSC) of South Africa. Through this programme it was envisaged that sport would be made available to all South Africans up to the age of twenty one years through competent coaching and various sport opportunities which would provide enjoyment and enhance skills and confidence. The NSC's *Protea Sport* had ambitious projects like *Super Kids Programme, Sports Pioneers Programme* and *Isizwe Stars Programme*.

This was meant as an opportunity afforded all young people of South Africa, even those who had been previously marginalized, to learn the basic skills of any chosen sport. The South African Sports Commission (SASC) Act of 1998 provided for a commission to

administer sport and recreation under the guidance of the Minister of Sport and Recreation. The Commission started operating on 1 April 2000.

The United School Sport Association of South Africa was launched on 26 November, 1994 to promote and control sport in schools (USSASA, 1994:1; Department of Sport and Recreation *Draft White Paper,* 1995:23). It is the only recognized coordinating body for school sport in South Africa (Department of Sport and Recreation, *White Paper*, 2000:10). The main function of USSASA was to establish a multi-coded school sport structure for the purpose of organizing sport for all schools in South Africa. USSASA would also look closely at the development of sport in rural and township schools and ensure that deserving learners who excelled in sport were given the opportunity to showcase and nurture their talents (USSASA 1994:1). According to Mohlala (2004:35), USSASA has established a positive relationship with provincial departments, particularly the Department of Education and the Department of Sport and Recreation.

These laudable goals were expected to yield much fruit but, in the researcher's view, there seems to have been very little ground covered in Black schools in terms of attitude and participation in sport and physical education. Physical education periods are still given away to cater for the "priority subjects" like Mathematics and Physical Science. The significance of sport does not seem to have been instilled in the minds of the majority of educators.

### 2.5.1 The proposed structure for sport at school level

The schools are responsible for organizing various sporting codes for themselves. A sports organizer is the main coordinator of sport under the guidance of the principal. Schools affiliate to the *zonal* or *local* structures which represent the relevant national sport code controlling body. This is a bottom up type of democratic structure that evolves from schools to regional bodies, then to national code and this culminates in USSASA (cf **Appendix 2**) (USSASA 1994:5).

The school is at liberty to provide for as much participation, development and competition as it wishes. The success of the programme is determined by the principal's enthusiasm, guidance and authority. Since not all educators share the same enthusiasm and passion in sport, they are encouraged to seek assistance from other competent people and parents. The educators are also encouraged to become more involved in sport activities like fundraising, attending sport meetings and assisting with first aid. The current trend is to train learners to become umpires, coaches, athletic officials and referees. Though schools are encouraged to play all sport codes, this may however be problematic due to the number of learners in a school, size of staff and the unavailability of facilities and equipment. The school has therefore the prerogative to decide which sport codes to provide for learners. Inter-house competition is strongly encouraged so as to increase participation in terms of frequency and numbers of players; to expose learners to other codes of sport and to serve as an alternative for schools in remote and isolated areas where transport might be a problem in terms of accessibility (USSASA, 1994:5).

### 2.5.2 The proposed structure for school sport at zonal and local level

This structure allows schools to affiliate and participate in the local sport competitions within the districts. They also affiliate with the zonal sports association and participate in all the zonal competitions. The zonal and local codes of sport are then affiliated with the regional sports association (USSASA, 1994:6; Lion-Cachet,1997:121). The zonal structure should include the following officials:

* a zonal executive committee consisting of a chairperson, vice chairperson, secretary, match and registry secretary, a treasurer and a trustee
* a development committee which consists of four members
* a selection panel of five members
* managers and coaches for zonal teams
* a referees panel to appoint referees for midweek games

### 2.5.3 The proposed regional structure for school sport

It was proposed that the regional structure for school sport should have separate executives with one committee which is affiliated to USSASA. All zonal and sport structures as well as the regional codes structures should affiliate to the regional body (USSASA, 1994:8).

### 2.5.4 The proposed national structure for school sport

According to Lion-Cachet (1997:122), the national structure encompasses the various regions which are: Border/Kei; Eastern Cape; South Cape; Western Province; Boland; Southern Transvaal; Eastern Transvaal; Northern Transvaal; Southern Natal and Northern Free State. These school sports associations are affiliated to NOCSA and NSC (cf **Appendix 3**) (USSASA, 1994:5). Between March and September 2003, USSASA organized and launched a very successful under twelve Chappies Little League national soccer tournament with a total of 6 023 teams and 138 529 players. This tournament was actually recognized by Guinness World Records as the largest football tournament in the world (Cassoo, Gelling, Keim & Spencer, 2005:103).

### 2.5.5 KwaZulu-Natal Department of Sport and Recreation

(**Note:** Since the present research project will be executed in KwaZulu-Natal, special reference is made to the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Sport and Recreation.)
In KwaZulu-Natal school sport is carried out by the Department of Sport and Recreation whose core function mirrors that of the National Department (cf **Appendix 4**)
According to the Department of Education's RNCS (2002:47) a Grade 9 learner will demonstrate that he/she has made progress in Physical Development and Movement when he/she:

- participates in and evaluates own performance in an adventurous outdoor activity.
- refines and evaluates own and peer movement performance including rotation, balance and elevation.

- assesses own physical wellness level and sets personal goals for improvement.
- critically evaluates and executes a game plan for individual or team sport.
- reports on and discusses sport ethics.

This was an attempt by the Department of Education to instill the culture of sport in school children. However, as one subject advisor for Life Orientation in Pinetown District mentioned, the educators are still experiencing it as a challenge to teach Physical Development and Movement. The Department seems to be succeeding in instilling the enthusiasm for sport in children in primary schools. The question to ask is: What happens to all the interest and enthusiasm at secondary school? This is one of the pertinent questions that need to be answered by this research.

## 2.6 FACTORS INFLUENCING PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL SPORT

In the following section, some of the factors affecting participation in school sport will be briefly discussed.

### 2.6.1 Schools and physical facilities

For learners to be motivated to participate in sport, they need facilities that are conducive to sport participation. This means that these facilities should be accessible and cost effective for the learners. Among the physical barriers that hamper sport participation among black learners is the lack of well maintained and accessible playgrounds. Most schools in the townships do not have their own sport fields for use by learners. If any are available they are not kept up to standard in terms of maintenance and many are subjected to vandalism by outsiders. Safety issues also come into play as after hours some of the school grounds become the hunting ground for thugs. When there are sport competitions learners sometimes have to be transported to nearby grounds and this becomes costly for parents. Racial differences in sport participation may thus occur because township schools differ from ex-model C schools in size and resources. Schools with more resources provide more sports and teams, and sport participation rates are higher in private schools than in public schools (Goldsmith, 2003:152).

### 2.6.2 Gender as a social influence on sport participation

According to Antshel and Anderman (2000:86), some of the reasons why adolescents participate in sport are drawn largely along gender lines. Females often participate to have fun, to stay in shape and to get exercise, whereas males often do so to have fun, do something they are good at and to improve their skill. Studies in gender differences in sport participation indicate that participation varies according to the type of sport under consideration. In addition, the way children get socialized toward athletics has an impact on their participation or nonparticipation in sport during adolescence and young adulthood (*Ibid*).

### 2.6.3 Socioeconomic status as a social influence on sport participation

Many school sports require equipment and uniforms which in black schools and for many black children are hard to come by. Many children who do not have a uniform feel embarrassed and shy to participate in sport. Goldsmith (2003:152) avers that the school personnel mostly like to select learners who will best represent the school in interschool competitions, so they typically prefer better players and particularly learners who exhibit upper class cultural styles. The other motivating factor for the selection of high socioeconomic class learners is that, compared with their less privileged peers, they usually get a chance to play organized sport more prior to secondary school making them more comfortable in future participation. It was also found that higher socioeconomic adolescents participated in sport more than did lower socioeconomic status adolescents (Antshel & Anderman, 2000:87; Goldsmith, 2003:153). This therefore implies that some learners especially from poor communities fall by the wayside.

### 2.6.4 Role models and sport participation

Studies have shown that significant others, such as parents, peers and educators have a major influence upon a learner's sport involvement (Kremer et al, 1997:79; Carr & Weigand, 2002:16). Parents and families of learners who play sport support them in terms of finance, transport and encouragement. These support systems also appear to be

prominent socializing agents. Hellstedt (Carr & Weigand, 2002:164) investigated parental roles in influencing the sport experience of their children. He posits that this parental influence may be perceived as either positive or negative by the child. Perceived positive reactions from parents have led to greater enjoyment and participation by athletes whereas perceived negative responses might lead to competition anxiety, parent-child conflict, discouragement, burnout and withdrawal from sport.

On the same issue of parental role, Kremer et al (1997:81) found that the opportunity to watch parents play sport also appears to be a motivating factor for children to eventually participate in sport. It seems the age-old adage, 'active parents appear to have active children', holds true in this case. Pienaar (1998:68) also stresses Bandura's theory in this regard and says that children are shaped by what parents do and how they behave rather than what they say.

### 2.6.5 Psychological factors influencing physical activity and sport involvement

Understanding regular participation in exercise requires an equal understanding of the psychological theories that predict and explain exercise behaviour **(**Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2005:15). In terms of persuading learners to engage in sport and physical activity, the application of theoretical models to understand their participation motivation is important (Sit & Lindner, 2005:606). Potgieter (2003:8) avers that motivation is the key to participation, enjoyment and adherence in physical activity and sport. A discussion of the motivation theories will therefore elucidate some of the mysteries behind why some people are not motivated to engage in sport.

Motivation, according to Moran (2004:37) plays a crucial though somewhat misunderstood role in sport and exercise. The role is made crucial by the fact that athletic success depends significantly on the willingness of sport performers to exert both mental and physical effort in pursuit of excellence. Although one cannot observe motivation, the behaviour arising from it can be observed. Since this research is concerned with why adolescents do not participate in sport at secondary school level, it is, in essence concerned with the factors and influences which hinder them from getting involved in

physical activity and sport. Freemantle (Potgieter, 2003:8) and Moran (2004:38) give the following explanation about the origin of the word “motivation”:

> It derives from the old French word *movere* which means “to move”, which itself derives from the Latin word *motivus*. The word “motivation” has the same root as the words “motive,” “motor” and “motion.” Furthermore, the word “motivation” has the same root as the word “emotion.” It therefore has all to do with reasons (motives) for moving (motion) in a certain direction and is closely connected to how we feel (emotion).

At the most basic level, motivation is defined as an internal state that activates, energizes, or drives action or behaviour and determines its intensity and direction. In addition it is also thought to encompass the arousal and persistence of action or behaviour (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2005:100).

Traditionally, sport psychologists have distinguished between two different types of motivation – intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. According to Singer et al (2001:390) intrinsic motivation refers to:

> performing an activity for itself and the pleasure and satisfaction experienced from participation. People may be intrinsically motivated to know, intrinsically motivated to accomplish or intrinsically motivated to experience stimulation. Intrinsic motivation to know refers to engaging in an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction experienced while learning, exploring, or trying to understand something new. Intrinsic motivation to accomplish is related to engaging in a given activity for the pleasure and satisfaction experienced while *attempting* to accomplish and create something, or to surpass oneself.

The important aspect is thus the process of trying to accomplish something and not the outcome as such. Intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation occurs when one engages

in an activity to experience pleasant sensations associated mainly with one's senses. An example would be swimmers who swim because they enjoy the pleasant sensations they get as their bodies glide through the water.

The above distinction highlights the different ways in which intrinsic motivation may be experienced in sport and exercise. It can also lead to better prediction of behaviour as research has shown that engagement in specific sort of activities is related to three types of intrinsic motivation as illustrated above ( Singer et al, 2001:391).

Extrinsic motivation refers to engaging in an activity as a means to an end and not for its own sake (Singer et al, 2001:391; Moran, 2004:40). The person gets involved in a task largely as a result of external factors or rewards. Typical extrinsic factors held to motivate athletes include money, trophies, praise and/or other forms of social approval from significant others. Sometimes people will be extrinsically motivated even if they do not enjoy the physical activity associated with the motivation. For example, a golfer may decide to play golf or join a golf-club in order to make new business contacts – not because he/she actually enjoyed the game of golf.

Theoretically, according to Moran (*Ibid*) intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can be differentiated according to three criteria. First, considering the purpose of the activity, intrinsically motivated activities are undertaken for their own sake, whereas extrinsically motivated tasks get undertaken for some perceived instrumental benefit. Second, although intrinsically motivated people tend to seek experimental rewards, those who are extrinsically motivated tend to be influenced more by social and/or objective rewards like money. Lastly, intrinsically motivated people tend to experience less pressure than extrinsically motivated people when competing because the former are largely concerned with the experience of participation itself. Despite these theoretical differences, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation often overlap in real life (Moran, 2004:41).

A few theories related to motivation in sport will now be discussed briefly.

### *2.6.5.1 The Attribution Theory*

This is a vibrant research field in mainstream psychology which tries to explore people's explanations for the causes of events and behaviour. As Hagger and Chatzisarantis (2005:101) state, it is the study of the processes that underlie certain attributions and how they affect subsequent motivation and behaviour. Weiner's theory of attribution focused on understanding the nature, causes, and consequences of attributions of success and failure in achievement situations. He hypothesized that people's attributions could be put into three categories; stability of the cause (stable or unstable), locus of causality (internal or external), and whether the cause is controllable by the individual making the attribution (controllable or uncontrollable). In terms of success or failure, attributions may affect future expectations and motivation. According to Potgieter (2003:22), strong competitors tend to ascribe their success to stable, internal factors like their own ability. They tend to indicate that they are in control of the situation. They then attribute failures to external, unstable factors. After a loss they may attribute that to poor concentration, being unlucky or that they did not give full effort or use the appropriate strategy. They will however remain optimistic that they can perform better in future.

Poor competitors tend to attribute success to external, unstable factors. They usually do not give themselves credit for performance as they do not think they are as talented as other people think they are. When they fail they tend to ascribe the cause to stable internal factors, such as lack of talent and ability. Weak competitors have a pessimistic outlook and think that failure is inevitable and predestined. For example, a manager of a football team may ascribe their loss to some misfortunes over which he had no control (e.g. a series of unfair refereeing decisions). On the other hand a tennis player may attribute her victory over an opponent to her own tenacity and "never say die" attitude on court. These two examples highlight the difference between internal attributions and external attributions. The football manager's attribution is made to an external cause (the referee), while the tennis player's attribution is made to a personal quality (high motivation) (Moran, 2004:48). In terms of secondary school learners, it should be interesting to note the types of attributions used for lack of participation in sport .

The model can be summarized as follows:

- Stability factors influence expectation of future success;
- Causality factors influence emotional responses;
- Control factors influence levels of motivation

Coaches and educators have to be careful of athletes who are let to get away with faulty attributions. Correcting such faulty attributions can help athletes learn to reattribute success by acknowledging that improvements are through effort, not luck which, in turn, enhances motivation. If learners could be taught to re-attribute failure to a lack of effort, rather than a lack of ability, it might help reduce performance declines after failure.

#### *2.6.5.2 The Goal Orientation Theory*

This is a prominent approach that aims to explain motivation to achievement particularly in sport settings. According to Hagger & Chatzisarantis (2005:113) and Potgieter (2003:23), there are two orientations that define the way people tend to view their ability in a given context: a *task* or *mastery* orientation and an *ego* or *performance* orientation. In terms of motivation, an ego-oriented individual views sport participation as a means to an end and extrinsic rewards are highly valued. An ego-oriented person who experiences failure in sport may find it difficult to engage in that behaviour again. On the other hand, a task-oriented individual aims for personal development in terms of mastery of skill and ability and this is associated with intrinsic motivation. These are the people who will try harder and persist even when faced with setbacks. Adolescents always need guidance regarding their goal achievement orientation. The social climate, especially parents and coaches, play a prominent role in the formation of goal orientation of young participants. Seemingly children will try to adopt and imitate the way adults explain and attribute success in sport (Potgieter, 2003:25).

#### *2.6.5.3 Self-efficacy in sport*

Bandura's self-efficacy theory refers to one's judgment about one's capability to

successfully perform a task at a given time (Chase, 2001:47; Potgieter, 2003:25; Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2005:108). It goes beyond just knowing what behaviour is appropriate; rather it affects cognition, motivation, affect and behaviour. People with high self-efficacy towards a task can focus their attention and expend more energy on the task, persist in the face of difficulty and failure, solve problems more effectively and have more satisfaction about their attempts at the task than those with low efficacy who may be stressed and tend to divert attention from possible solutions (Chase, 2001:47).

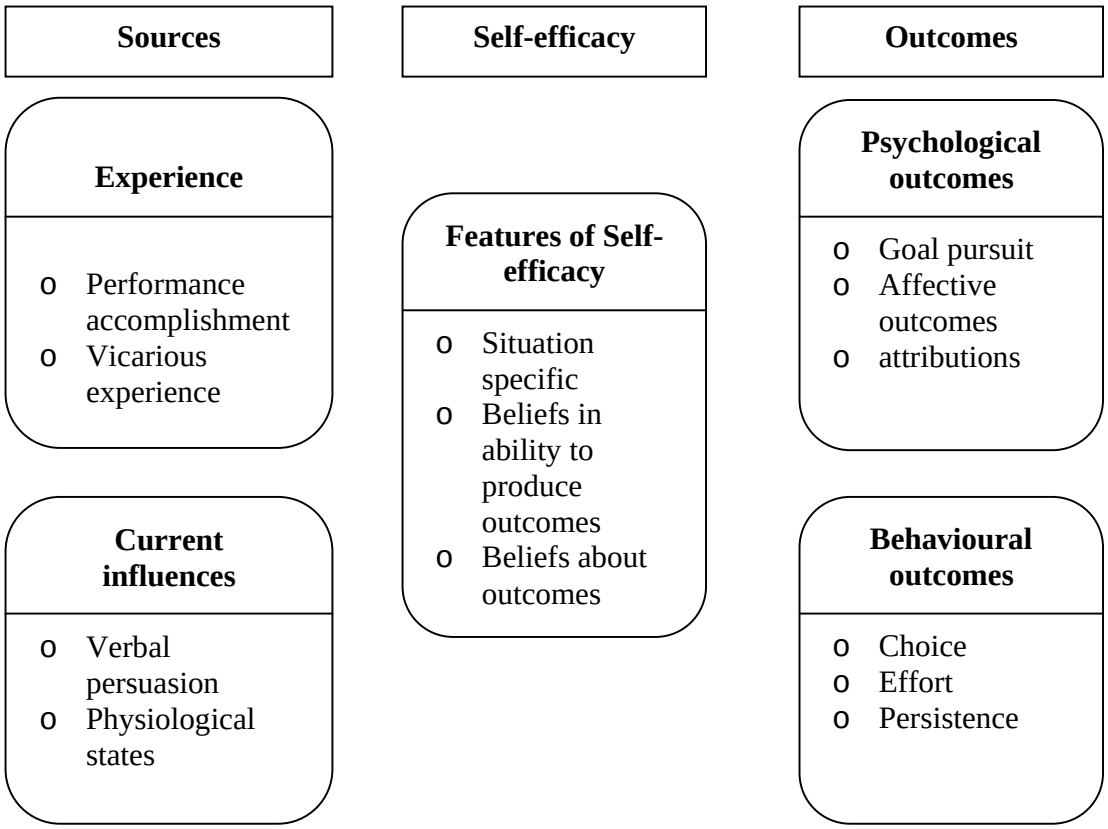


**Figure 2.1** *Relationship between information sources, self-efficacy, and psychological and behavioural outcomes.*
*(Adapted from Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2005:107)*

As outlined in Figure 2.1 self-efficacy is deemed to arise from several sources of information about a person's confidence categorized as past performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion and physiological states. Of these four, previous performance accomplishments seem to be the primary source of

information from which athletes draw their self-efficacy beliefs (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2005:111).

#### *2.6.5.4 Reversal Theory (RT)*

This is a relatively new approach applied to the study of anxiety and emotion in sport performance (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2005:156). It is mainly concerned with underlying motives that govern or direct human behaviour which are called "metamotivational states" (Sit & Lindner, 2005:607). It also attempts to offer explanations for inconsistencies associated with human emotion, cognition and motivation (Singer et al, 2001:330). This theory suggests that people alternate or "reverse" between the following four pairs of motivational states:

- *Telic* (serious or goal-directed) vs *paratelic* (playful, fun-seeking)
- *Conformist (*compliant and cooperative) vs *negativistic* (rebellious and defiant)
- *Autic* (self-centred) vs *alloic* (give something for others, other-centred)
- *Mastery* (being competent, gaining control) vs *sympathy* (empathetic with others)

These four motivational states are associated with basic psychological needs and goals of individuals. According to Sit & Lindner (*Ibid*), individuals may stay in one state for a while, or alternate between different states when triggered by environmental events, frustration or feelings of satisfaction. Research studies suggest that RT appears to be a useful theory to studying participation motivation in youth sport. This not only leads to better understanding of the relationship between arousal and performance, but will also help coaches and educators teach athletes about optimal arousal states and how to attain them. It could therefore be regarded as a new direction for contemporary researchers in sport psychology.

#### *2.6.5.5 The Relations Theory*

The Relations Theory is a Unisa model which explains the significance of the formation of relationships and the importance of the adolescent's relations with significant others, himself/herself and things, and how these can impact positively or negatively on his/her

experiential world (Roets, 2002:45-48). Significant others can be peers, siblings, educators and parents; while things can refer to sport, subjects and other ideas. Studies (e.g. Antshel et al, 2000:85-94) have shown that significant others have a major influence upon a child's sport participation. The vital question is what meaning the adolescent assigns to these relations.

The Relation model looks at the interrelatedness of experiences, involvement and attribution of meaning as the most important facets to the formation of an identity. A child forms identities on the basis of his/her involvement with people, things and himself/herself. This also depends on how he/she attributes meaning to and experiences his/her emotional and affective life. The way the child experiences his/her world influences his/her involvement in everything he/she does as well as the quality of relations formed. This is very significant for adolescents and sport participation because if the experiences are negative the adolescence might not be motivated to engage in them again. Involvement, however, requires knowledge otherwise a person cannot become involved in matters of which he/she has no deeper understanding of. Sport should be studied from the standpoint of what it feels like to be involved and how the individual perceives his involvement. The traditional way of teaching tends to ignore man's capacity for experiencing and understanding his/her feelings and significance as well as his/her own sense of responsibility to himself/herself and others. A learner's involvement in sport and physical activity may be one of the most viable means of providing him/her with the sense of what it's like to be uniquely human. (Harris, 1973:244-245).

As Antshel & Anderman (2000:86) state, adolescents may often adopt temporary identities as they struggle to search for their own identity. During this ongoing search they may then align themselves strongly with a particular peer group or activity. Sport participation can then sometimes serve as this temporary identity. There is modest evidence that participation in sport leads to enhanced development in the psychological, physical and social domains as well (*Ibid*). It is therefore imperative for educators and sport coaches to try and make adolescents aware of the physical and psychological benefits of sport and exercise. Experiences in sport might become much more enjoyable and meaningful if learners attribute positive significance to such sporting activities as

well as to themselves as sportsmen. As Harris (1973:249) states, an understanding of psychological involvement and significance should be conveyed to the learners so that participation will continue, resulting in maximal benefits holistically. This might also motivate them to participate more actively in sport in future.

## 2.7 CONCLUSION

Despite its limitations, this research will add to the literature documenting the importance of involvement in sport for adolescents. School sport participation is associated with physical, mental health as well as psychological benefits. As Van Den Berg (Harris, 1973:249) succinctly puts it, physical movement derives its significance from three sources: the way the individual regards his world, his perception of himself and his functional reciprocity to his environment and his perception of the self toward others. Within this framework, movement experiences can serve to assist the individual in self-discovery, in his interaction with others and with his environment. Educators and coaches therefore need to assist learners in their self-discovery through exercise and sport. They need to learn to what extent nonparticipation is influenced by factors such as family responsibilities or economic pressures, social discomfort or personal preferences and whether some of these barriers can be overcome.

The factors and theories that have been discussed will be used to measure and evaluate the lack of participation of black learners in sport. This will be done by way of questionnaires and interviews conducted among selected samples of schools in Kwa-Zulu Natal and this will be covered in **Chapter 3**.

# CHAPTER 3

## *THE METHOD OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION*

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the research methodology that was used to find reasons for nonparticipation in sport by black learners at secondary school level. This research acknowledges and concurs with McNeal's (1999:291) view about participation in sport being associated with a host of positive educational, social and developmental outcomes such as "increased achievement, improved interpersonal skills, reduced levels of delinquency, a reduced likelihood of dropping out, and improved self-esteem," it therefore wishes to understand why most black learners at secondary school do not adequately engage in sport. The reasons for this are many and varied and this research seeks to elucidate that.

The main rationale behind the study, as stated in Chapter 1 is that there is a national clamour in South Africa for inclusion of more blacks in all sporting codes so as to reflect the demographics of the country, but because of the slow progress in achieving this outcome the researcher finds it even more interesting to conduct this study. This chapter therefore discusses research subjects, research instruments, research design, sampling and data collection.

This study used mainly the quantitative research design. The goal of quantitative research is, according to McMillan and Schumacher (2001:40) "to provide statistical descriptions, relationships and explanations" while qualitative techniques "provide verbal descriptions to portray the richness and complexity of events that occur in natural settings from the participants' perspectives." It was therefore important for this study to focus more on the use of the quantitative research design as this seems the most appropriate technique of data collection in educational research.

## 3.2 HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses were formulated based on the literature study and personal experience:

### 3.2.1 Hypothesis 1

***There is a significant difference between males and females with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport.***

**Rationale**

Antshel and Anderman (2000:86), posit that some of the reasons why adolescents participate in sport are drawn along gender lines. In addition, the way children get socialized toward athletics has an impact on their participation or nonparticipation in sport at primary and secondary school level. According to Guillet, Sarrazin & Fontayne (2000:420), evidence suggests that participation in sport declines more dramatically for females than for males during adolescence. This is a period of change when young women explore their identities and try to come to terms with changes in their bodies and changing sexuality. Their conflict is compounded by the stereotypic prescriptions of society about the different gender roles of masculinity and femininity.

### 3.2.2 Hypothesis 2

***There is a significant difference between learners with parents of different family income with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport.***

**Rationale**

According to literature study, higher socioeconomic adolescents participate in sport more than do lower socioeconomic status adolescents (Antshel & Anderman, 2000:87; Goldsmith, 2003:153). Many school sports require equipment and uniforms which are

almost nonexistent in black schools. Learners who do not have the sport kit required to participate in sport therefore feel embarrassed and shy to participate. Goldsmith (Ibid) also avers that the school personnel mostly like to select learners who will best represent the school in competitions, so they typically prefer learners who exhibit upper class cultural styles.

### 3.2.3 Hypothesis 3

***There is a significant difference between learners in different grades with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport.***

**Rationale**

Learners at primary school seem to be very active with regard to school sport and one would expect this enthusiasm to be carried over to secondary school. However, personal observation points to the contrary and suggests a waning in interest for learners at secondary school. When asked about their lack of interest in sport, most learners in the lower grades at secondary school put the blame on the older learners. They claim that older learners exclude them from most school sport and prefer learners in their own grades (As told by one principal in the selected secondary schools). There is not much research evidence in the literature about the existence of significant differences between learners in different grades with regard to their nonparticipation in sport.

### 3.2.4 Hypothesis 4

***There is a significant difference between learners from different home environments (such as urban areas, rural areas and townships) with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport.***

**Rationale**

Most black learners who come from townships live in poverty and are raised by single

parents or grandmothers who view participation in sport as a luxury they cannot afford. Such conditions of dire poverty and underdevelopment in these township and rural schools militate against participation in sport. As Merchant, Griffin & Charnock (2007:112) put it, physical activity may be impeded in some instances because of "barriers such as poverty, the lack of sport and recreation facilities and safe play areas." While rural areas may appear safer than urban and township areas, there are other problems peculiar to rural areas which might be contributing to the reasons for learners' nonparticipation in sport. Urban schools differ from rural schools in terms of size and resources. Schools with more resources provide more sports and teams, and sport participation rates may be higher in urban schools than in rural schools (Goldsmith, 2003:152). The scourge of AIDS might also be affecting these learners' health negatively, making them weak and unable to participate in sport.

## 3.3 SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE

Black secondary school learners in Durban township schools, who do not participate in school sport were the main population for this study. The subjects were selected using the stratified random sampling in terms of age and gender. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001:172), for stratified random sampling the population is divided into subgroups or strata from which samples are then drawn randomly either proportionally or non-proportionally. This is more efficient than simple random sampling as a smaller number of subjects would need to be used and it also allows the researcher to compare subgroup results. Four schools participated in this survey:

- Secondary School A in Ndengezi
- Secondary School B in Ndengezi
- Secondary School C in KwaMashu
- Secondary School D in KwaMashu

All the secondary schools that were selected fall under the Pinetown District of eThekwini Region in KwaZulu-Natal and comprise of black learners from very impoverished family backgrounds. These learners come from communities that have a

high rate of unemployment which often results in extreme poverty. The scourge of the HIV and Aids pandemic exacerbates the problem as it leads to many of the learners becoming heads of households at a very early age. Having nothing or very little to do, many young people in these areas resort to a life of crime.

The four schools selected in the sample provide a mix of schools representing urban, township, informal settlements and rural areas. The two schools A and B are in Ndengezi township which is about 30 kilometres west of Durban while the other two are in KwaMashu which is about 30 kilometres north of Durban. KwaMashu is a typical South African township and one of the fastest growing ones in KwaZulu Natal in terms of urbanization. The township was formed by the apartheid state to house the mass of Africans that were living in Cato Manor and Durban central during 1958-65. Many of the residents have incomes below subsistence level and many are unemployed. The area is associated with high levels of violence and crime. Lately, massive informal settlements have mushroomed in and around KwaMashu. This has created much political and educational research interest and has also turned it into one of the presidential nodal areas.

A total of 246 learners from the ninth to the twelfth grades in the four schools from Ndengezi and KwaMashu participated in this study (mean age = 16.4, SD = 1.76). The total number of learners to whom the questionnaire was administered is as follows:

**TABLE 3.1 DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNERS IN TERMS OF GENDER AND GRADE**

| | **Gr 9** | **Gr 10** | **Gr 11** | **Gr 12** | **Total** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Male** | 27 | 34 | 30 | 24 | **115** |
| **Female** | 38 | 34 | 28 | 31 | **131** |
| **Total** | **65** | **68** | **58** | **55** | **246** |

There were 115 males and 131 females used in the sample.

**TABLE 3.2 DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNERS IN TERMS OF PARENTS' MARITAL STATUS**

| Parent | Number | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Single | 112 | 45,53 |
| Divorced | 27 | 10,98 |
| Married | 63 | 25,61 |
| Deceased | 44 | 17,89 |

The above table indicates that the majority of learners in the sample were from single parent families. Out of the total of 246 learners, 112 were raised by single parents which is 45,5% of the total sample, 27 (10,98%) learners were raised by parents who are divorced while 44 (17,89%) learners were orphans. Learners who were raised by married parents were 63 which is 25,61% of the total sample.

**TABLE 3.3 DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNERS IN TERMS OF PARENTS' INCOME**

| Income | Number | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Poor | 53 | 21.54 |
| Average | 184 | 74.80 |
| Above average | 9 | 3.66 |

The majority of learners were from families where parents earned an average income (74% of learners).

**TABLE 3.4 DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNERS IN TERMS OF HOME ENVIRONMENT** (There were 246 observations read and 245 used)

| Home | Number | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Urban | 27 | 11.02 |
| Township | 196 | 80.00 |
| Rural | 22 | 8.98 |

A high percentage of learners (80%) were from the townships around Durban and mainly Zulu speakers.

The researcher opted to leave out the grade eight learners as they are still in transition from the primary school whereas the other learners from grade nine to twelve form the core of learner population at secondary school. Each school was asked to have equal representation of girls and boys from each grade to make the sample representative of the target population of black learners who do not participate in sport at secondary school level. Of the intended target of 256 learners, ten did not turn up to complete the questionnaire so that the sample became 246 instead of 256.

## 3.4 THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT USED IN THE INVESTIGATION

Data collection for this study was mainly by means of a questionnaire which was in English as this is the medium of instruction in the schools where the sample was taken. The questionnaire was selected for its suitability of being economical, has the same questions for all subjects and can ensure anonymity (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:257).

This was a structured questionnaire with closed-form scaled items chosen for its objectivity and the fact that it would be very time-consuming for the researcher to categorize many open-ended responses. According to McMillan & Schumacher (2001:261) scales are used extensively in questionnaires because “they allow fairly accurate assessments of beliefs or opinions.” As human beings, our beliefs and opinions are thought of in terms of gradations since we either believe something very strongly or intently or we have a positive or negative opinion of something.

The questionnaire had Section A which was used to elicit important biographical information and socioeconomic background of learners while Section B formed the main part of the questionnaire and used closed-ended questions to elicit the following:

- Economic factors contributing to nonparticipation in sport

- Availability of facilities
- Factors related to self-image
- Political factors
- Health related factors influencing nonparticipation in sport
- Social factors

In designing the questionnaire the following factors were taken into consideration and learners had to grade their responses according to the supplied statements:

### *3.4.1 ECONOMIC FACTORS (e.g. financial ability)*

- I have to do some chores at home after school as there is no maid.
- My parents cannot afford the sport kit needed.
- Engaging in sport costs a lot of money.
- I am from a very poor family.
- I do not get enough financial support from my parents to play sport.
- People who play sport are from rich families.
- To get into the team is very difficult, especially if you are poor.
- When I participate in sport my parents cannot afford to pay for transport.
- My parents cannot afford to provide the sporting equipment.
- I have to do piece-time jobs to support myself.
- My family think if I play sport it will be a waste of money.

### *3.4.2 AVAILABILITY OF FACILITIES (coaches, transport, type of sport offered etc.)*

- At school, grounds are not well-maintained for sport participation.
- Our school ground needs a security fence.
- My school does not have a coach for sport.
- There is lack of more knowledgeable and qualified coaches.
- Black schools generally have very poor and undeveloped sporting facilities.
- Other learners steal the sport equipment.

- It is difficult to get transport to take me home after sport practice.
- The variety of sport offered at my school is limited.
- My school does not have adequate equipment for sport.
- There are no properly organized recreational activities in our area.
- Our teachers are forced to coach and have no enthusiasm for sport.
- My school does not offer the sport I am interested in.
- Sport does not interest me anymore since my favourite coach was dismissed.
- It is dangerous to use public transport after school.

### *3.4.3 FACTORS RELATED TO SELF-IMAGE*

- Other learners laugh at you when you play sport.
- Exercise makes me look sweaty.
- I am too shy to make mistakes in front of others.
- I cannot stand being criticized by other athletes.
- I dislike bulging muscles.
- I do not feel confident enough to compete.
- Changing in front of other learners is embarrassing.
- I am not happy with my present weight.
- I fear failure.
- I do not like publicity.
- It opens you up to silly remarks and lowers your self esteem.
- I do not have the athletic body suitable to play sport.
- My face is too important to me right now to get it sunburnt.

### *3.4.4 POLITICAL FACTORS*

- The government does not adequately support school sport.
- The government has totally neglected our recreational facilities.
- Sport is associated with our political history.
- It seems like a forced activity trying to make up for sins of the past.

- Blacks have little chance of being selected into the national team in most sports.
- A black player has to be exceptionally good to merit the attention of coaches.
- Black players are culturally alienated and isolated off the field.
- Sport is still being dominated by white administrators.
- Sport is still associated with the apartheid era.
- Black parents still regard academic education as the key into the future, not sport.
- Black educators still regard academic education as the key into the future, not sport.
- Black learners are politically conscientized to believe that education is more important than sport.
- Political rivalries in our community prevent me from participating in sport.
- Our schools are given facilities according to the political affiliation of the community.

### *3.4.5 HEALTH RELATED FACTORS*

- I am taking medication.
- I once fainted during exercise.
- I become very cold and pale after exercise.
- I am not aware of the benefits of sport to my health.
- I have been advised by a doctor not to participate in any sport.
- I have allergies.
- My academic results were very poor last year because of ill-health.
- I have asthma.
- I have previously experienced severe pain in my neck or arms during exercise.
- I have high blood pressure.
- My parents fear that I'll get injured in sport.

- My skin is very sensitive to sunlight.

### *3.4.6 SOCIAL FACTORS (Parents, peers, the community)*

- My parents associate sport participation with aggressive behaviour.
- My friends think sport is for nerds.
- It interferes with my TV viewing time.
- I spend most of my time with friends.
- No-one in my family participates in sport.
- My parents do not participate in any of my school activities.
- My siblings do not like sport at all.
- Some learners have been badly assaulted and robbed during sport events.
- My culture does not encourage sport participation.
- My community associates sport participation with drugs.
- My religion does not allow me to participate in sport.
- Most of my friends do not participate in sport.
- My family think I am not good in any sport.
- My siblings always laugh at my sporting abilities.
- Our community is infested with criminals who interfere with school activities.

Each respondent had to consider each statement that is a potential obstacle to participation in sport in terms of its degree of influence, from strong influence on the left to no influence on the right. The result was a reasonably simple, easy to complete instrument. (cf **Appendix 6**).

## 3.5 RESEARCH PROCEDURE

An application letter to conduct research, copy of proposal, draft research instrument and registration letter from Unisa were submitted to the Superintendent General, KwaZulu Natal Department of Education – Research, Strategy, Policy Development and EMIS

Directorate. Permission to conduct this study was granted with the following terms and conditions: (cf ***Appendix 5*** ):

- The researcher to present a copy of the written permission from the Department to the head of the institution concerned before any research may be undertaken at a departmental institution.

- Schools were not obligated to participate in the research if it is not a KwaZulu Natal Department of Education (KZNDoE) project.

- The researcher to conduct his/her research during official contact times unless education programmes would be interrupted, in this case research would be conducted during nonofficial contact times.

- No school should participate in the research during the fourth school term as this is the critical period for schools to focus on their exams.

The principals of the four schools were contacted by telephone to inform them about the research and to arrange a time and date when the researcher could visit the school to make personal arrangements with the school. During the visit the researcher was assigned an educator to work with who would ensure that the right sample of learners is selected and who would assist with the administration of the questionnaire. After the schools granted permission to perform the study, informed consent was sought from parents or guardians through the class educators.

Prior the questionnaire administration, the questionnaire was pilot tested with a group of learners representative of the sample from one of the schools. This enabled the researcher to gauge the amount of time it would take learners to complete the questionnaire and what words they would have difficulty in understanding. Minor adjustments and revision were then made to finalize the research instrument.

Data collection was completed on the days that had been set aside for the different schools. Learners were assembled in one big room and the researcher identified herself and stated the purpose of the study. Learners were assured that their identities and that of their school as well as their responses would be protected. Before distributing the questionnaire, learners were reminded of the importance of giving honest answers and were informed that this was not a test, there were no right and wrong answers. They were not to talk to anyone during the session except to ask for help from the researcher or the educator if something in the questionnaire was not clear.

One educator from the school assisted with the administration of the questionnaire as previously arranged. Instructions were read out to the learners and the questionnaires were filled out during contact time. This was done during the long break or during sport time so as not to cause disruptions. Only learners who agreed to participate in the study completed the questionnaire. They were allowed to complete the questionnaire at their own pace and completed within twenty and forty minutes. When the learners had finished they returned the questionnaire to the researcher and were given a sweet as a token of appreciation and left the room.

**Chapter 4** contains a detailed analysis and interpretation of the results of the empirical investigation.

# CHAPTER 4

## *RESULTS OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION*

## 4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter various hypotheses relating to the factors which may influence nonparticipation in sport at secondary school level were formulated. In order to test the hypotheses, a questionnaire was developed and administered to 246 secondary school learners. Each learner's age and gender were also obtained. This chapter contains the analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaire.

## 4.2 ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire consists of six sections, namely, economic factors, availability of facilities, self-image, political factors, health related factors and social factors. An item analysis was done for each of the sections of the questionnaire in order to establish whether an item made a significant contribution to a particular section. In the event that an item made no contribution or contributed negatively to the section, that item could be discarded.

When an item analysis is done, an Alpha reliability coefficient is usually calculated for the existing items. The programme also provides the item-total correlation for each item and the change in the reliability coefficient if a particular item is omitted. On the basis of this information it can then be decided which items should be left out or retained.

Tables 4.1 to 4.6 contain the results of the item analysis:

**TABLE 4.1 ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SECTION: ECONOMIC FACTORS**

No. of subjects : 246
No. of items : 11
Alpha reliability coefficient : 0,777

| ITEM | ITEM CORRELATION WITH TOTAL | ALPHA IF ITEM IS LEFT OUT |
|---|---|---|
| 2 | 0,126 | 0,794 |
| 9 | 0,513 | 0,750 |
| 14 | 0,526 | 0,749 |
| 28 | 0,435 | 0,759 |
| 33 | 0,566 | 0,744 |
| 36 | 0,329 | 0,771 |
| 76 | 0,413 | 0,761 |
| 32 | 0,586 | 0,741 |
| 73 | 0,572 | 0,743 |
| 43 | 0,212 | 0,784 |
| 48 | 0,468 | 0,755 |

Item 2 correlated very low with the total of this section and it was therefore left out. When this item was omitted the alpha reliability coefficient changed to 0,794.

**TABLE 4.2 ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SECTION: FACILITIES**

No. of subjects : 246
No. of items : 14
Alpha reliability coefficient : 0,672

| ITEM | ITEM CORRELATION WITH TOTAL | ALPHA IF ITEM IS LEFT OUT |
|---|---|---|
| 29 | 0,333 | 0,647 |
| 34 | 0,308 | 0,649 |
| 38 | 0,342 | 0,644 |
| 41 | 0,296 | 0,652 |
| 42 | 0,339 | 0,646 |
| 45 | 0,169 | 0,668 |
| 51 | 0,270 | 0,655 |
| 54 | 0,254 | 0,657 |
| 55 | 0,460 | 0,627 |
| 58 | 0,344 | 0,644 |
| 60 | 0,254 | 0,657 |
| 69 | 0,300 | 0,650 |
| 71 | 0,148 | 0,672 |
| 79 | 0,224 | 0,661 |

All items made a significant contribution to this section therefore they were all retained.

**TABLE 4.3 ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SECTION: SELF-IMAGE**

No. of subjects : 246
No. of items : 13
Alpha reliability coefficient : 0,677

| ITEM | ITEM CORRELATION WITH TOTAL | ALPHA IF ITEM IS LEFT OUT |
|---|---|---|
| 7 | 0, 099 | 0,688 |
| 8 | 0,269 | 0,664 |
| 22 | 0,402 | 0,644 |
| 25 | 0,276 | 0,663 |
| 26 | 0,219 | 0,671 |
| 53 | 0,344 | 0,653 |
| 56 | 0,235 | 0,669 |
| 72 | 0,355 | 0,651 |
| 46 | 0,346 | 0,653 |
| 66 | 0,389 | 0,647 |
| 77 | 0,247 | 0,667 |
| 67 | 0,344 | 0,653 |
| 74 | 0,424 | 0,640 |

Item 7 correlated very low with the total of this section and it was therefore left out. When this item was omitted the alpha reliability coefficient changed to 0,688.

**TABLE 4.4 ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SECTION: POLITICAL FACTORS**

No. of subjects : 246
No. of items : 14
Alpha reliability coefficient : 0,682

| ITEM | ITEM CORRELATION WITH TOTAL | ALPHA IF ITEM IS LEFT OUT |
|---|---|---|
| 5 | 0,114 | 0,695 |
| 30 | 0,304 | 0,671 |
| 61 | 0,280 | 0,671 |
| 63 | 0,336 | 0,665 |
| 35 | 0,242 | 0,678 |
| 65 | 0,371 | 0,661 |
| 52 | 0,421 | 0,653 |
| 78 | 0,442 | 0,652 |
| 68 | 0,268 | 0,672 |
| 39 | 0,250 | 0,679 |
| 70 | 0,305 | 0,671 |
| 27 | 0,436 | 0,652 |
| 24 | 0,303 | 0,668 |
| 17 | 0,144 | 0,689 |

Item 5 was left out as it correlated very low with the total of this section. When this item was left out the alpha reliability coefficient became 0,695.

**TABLE 4.5 ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SECTION: HEALTH FACTORS**

No. of subjects : 246
No. of items : 12
Alpha reliability coefficient : 0,744

| ITEM | ITEM CORRELATION WITH TOTAL | ALPHA IF ITEM IS LEFT OUT |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 0,493 | 0,724 |
| 4 | 0,348 | 0,741 |
| 12 | 0,456 | 0,729 |
| 18 | 0,268 | 0,750 |
| 19 | 0,513 | 0,721 |
| 20 | 0,432 | 0,731 |
| 21 | 0,403 | 0,735 |
| 31 | 0,372 | 0,738 |
| 37 | 0,291 | 0,748 |
| 47 | 0,435 | 0,731 |
| 50 | 0,271 | 0,751 |
| 75 | 0,337 | 0,743 |

All items were suitable and were therefore retained.

**TABLE 4.6 ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SECTION: SOCIAL FACTORS**

No. of subjects : 246
No. of items : 15
Alpha reliability coefficient : 0,644

| ITEM | ITEM CORRELATION WITH TOTAL | ALPHA IF ITEM IS LEFT OUT |
|---|---|---|
| 3 | 0,317 | 0,636 |
| 6 | 0,264 | 0,642 |
| 10 | 0,303 | 0,639 |
| 11 | 0,060 | 0,671 |
| 13 | 0,216 | 0,651 |
| 16 | 0,237 | 0,648 |
| 64 | 0,387 | 0,625 |
| 49 | 0,205 | 0,653 |
| 44 | 0,371 | 0,625 |
| 15 | 0,366 | 0,627 |
| 23 | 0,284 | 0,639 |
| 40 | 0,145 | 0,661 |
| 57 | 0,354 | 0,630 |
| 59 | 0,348 | 0,630 |
| 62 | 0,167 | 0,656 |

Item 11 correlated very low with the total of this section and it was then omitted. The alpha reliability coefficient then changed to 0,671 when item 11 was omitted.

## 4.3 RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The closer the reliability of a measuring instrument is to 1, the smaller the difference is between the variance of the actual score and the observed score. When a research instrument is therefore developed the tendency is to get the reliability of the instrument as close to 1 as possible.

As the questionnaire could only be administered once for practical reasons, the test-retest method of determining the reliability of the questionnaire could not be used. The reliability was therefore arrived at through calculating the alpha coefficient for each of the sections.

**TABLE 4.7 FINAL RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT OF EACH SECTION**

| SECTION | ALPHA COEFFICIENT | NO. OF ITEMS |
|---|---|---|
| Economic factors | 0,794 | 10 |
| Facilities | 0,672 | 14 |
| Self-image | 0,688 | 12 |
| Political factors | 0,695 | 13 |
| Health factors | 0,744 | 12 |
| Social reasons | 0,671 | 14 |

According to the information in Table 4.7, an item was removed from the first, third, fourth and sixth factors. The removed items were 1, 7, 5, and 11 respectively as they correlated very low with the total of the particular section. In total 75 items were retained.

## 4.4 THE MOST IMPORTANT REASONS FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT AT SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVEL

The aim of the study was to find reasons for nonparticipation in sport at secondary school level and to conduct an analysis of the problem of nonparticipation. The results obtained

would help towards improving intervention strategies and in motivating more learners to participate in school sport. There were six possible factors identified as the reasons for learners' nonparticipation in sport at secondary school level: economic, facilities, self-image, political, health and social factors. These factors were measured with a questionnaire and the means and standard deviation for each of them appear in Table 4.8.

**TABLE 4.8 THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE SIX FACTORS**

| VARIABLE | N | MEAN | STD DEV |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Facilities** | 246 | 34,84 | 7,13 |
| **Political factor** | 246 | 28,18 | 6,54 |
| **Social factor** | 246 | 27,02 | 6,49 |
| **Self-image** | 246 | 26,32 | 6,54 |
| **Economic factor** | 246 | 22,07 | 6,73 |
| **Health** | 246 | 21,17 | 6,50 |

According to Table 4.8, facilities seem to be the most important factor relating to nonparticipation in sport by learners at secondary school level. This factor is followed by political, social, self-image and economic factors. The least important factor for nonparticipation in sport seems to be health.

The results suggest that most learners get discouraged from participating in sport because of lack of well maintained and accessible facilities. Most schools in the townships do not have their own sport fields and equipment for use by learners. If any grounds are available, they are often subject to neglect or vandalism as most of the schools cannot afford a security fence (see section 2.6.1). From the literature studied, the subject of facilities is hardly canvassed especially with regard to black township schools. This is a significant factor since it is amenable to easier intervention than other factors.

From the literature study it has been indicated that learners do not participate in sport for a variety of reasons some of which are: lack of proper facilities conducive to athletic participation, economic reasons like lack of proper sport kit, political factors, health related factors, factors related to self-image and social factors (Goldsmith, 2003:152). As expected, the factors that militate against black learners participating in sport dovetail and merge into each other. The self-same political environment that creates a social underclass leads to a set of learners that have a poor self-image and self-esteem and who lack the stimulus to go for it, to be ambitious and to pit themselves against others, or to set themselves high goals. These qualities of self-image, self-esteem, internal stimulus, ambition and setting of high goals are as essential to participating in sport as they are the result of it. As our study shows there is a direct relation between low self-image and nonparticipation.

Most sport entails some form of expenditure, be it in the form of subscription fees, uniforms and equipment. For many black learners sport is a luxury that comes way down on their list of priorities. There are too many other more important things that claim first attention to every rand they spend, things such as food, shelter, school fees, school uniforms and transport to school. Sport also requires a certain level of physical prowess, therefore poor health in any form militates or limits learners' participation in sport. This factor has greater significance in black schools where facilities for various health conditions are nonexistent.

The general political milieu in South Africa in which blacks constitute a degraded and demotivated underclass is also a significant factor in contributing to black learners not participating in school sport. Many sport such as rugby, cricket, swimming, squash and others are regarded as white elitist sport and are not even provided for in black schools. Only a limited number of sport such as soccer are provided for in black schools. In addition the political allocation of resources has historically been biased against black schools, so that there is a direct correlation between the influence of politics and the paucity of facilities in discouraging black learners from participating in school sport.

There is again a correlation between the political order and the social circumstances of black learners. As stated above, black learners emanate from the black underclass of South African society and are affected socially and psychologically by their status. They are demotivated, despondent and devoid of the zest for life that participation in sport requires. Their social environment is demoralizing, does not promote self-esteem and lacks role models. They not only do not participate in sport, but are simply passed by many of life's opportunities.

## 4.5 FURTHER ANALYSIS OF THE MOST IMPORTANT REASONS FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT

To do a further analysis it was decided to look at the most important items that influence nonparticipation in sport at secondary school level. In paragraph 4.2 an item analysis was done of the questionnaire and tables 4.1 to 4.6 contain the results of this analysis. The top five items that correlate best with each factor were identified and listed in order of importance.

### 4.5.1 Facilities

According to Table 4.2, the items that correlate best with the total for the factor facilities are:

- 55 – my school does not have adequate equipment for sport
- 58 – there are no properly organized recreational activities in our area
- 38 – my school does not have a coach for sport
- 42 – black schools generally have very poor and underdeveloped sporting facilities
- 29 – at school, grounds are not well maintained for sport participation

From the above table it can be concluded that the factor facilities boil down to adequate equipment, properly organized recreational amenities, coaching as well as upgraded and

well maintained grounds. For sport managers and administrators wanting to improve sport participation at secondary school level, these are the vital areas to focus on.

### 4.5.2 Political factor

Table 4.4 indicates that items which correlate best with the total of the political factor are:

- 78 – sport is being dominated by white administrators
- 27 – black learners are politically conscientized to believe that education is more important than sport
- 52 – black players are culturally alienated and isolated off the field
- 65 – a black player has to be exceptionally good to merit the attention of coaches
- 63 – it seems like a forced activity trying to make up for sins of the past

The most important items under the political factor are racial inequality in sport, cultural isolation of black players and bias of coaches. Learners also seem to feel that sport is forced on them to bridge political gaps that were created in the past.

### 4.5.3 Social factor

According to Table 4.6, the items that correlate best with the total for social factors are:

- 64 – my siblings do not like sport at all
- 44 – my culture does not encourage sport participation
- 15 – my community associates sport participation with drugs
- 57 – my family think I am not good in any sport
- 59 – my siblings always laugh at my sporting abilities

There seems to be a huge role played by family members when it comes to reasons given for nonparticipation in sport. If learners do not get adequate encouragement and motivation from their siblings they seem not to be interested in participating in sport.

Besides the family, culture and the community also influence whether learners will participate in sport or not. Different cultures and communities have different expectations from the activities of their members and learners might not participate in sport out of respect for or restrictions of cultural norms (Kirk, 2006:770).

### 4.5.4 Self-image

According to Table 4.3, the most important items that correlate with the total for self-image are:

- 74 – my face is too important to me right now to get it sunburnt
- 22 – I am too shy to make mistakes in front of others
- 66 – I do not like publicity
- 72 – I am not happy with my present weight
- 46 – I fear failure

An analysis of the above items seems to indicate that learners who do not participate in sport are more concerned with how they present themselves to others. These learners seem to be too self-conscious about their looks and public image and do not want to be seen as failures by others. According to Merchant et al (2007:196), restrictive and revealing sport kits may make some girls very aware and sometimes embarrassed of their bodies as they get subjected to taunts and ridicule from insensitive and unsympathetic classmates and educators.

## 4.6 TESTING HYPOTHESES

### 4.6.1 TESTING HYPOTHESIS 1

With regard to hypothesis 1 as stated in paragraph 3.2.1, the following null hypothesis was tested:

***There is no significant difference between males and females with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport.***

The null hypothesis applies to all six factors which were identified as possible reasons for nonparticipation in sport at secondary school level. All 246 learners were used to test this hypothesis. There were 115 males (Group 1) and 131 females (Group 2). To determine whether the average reasons for nonparticipation for males differed from those of girls, the mean of each group was calculated and compared. The t-test was used to determine whether the two means differed significantly. The results appear in table 4.9:

**TABLE 4.9 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE AVERAGE SCORES OF REASONS FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT FOR MALES AND FEMALES**

| VARIABLE | GROUP | NO | MEAN | S | T | D.F. | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ECONOMIC FACTOR | 1<br>2 | 115<br>131 | 21,87<br>22,25 | 7,01<br>6,50 | 0,44 | 244 | p > 0,05 |
| FACILITIES | 1<br>2 | 115<br>131 | 34,27<br>35,34 | 7,22<br>7,05 | 1,17 | 244 | p > 0,05 |
| SELF-IMAGE | 1<br>2 | 115<br>131 | 24,48<br>27,93 | 6,02<br>6,57 | 4,27 | 244 | p < 0,01 |
| POLITICAL FACTOR | 1<br>2 | 115<br>131 | 27,56<br>28,73 | 6,82<br>6,26 | 1,40 | 244 | p > 0,05 |
| HEALTH | 1<br>2 | 115<br>131 | 20,18<br>22,04 | 6,51<br>6,38 | 2,26 | 244 | p < 0,05 |
| SOCIAL FACTOR | 1<br>2 | 115<br>131 | 25,93<br>27,98 | 6,33<br>6,51 | 2,49 | 244 | p < 0,05 |

According to Table 4.9, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected for the economic, facilities and the political factors at the 5% level of significance. There is no significant difference between the means. Males and females do not differ with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport in terms of economic factor, facilities and political factors.

However, Table 4.9 reveals that the null hypothesis can be rejected at the 5% level of significance for the variables health and social reasons and at the 1% level of significance for self-image. Taking the averages into consideration, females consider their self-image as a more important reason for nonparticipation in sport than males. This seems to be a period when females are exploring their identities and struggling with the changes in their bodies and changing sexuality. The role of self-image may provide a reason for the decline in sport participation shown by Guillet et al (2000:420). Girls are more concerned with the way they present themselves to society. The image of slimness that is promoted in the media seems to be more appealing to females than the bulging muscles appreciated by males (Klomsten et al, 2005:625-636).

The results also indicate that females tend to be more health conscious and socialized differently with regard to participation in sport. Girls tend to shy away from engaging in activities where there might be a risk of getting hurt and this includes sport at school. Young girls are also not well received and applauded for sport participation like boys because sport is associated more with masculinity than femininity. They are often subjected to choosing between being physically active (masculine) and being slim and slender (desirable and feminine) (Kirk et al, 2006:777). Merchant et al (2007:193) ascribe some of the reasons of these negative experiences of girls to: lack of awareness regarding body image; a highly prescribed sport uniform which some girls might feel is too revealing and the sexist attitude of some educators and learners regarding participation in sport.

### 4.6.2 TESTING HYPOTHESIS 2

With regard to hypothesis 2 stated in paragraph 3.2.2, the following null hypothesis was tested:

***There is no significant difference between learners with parents of different family income with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport.***

All 246 learners were used to test this hypothesis. Learners from families with average income were in the majority as there were 184 out of a total of 246 learners. The subjects were divided into the following three groups on the basis of their family income:

Group 1: low income
Group 2: average income
Group 3: above average income

The average score for each of the three groups was calculated for each of the factors. In order to compare these averages, an analysis of variance was carried out and the results appear on Table 4.10.

**TABLE 4.10 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN INCOME GROUPS WITH REGARD TO THE ECONOMIC FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GROUP | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 53 | 26,13 | 5,82 |
| 2 | 184 | 20,96 | 6,66 |
| 3 | 9 | 20,88 | 4,01 |

$F(2,243) = 13,5 \qquad p < 0,01$

The null hypothesis can be rejected at the 1% level of significance. There is a significant difference between the three groups. In order to determine between which groups this difference exists, the t-values were calculated. These results appear in Table 4.11.

**TABLE 4.11 T-TEST ANALYSIS OF FAMILY INCOME WITH REGARD TO THE ECONOMIC FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| Groups | Difference between the means | t-value | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 – 2 | 5,17 | t > 2,41 | p < 0,05 |
| 1 – 3 | 5,24 | t < 2,41 | p > 0,05 |
| 2 – 3 | 0,07 | t < 2,41 | p > 0,05 |

There seems to be a significant difference between groups 1 and 2. These results indicate that income as a reason for nonparticipation in sport is more important for learners from low income families than for learners from average income families. Low income families seem to have other pressing priorities than sport and there is not enough income to take care of sporting expenses. However learners from average income families and learners from above average income families do not differ.

**TABLE 4.12 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN INCOME GROUPS WITH REGARD TO THE FACILITIES FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GROUP | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 53 | 35,94 | 6,42 |
| 2 | 184 | 34,50 | 7,29 |
| 3 | 9 | 35,33 | 7,95 |

F (2,243) = 0,86 p > 0,05

There is no significant difference between the means of the three groups regarding facilities and therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

**TABLE 4.13 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN INCOME GROUPS WITH REGARD TO THE SELF-IMAGE FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GROUP | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 53 | 27,79 | 5,25 |
| 2 | 184 | 25,65 | 6,78 |
| 3 | 9 | 31,44 | 5,05 |

$F(2,243) = 5,24 \qquad p < 0,01$

There is a significant difference between the three groups with regard to self-image. The null hypothesis can be rejected at 1% level of significance. In order to determine between which groups this difference exists, the t-values were calculated. These appear in table 4.14.

**TABLE 4.14 T-TEST ANALYSIS OF SELF-IMAGE AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| Groups | Difference between the means | t-value | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 – 2 | 2,14 | $t < 2,41$ | $p > 0,05$ |
| 1 – 3 | 3,65 | $t < 2,41$ | $p > 0,05$ |
| 2 – 3 | 5,79 | $t > 2,41$ | $p < 0,05$ |

According to Table 4.14, there is a significant difference between group 2 and group 3. This implies that learners with families of above average income regard their self-image to be a more important factor for nonparticipation in sport compared to learners from families with an average income. However there is no significant difference between learners from families with average income and learners from low income families.

These learners do not differ with regard to the importance of self-image as a possible reason for nonparticipation in sport.

**TABLE 4.15 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE INCOME GROUPS WITH REGARD TO THE POLITICAL FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GROUP | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 53 | 29,60 | 5,05 |
| 2 | 184 | 27,70 | 6,95 |
| 3 | 9 | 29,77 | 4,46 |

F (2,243) = 2,03 p > 0,05

There is no significant difference between the three groups with regard to the importance of political factors as a reason for nonparticipation in sport.

**TABLE 4.16 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE INCOME GROUPS WITH REGARD TO THE HEALTH FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GROUP | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 53 | 22,67 | 7,08 |
| 2 | 184 | 20,65 | 6,33 |
| 3 | 9 | 22,88 | 5,15 |

F (2,243) = 2,34 p > 0,05

There is no significant difference between the three groups with regard to the importance of health as a reason for nonparticipation in sport.

**TABLE 4.17 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE INCOME GROUPS WITH REGARD TO THE SOCIAL FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GROUP | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 53 | 28,94 | 6,38 |
| 2 | 184 | 26,41 | 6,54 |
| 3 | 9 | 28,33 | 3,70 |

$F(2,243) = 3,37$ $p < 0,05$

There is a significant difference between the three groups with regard to the importance of social factors as a possible reason for nonparticipation in sport. The null hypothesis can be rejected at 5% level of significance. In order to determine between which groups this difference exists, t-values were calculated. These appear in table 4.18.

**TABLE 4.18 T-TEST ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIAL FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| Groups | Difference between the means | t-value | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 – 2 | 2,53 | $t > 2,41$ | $p < 0,05$ |
| 1 – 3 | 0,61 | $t < 2,41$ | $p > 0,05$ |
| 2 – 3 | 1,92 | $t < 2,41$ | $p > 0,05$ |

There is a significant difference between group 1 and group 2. This implies that learners from families with low income consider social aspects to be a more important reason for not participating in sport than learners from families with average income. Families with

average income regard sport as an important socializing agent where children can make friends while families with low income do not.

### 4.6.3 TESTING HYPOTHESIS 3

With regard to hypothesis 3 stated in paragraph 3.2.3, the following null hypothesis was tested:

***There is no significant difference between learners in different grades with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport.***

This null hypothesis applies to all six factors which were identified as possible reasons for nonparticipation in sport at secondary school level. All 246 learners (according to the four different grades from 9 to 12) were used to test this hypothesis. The average score for each of the four groups was calculated. In order to compare these averages, an analyses of variance was carried out and the results appear in table 4.19:

**TABLE 4.19 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE GRADES WITH REGARD TO THE ECONOMIC FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GRADE | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 9 | 65 | 21,20 | 5,10 |
| 10 | 68 | 22,19 | 7,31 |
| 11 | 58 | 21,37 | 7,06 |
| 12 | 55 | 23,69 | 7,20 |

$F(3,242) = 1,65 \qquad p > 0,05$

There is no significant difference between learners in the different grades with regard to the importance of the economic factor as a possible reason for nonparticipation in sport. The null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

**TABLE 4.20 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE GRADES WITH REGARD TO THE FACILITIES FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GRADE | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 9 | 65 | 34,03 | 6,42 |
| 10 | 68 | 34,51 | 8,33 |
| 11 | 58 | 34,48 | 7,45 |
| 12 | 55 | 36,60 | 5,75 |

F (3,242) = 1,50 p > 0,05

There is no significant difference between learners in the different grades with regard to the importance of facilities as a possible reason for nonparticipation in sport. The null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

**TABLE 4.21 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE GRADES WITH REGARD TO THE SELF-IMAGE FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GRADE | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 9 | 65 | 27,15 | 5,57 |
| 10 | 68 | 27,14 | 6,97 |
| 11 | 58 | 25,84 | 7,09 |
| 12 | 55 | 24,83 | 6,31 |

F (3,242) = 1,78 p > 0,05

There is no significant difference between learners in the different grades with regard to the importance of self-image as a possible reason for nonparticipation in sport.

**TABLE 4.22 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE GRADES WITH REGARD TO THE POLITICAL FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GRADE | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 9 | 65 | 29,41 | 6,38 |
| 10 | 68 | 28,17 | 6,88 |
| 11 | 58 | 26,56 | 6,53 |
| 12 | 55 | 28,45 | 6,13 |

F (3,242) = 2,00 p > 0,05

There is no significant difference between learners in the different grades with regard to the importance of the political factor as a possible reason for nonparticipation in sport.

**TABLE 4.23 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE GRADES WITH REGARD TO THE HEALTH FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GRADE | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 9 | 65 | 22,38 | 6,37 |
| 10 | 68 | 20,73 | 5,96 |
| 11 | 58 | 20,63 | 7,30 |
| 12 | 55 | 20,85 | 6,37 |

F (3,242) = 1,03 p > 0,05

There is no significant difference between learners in the different grades with regard to the importance of the health factor as a possible reason for nonparticipation in sport.

**TABLE 4.24 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE GRADES WITH REGARD TO THE SOCIAL FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GRADE | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 9 | 65 | 27,61 | 6,48 |
| 10 | 68 | 26,98 | 6,18 |
| 11 | 58 | 26,72 | 6,43 |
| 12 | 55 | 26,70 | 7,05 |

F (3,242) =0,26 p > 0,05

There is no significant difference between learners in the different grades with regard to the importance of the social factor as a possible reason for nonparticipation in sport.

**Conclusion:** the learner's grade has no influence on nonparticipation in sport with regard to any of the factors. It seems that grade is not an important aspect with regard to reasons for nonparticipation in sport. One cannot say, for example, that learners in grade 11 differ from learners in grade 10 with regard to reasons for nonparticipation in sport.

### 4.6.4 TESTING HYPOTHESIS 4

With regard to hypothesis 4 stated in paragraph 3.2.4, the following null hypothesis was tested:

***There is no significant difference between learners from different home environments with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport.***

All 246 learners were used to test this hypothesis. Learners from families with average income were in the majority as there were 184 out of a total of 246 learners. The subjects were divided into the following three groups:

Group 1 – urban

Group 2 – township

Group 3 – rural

**TABLE 4.25 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HOME ENVIRONMENT WITH REGARD TO THE ECONOMIC FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GROUP | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 27 | 21,03 | 7,26 |
| 2 | 196 | 22,01 | 6,70 |
| 3 | 22 | 24,31 | 5,94 |

F (2,242) = 1,56 p > 0,05

There is no significant difference between the three groups with regard to the importance of the economic factor as a possible reason for nonparticipation in sport.

**TABLE 4.26 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HOME ENVIRONMENT WITH REGARD TO THE FACILITIES FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GROUP | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 27 | 33,74 | 8,29 |
| 2 | 196 | 35,02 | 6,94 |
| 3 | 22 | 35,04 | 7,40 |

F (2,242) = 0,39 p > 0,05

There is no significant difference between the three groups with regard to the importance of facilities as a possible reason for nonparticipation in sport.

**TABLE 4.27 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HOME ENVIRONMENT WITH REGARD TO THE SELF-IMAGE FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GROUP | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 27 | 33,74 | 8,29 |
| 2 | 196 | 35,02 | 6,94 |
| 3 | 22 | 35,04 | 7,40 |

F (2,242) = 1,29 p > 0,05

There is no significant difference between the three groups with regard to the importance of self-image as a possible reason for nonparticipation in sport.

**TABLE 4.28 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HOME ENVIRONMENT WITH REGARD TO THE POLITICAL FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GROUP | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 27 | 28,55 | 7,07 |
| 2 | 196 | 28,13 | 6,49 |
| 3 | 22 | 28,68 | 6,32 |

F (2,242) = 0,11 p > 0,05

There is no significant difference between the three groups with regard to the importance of the political factor as a possible reason for nonparticipation in sport.

**TABLE 4.29 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HOME ENVIRONMENT WITH REGARD TO THE HEALTH FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GROUP | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 27 | 21,33 | 6,69 |
| 2 | 196 | 21,18 | 6,57 |
| 3 | 22 | 21,22 | 5,78 |

F (2,242) = 0,01 p > 0,05

There is no significant difference between the three groups with regard to the importance of the health factor as a possible reason for nonparticipation in sport.

**TABLE 4.30 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HOME ENVIRONMENT WITH REGARD TO THE SOCIAL FACTOR AS A POSSIBLE REASON FOR NONPARTICIPATION IN SPORT**

| GROUP | N | MEAN | S |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 27 | 27,92 | 6,58 |
| 2 | 196 | 26,96 | 6,58 |
| 3 | 22 | 26,77 | 5,74 |

F (2,242) = 0,28 p > 0,05

There is no significant difference between the three groups with regard to the importance of the social factor as a possible reason for nonparticipation in sport.

**Conclusion:** The type of home environment does not seem to be an important factor to nonparticipation in sport. Learners from urban, rural or township home backgrounds do not differ with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport.

## 4.7 SHORT SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

According to literature review, the following factors have been found to have a major influence on nonparticipation in sport at secondary school level:

- **Facilities**
- **Economic**
- **Political**
- **Social**
- **self-image**
- **health**

According to the findings of this research, factors that have the most important influence are:

a) **Facilities**
b) **Political**
c) **Social**
d) **Self-image**

In terms of facilities it has been revealed that black township schools do not have adequate equipment, properly organized recreational facilities, coaches for the different sport codes and upgraded and well maintained sport fields. Most schools in the townships do not have their own sport fields and equipment for use by learners. If any grounds are available, they are often subject to neglect and most of the schools cannot afford even a security fence.

In terms of the political factor as a reason for nonparticipation in sport it has surfaced that there is cultural isolation of black players in sport. Learners also indicate that some of the reasons they do not participate in sport is because of racial inequality and the bias exhibited by coaches. Through this research it has also emerged that while gender and income do seem to have an influence on nonparticipation in sport, grades and home

environment do not. The results indicate that income as a reason for nonparticipation in sport is more important for learners from low income families than for learners from average income families. Low income families seem to have other pressing priorities than sport and there is not enough income to take care of sporting expenses. (See Table 4.11).

In **Chapter 5** there will be a discussion of educational implications of the research and suggestions for further research.

# CHAPTER 5

# EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESEARCH AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

## 5.1 INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this research, as stated in chapter 1, was the investigation of the reasons for nonparticipation in sport by black learners at secondary school level. It seems that even with the myriad of psychological benefits of sport like the maintenance and enhancement of mental health as well as the general promotion of feelings of well being and self-efficacy, learners at secondary school are impeded by corrigible factors from engaging in exercise and adhering to it. They are subjected to more and more stresses in their social lives yet the one major factor that can serve as a positive coping strategy for them at school is outside the reach of most learners. Research evidence suggests that children who are aerobically fit or exercise regularly and get exposed to high levels of stress, are ill less frequently than their peers who do not exercise but are exposed to similar stressful conditions.

The main rationale behind the study is the national clamour taking rounds in South Africa for all sporting codes to include more blacks to properly reflect the demographics of the country. Even though much strides have been taken by the government in terms of policies towards the attainment of this goal, the progress seems very slow. This goal of full national participation would be difficult to attain if it’s not inculcated or commenced at school level. It is participation in sport at school level which ultimately translates into participation in national teams and national sport and builds a lifestyle of healthy living. The researcher wanted to delve deeper into the reasons for the slow progress and the impediments to sport participation by black learners at township secondary schools.

Despite the hectic national policy debates on black participation in sport this subject of participation at school level has hardly been researched and the literature is very sparse. The researches that have been conducted internationally and in South Africa indicate that

there are internal and external barriers that hinder sport participation. The most important internal barriers seem to be lack of confidence, fear of failure and conflict between personal values and athletic goals while external barriers include factors such as socioeconomic status, inadequately trained coaches, peer pressure, family responsibilities and lack of social and/or family support (Kirk and Kirk, 1993:86; Singer et al, 2001:517). Parental influence is also cited in the literature as one of the most important influences with regard to participation or nonparticipation of learners in sport. Learners whose parents are physically active seem more active in sport than learners whose parents are inactive.

The fundamental questions to address are:

(1) What further steps can the authorities do to remove the impediments to participation?
(2) What can educators do to instill in learners an understanding and acceptance of the long and short term benefits of participating in physical activity and sport?
(3) How can parents' and the community's involvement in school sporting activities be enhanced? Is it not time that schools and educators are reintegrated with their communities and become community schools?

The empirical investigation was carried out with the following goals:

- To determine whether there is a significant difference between males and females with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport.
- To verify if there is a significant difference between learners with parents of different family income with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport.
- To determine if there is a significant difference between learners in different grades with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport.
- To find out if there is a significant difference between learners from different home environments with regard to their reasons for nonparticipation in sport.

## 5.2 EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

### 5.2.1 The most important findings of the empirical investigation

There were four factors which were identified in this study as playing a major role with regard to the reasons for learners' nonparticipation in sport. These factors, in order of their importance, are:

#### 5.2.1.1 Facilities

The findings seem to indicate that most learners get discouraged from participating in sport because of lack of accessible and well maintained sport facilities. Black township school learners usually only engage in simple and cheap sports like soccer and netball. The sport fields at these schools for these cheap sports are amenable to easy upkeep and maintenance yet most of them are in a very sorry state. They are often subject to neglect and they are not properly fenced. In some cases local residents around the school make these grounds a thoroughfare (paragraph 4.4).

The issue of lack of coaches also influences the learners' reasons for nonparticipation in sport. Educators who act as sport coaches are in most instances not adequately trained to do coaching. The implications of these findings for school and sport managers are clear. The challenge for school managers and policy makers is to ensure that every school has adequate, well maintained and secure sport fields and every school is provided with well trained coaches to be able to make any difference in encouraging sport participation.

#### 5.2.1.2 Political

This study has shown a very strong link between nonparticipation in sport and the political milieu in which the learners find themselves. In other words this is an external factor over which the learners themselves have no control. Many of the factors determining the current sporting milieu were shaped in this country's history of the past

three hundred years. White political domination, social discrimination and economic deprivation have all led to a situation where white people are, in general, still in control of sport and resources while black people are mainly in token positions. In most sporting codes, white people are in charge of management, coaching and selection and turn consciously or unconsciously to marginalize black players. In turn, black players feel either alienated on the field or in training grounds or just feel inadequate or lack the confidence that is required to participate in sport (paragraph 4.5.2). Hence there are stereotypes like rugby or golf is a white sport.

White schools and former white schools have overwhelmingly superior facilities, well trained educators and coaches as well as good general infrastructure compared to black township schools. Bridging this gap will require enormous amounts of money and serious political will and commitment.

The poor facilities in black schools have their roots in the political system. That is why black learners seem to participate more in sport that require little formal or expensive facilities such as soccer and athletics. Since this has its origin in the overall political environment, intervention at this level must of necessity be taken at the political level. This implies that the social conditions of black communities in general must be uplifted if black learners are to be more exposed to the world of sport and the benefits that sport holds for them.

#### 5.2.1.3 Social

Social circumstances are intimately linked with political circumstances and overlap. The overwhelming majority of our sample lives in very poor social conditions where life is an everyday struggle. Many come from very big families and live in small crammed conditions. The opportunity to think about recreational activities like sport is hardly there. Parents work very hard, the neighbourhood is depressed and there is very little encouragement or role modeling. Even the ability to study and concentrate on their academic activities is difficult in their circumstances. Therefore, sport comes a very poor second. Kirk et al (2006:801), reveal in their study that children’s opportunity to

participate in sport depends on the income level of their parents, with young people of average income backgrounds with higher levels of sport participation than those from low income backgrounds. In these poor communities there is hardly any organized sporting body and activities to promote a sporting culture. Again this is rooted in the sociopolitical structure of South Africa and calls for decisive action at the highest levels. Sporting bodies must make a special effort to intervene in black communities and be visible as well as create a more vibrant and learner friendly sporting environment.

#### 5.2.1.4 Self-image

Kirk et al (2006:770), Merchant et al (2007:193) and Guillet et al (2000:420) all agree that girls get socialized differently from boys in terms of sport participation. Girls get subjected to cultural and religious constraints and find it difficult to participate in sport as they wish since there are those types of sport that are mainly regarded as a male domain and girls are expected to partake only in feminine sport like gymnastics and dance. Another area of difference between boys and girls was in the area of self-image where females seem more concerned with how slim and presentable they look than in how fit they are. This seems to indicate that young female adolescents are not attracted by the bulging muscles while males yearn for the development of these muscles (Daniels, 2005:327).

The televised media sport coverage is also to blame for continuing to reinforce divisions along gender lines and the reproduction of traditional expectations regarding femininity and masculinity. This calls for the need to address the low participation rates and nonparticipation of girls in sport and physical activity. It also calls for the need to reevaluate the way physical education is taught to learners and to encourage a rejection of the gender stereotypical ideologies of ‘male’ and ‘female’ sport and create a more open environment where learners are free to participate in any sport of their choice regardless of gender.

### 5.2.2 Recommendations

Following this study a number of recommendations can be made:

- Government, Department of Education and Policy Planners must read this and related reports. The main factors responsible for nonparticipation identified by this study are facilities, political and social which are all in the sociopolitical realm and are amenable to redress through the sociopolitical process. Greater budgetary allocations, stricter husbandry of monies allocated and greater deployment of appropriate personnel would go a long way to alleviating the situation. All this should be underpinned by strong political will and commitment which will energize the whole system, educators, parents and learners alike. Given the looming catastrophes of teenage obesity, school violence, school drugs, teenage pregnancies and AIDs, sport participation cannot be regarded as just a pleasant side show. It is an important weapon in our arsenal for building this nation.

- Programme planners and school management should liaise with adolescents to assist in identifying and providing for the sporting and recreational needs of young people. This would ensure that the processes, practices and policies of physical education and sport serve the interests of learners. It is high time that planners engage learners and get input from them in terms of what type of sport they need and how this should be organized. There should be acknowledgement that different groups will be attracted to different activities. This then implies that identifying and providing a range of activities which are attractive to the target group can best be developed with the involvement of such a group.

- The government must introduce properly thought out and coordinated policies which encompass sporting activity at every level in the school system. These policies should be backed up with appropriate management and budget.

- Barriers in the environment which impede participation in sport should be addressed. The school, the school governing body, the community and parents must all work together towards ensuring that every school has proper infrastructure and facilities. Schools should be encouraged to do fundraising and liaise with the corporate sector to sponsor them with the necessary facilities and equipment like soccer balls, netball poles and fencing of the grounds or schools. People with expertise on making handmade equipment could also be invited to assist to teach others on how to do it. All stakeholders should then be empowered through workshop sessions on how to use and care for the facilities and equipment. If educators, learners and community members are involved in this way, they will learn to value the school property as their own and begin to look after it. It is also important that schools should look at sport that require minimum equipment, for example, soccer, aerobics and athletics to minimize cost.

- The significance of appropriate training of coaches should not be overlooked. Such training should include a variety of topics to address diversity issues, racial bias and cultural alienation of black players that will lead to the provision of a positive sport environment. Coaches should also be well informed about how to motivate learners to participate and adhere in sport and about the maintenance of a good relationship between the coach, parents and learners. It should be instilled in them that for successful and lasting participation of learners, fun and enjoyment should be the fundamental elements in sport.

- Physical education needs to be taken seriously as a compulsory subject in schools and sport should be compulsory for all learners. There needs to be advocacy at all levels of education about the benefits of participation in sport. Local and national high profile athletes (male and female) could be invited to speak at schools to motivate learners and to provide role models. Different topics could be tackled to link with Life Skills taught at school, for example, Universal precautions in sport, drugs in sport, living positively in sport, peer

pressure, bullying in sport, self esteem and sport, stress/aggression in sport and decision making.

- There should be establishment and monitoring of stronger partnerships across government departments for the production, maintenance and coordination of activities. This collaboration should include organizations like the department of health, local government structures and non-governmental organizations. This is quite a substantial undertaking but it is very essential to encourage the level of lifestyle shift required. If the relevant departments promote wellness or an active lifestyle together with the promotion of sport, it may also be a useful strategy to enable children to experience success in sport and to develop confidence in their own ability while at the same time pursuing more active lifestyles.

- Schools should also consider encouraging more parental involvement in sport. Parents could be sent flyers via their children on how they could play an active role towards motivating children to participate in sport. As an example, parents and educators can have an adult sport day with learners as spectators. This can be a powerful tool in the guidance of learners towards participation. Learners have always looked up to educators and parents as role models and as mentioned in paragraph 3.2.3, parents are extremely influential in motivating children to eventually participate in sport. Active educators and active parents might play a huge role in eventually producing active learners.

- There needs to be a restructuring of the physical education curriculum to reflect on the organization, presentation and content of its programmes. This will provide an opportunity to challenge the gender stereotypes and ideologies reflected in school sport. More girl friendly sport and activities like dance and aerobics should be considered as well as consultation on the type of sport kit girls would like to use to make them more comfortable ( See paragraph 4.5.4). This will ensure that girls experience more fun and enjoyment in sport and continue to be active participants. Other issues that the curriculum could

address are: the sexist attitudes of educators and learners regarding participation in so called non-traditional sport and lack of awareness regarding body image and its consequences. This can also address the self-image issues that girls battle with in sport. Parents, educators, learners and communities could also be given workshops on gender issues so that gender stereotypes in sport are eliminated.

- Incentives for educators, in terms of an accredited certificate in sport which could be used for promotion could ensure that physical education and sport receive the place they deserve at school. Learners could also be enticed to participate through sport scholarships which may only be earned through excellence in sport.

- There should be counseling programmes in place at schools so that learners who are experiencing difficulties in sport, for example burnout or stress could be referred for assistance. This counseling programme could also be responsible for advocacy on issues of healthy lifestyles to obese children and their parents. Budhal (1998:207) suggests structuring sporting activities so that learners with different physical abilities are catered for. This will ensure that obese learners are not ignored as this may affect their psychological well being.

- The department of education should increase personnel responsible for sport so that there is adequate and effective monitoring of the implementation of sport or physical education programmes.

## 5.3 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THIS RESEARCH

This study has contributed in the following ways:

- Shedding light on the reasons for nonparticipation in sport by black learners at secondary school level. This was the main aim of conducting this research and

answers gained will add invaluable information for stakeholders working with schools and for education policy makers.

- It has been elucidated what measures need to be put in place and what role parents can play for learners to be encouraged to participate in sport.

- The empirical investigation results also answered questions on gender stereotypes in sport. Girls and boys are socialized differently and this tends to sensitize girls negatively with respect to their self-image. Educators will now understand the areas they need to focus on in order to assist learners to get rid of the gender stereotypes.

- School counselors will understand how to motivate young adults towards participation in sport.

## 5.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

- The sample used in the study was small considering the number of learners enrolled in secondary schools in KwaZulu Natal. This may then limit the validity of the study.

- The honesty with which the learners answered the questionnaire is also difficult to ascertain.

- It is not easy to assess if all learners interpreted all the items correctly.

- The questionnaire was administered to learners in different schools under different conditions and this may influence the results of the study.

## 5.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

5.5.1 This research was done using only schools in one district. It could be repeated using other districts or other provinces to check if it will yield the same results.

5.5.2 It would be interesting to conduct a study on parental involvement in sport just to shed light on how parents see their role in terms of supporting learners in sport and also what impediments they experience that prevent them from supporting their children.

5.5.3 Research should also be conducted to find out about the level of participation in sport at special schools and about learners with physical challenges in sport.

5.5.4 A study of cultural and religious constraints in sport could also be an interesting undertaking.

5.5.5 A comparative study of level of nonparticipation of learners between schools in the townships and those in suburbs could be very interesting.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Alegi, P C 2004. *Umdlalo Wabantu: A History of Soccer in Pre-Apartheid South Africa*. Boston University: Unpublished Document.

Allen, J B 2003. Social Motivation in Youth Sport. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 25(4):551-567.

American Heritage *Dictionary of the English Language*. Fourth Edition 2000 Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Andersen, M B 2000. *Doing Sport Psychology.* Melbourne: Human Kinetics.

Antshel, K M & Anderman, E M 2000. Social Influences on Sports Participation During Adolescence. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 33(2); 85-94.

Archer, R & Bouillon, A 1982. *The South African Game: Sport and Racism*. London: Zed Press.

Armstrong, N 1996. *New Directions in Physical Education*. London:Cassell.

Backley, S & Stafford, I 1996. *The Winning Mind*. London:Aurum Press.

Bar-Or, O 1995. *The Child and Adolescent Athlete.* Cambridge, Mass.: Blackwell Science.

Behr, A L 1984. *New Perspectives in South African Education*. 2nd ed. Durban: Butterworths.

Biddle, S J H; Fox, K R & Boutcher, S H 2000. *Physical Activity and Psychological Well-Being.* London: Routledge.

Budhal R 1998. *The Socially Isolated Child at School*. Pretoria:Unisa Thesis.

Carr, S & Weigand, D A 2002. The Influence of Significant Others on the Goal Orientation of Youngsters in Physical Education. *Journal of Sport Behaviour*, 25(1):19-40.

Cassoo, Z; Gelling, A; Keim, M & Spencer, P 2005. *Life Orientation Grade 11*. Sandton: Heinemann.

Chakraborty, S 1997. *Behaviour, Motivation and Emotions in Sports psychology*. Dehli: Sports Publications.

Chase, M A 2001. Children's Self-Efficacy, Motivational Intentions and Attributions in Physical education and Sport. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 72(1):47-54.

Christie, P & Gordon, A 1992. Politics, Poverty and Education in Rural South Africa. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 13(4); 399-418.

Coakley, J J 1986. *Sport in Society: Issues and Controversies*. Toronto: College Publishing.

Coakley, J & Dunning, E 2000. *Handbook of Sports Studies*. London: SAGE.

Daniels, E; Sincharoen, S & Leaper, C 2005. The Relation Between Sport Orientations and Athletic Identity among Adolescent Girl and Boy Athletes. *Journal of Sport Behaviour*, 28(4); 315-332.

De Beer, N B 2006. *A Psycho-Educational Programme for Adolescents with Unhealthy Eating Habits*. Pretoria: Unisa Doctoral Thesis.

Department of Education *Revised National Curriculum Statement*, 2002.

Department of Sport and Recreation, 1995. A National Policy Framework: "*Getting the nation to play*" DRAFT WHITE PAPER. Pretoria: RSA.

Department of Sport and Recreation *Draft White Paper*, 2000. Pretoria: RSA.

Diamant, L 1991. *Psychology of Sports, Exercise, and Fitness – social and personal issues.* New York: Hemisphere Publishing Corporation.

Goldsmith, P A 2003. Race Relations and Racial Patterns in Sports Participation. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 20(2):147-171.

Guillet, E; Sarrazin, P & Fontayne, P 2000. "If it Contradicts My Gender Role I'll Stop": Introducing Survival Analysis to Study the Effects of Gender Typing on the Time Withdrawal from Sport Practice: a 3-year Study. *Europian Review of Applied Psychology*, 50(4); 417-421.

Hagger, M & Chatzisarantis, N 2005. *Social Psychology of Exercise and Sport.* New York: Open University Press.

Harris, D V 1973. *Involvement in Sport: A Somatopsychic Rationale for Physical Activity*. Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger.

Hill, K L 2001. *Frameworks for Sport Psychologists*. Champaign: Human Kinetics.

Horn, T 2002. *Advances in Sport Psychology*. Champaign: Human Kinetics.

Hoyle, R H & Leff, S S 1997. "The Role of Parental Involvement in Youth Sport Participation and Performance." *Adolescence* 32(125): 233-243.

Howell, R & Howell, M 1986. *Physical Education Foundations*. Victoria: Brooks Waterloo.

Human Science Research Council 1982. Sport in the Republic of South Africa. *Sport Research*. Pretoria: HSRC.

Human Science Research Council 1982. Sport Facilities. *Sport Research*. Pretoria: HSRC.

Hutchison, B 2006. *The Essential History of Soccer*. New York: The New York Times Company.

Jones, J G & Hardy, L 1990. *Stress and Performance in Sport*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.

Kerr, J H 1997. *Motivation and Emotion in Sport – Reversal Theory*. East Sussex: Psychology Press.

Kirk, D; Macdonald, D & O'Sullivan, M 2006. *The Handbook of Physical Education*. London:SAGE.

Kirk, W D & Kirk, S V 1993. *Student Athletes: Shattering the myths & sharing the realities*. Alexandria,VA: American Counselling Association.

Kirkcaldy, B D 2002. The Relationship between Physical Activity and Self-image and Problem Behaviour among Adolescents. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology. 37(11):544-550.*

Klomsten, A T; Marsh, H W & Skaalvik, E M 2005. Adolescents' Perceptions of Masculine and Feminine Values in Sport and Physical Education. *Sex Roles,* 52(9-10); 625-636.

Kremer, J; Trew, K & Ogle, S (Eds) 1997. *Young People's Involvement in Sport*. London: Routledge.

Kyles, C & Lounsberg, M 2004. Project Destiny: Initiating Physical Activity for Nonathletic Girls through Sport. *Journal of Physical Education Recreation and Dance* JOPERD; 75(1):37.

Lion-Cachet, S 1997. *Physical Education and the School Sport within the Post-Apartheid Educational Dispensation of South Africa*. Pretoria: Unisa Thesis.

Maslow, A H 1970. *Motivation and Personality*. New York: Harper & Row.

McComb, D G 2004. *Sports in World History*. New York: Routledge

McMillan J H & Schumacher S 2001. *Research in Education*. New York: Longman.

McNeal R B 1999. Participation in High School Extracurricular Activities: Investigating School Effects. *Social Science Quarterly, 80(2); 291 – 309.*

Merchant, J; Griffin, B L & Charnock, A 2007. *Sport and Physical Activity: The Role of Health Promotion*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Mhuircheartaigh, J N 1999. *Participation in Sport and Physical Activities among Secondary School Students*. Dublin: Department of Public Health.

Miracle, A W & Rees, C R 1994. *Lessons of the Locker Room*. New York: Prometheus Books.

Mncwabe, M P 1992. *Teacher Neutrality and Education in Crisis*: *The Black Teacher's Dilemma in South Africa*. Braamfontein: Skotaville.

Mohlala, F K 2004. *The role of USSASA in Facilitating the Development of School Sport in Tshwane North Disrict*. Rand Afrikaans University: Unpublished dissertation.

Moodley, T & Vamblie, S 2006. *Changes in You: Grade Twelve Learner's Book.* Durban: New Generation.

Moore, M J & Werch, C E 2005. Sport and Physical Activity Participation and Substance Use among Adolescents. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 36(6): 486 – 493.

Moran, A P 2004. *Sport and Exercise Psychology: A Critical Introduction*. New York: Routledge.

Mwamwenda, T S 1995. *Educational Psychology: An African Perspective* (2nd Ed). Durban: Butterworth.

Nayak,A K 2004. *Sports Education*. New Dehli: A P H Publishing.

Pienaar, G E 1998. *Critical Thinking of Adolescents with Regard to Political Issues*. Pretoria: Unisa Thesis.

Potgieter, J R 2003. *Sport Psychology*: *Theory and Practice.* Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University.

RNCS (Revised National Curriculum Statement) Grades R-9 (Schools) 2002. Pretoria: Department of Education.

Roets, E 2002. Only *Stusy Guide for OSV 451-3*. Pretoria: Unisa.

Shields, E W 1999. Intimidation and Violence by Males in High School Athletics. *Adolescence*, Vol 34(135) : 503 – 521.

Singer, R; Hausenblas, H & Janelle, C M (Eds) 2001. *Handbook of Sport Psychology*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Sit, C H P & Lindner, K J 2005. Motivational Orientations in Youth Sport Participation: Using Achievement Goal Theory and Reversal Theory. *Personality and Individual Differences, 38(3):605-618.*

Smith, A & Green, K 2005. The place of sport and physical activity in young people's lives and its implications for health. *Journal of Youth Studies, 8(2):241-253.*

Struwig, F 2004. *My Clever Life Orientation through Issues.* Pretoria: Clever Books (Pty) Ltd.

Tomori, M & Zalar, B 2000. Sport and Physical Activity as Possible Protective Factors in Relation to Adolescent Suicide Attempts. *International Journal of Psychology*, 9; 507-533.

Tuckman B W 1972. *Conducting Educational Research*. San Diego: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

United Nations Unit on Apartheid 1971. *International boycott of apartheid sport*.

USSASA (United School Sports Association of South Africa) 1994. Pretoria: Unpublished Document.

Van den Aardweg,E M & Van den Aardweg, E D 1999. *Psychology of Education: A Dictionary for Students.* Pretoria: E & E Enterprises.

Van Der Merwe, F G J 1989. *A History of Sport and Physical Education in the Republic of South Africa*. Berlin: Bartels & Wernitz.

*Appendix 6*

# NON- PARTICIPATION IN SPORT AT SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVEL

***Thank you for agreeing to take part in this survey. Your identity and that of your school will be protected throughout this study, and your responses will remain confidential. Please answer the following questions honestly and frankly and not according to how others would expect you to.***

## SECTION A

**SURNAME: …….**

**INITIALS: …….**

**Only for office use**

**C1-3** | | | |

**NAME OF THE SCHOOL:……..**

***Supply the following information by filling in the blocks on the right hand side (only one number per block):***

**1. Gender (boy = 1; girl = 2)** | | **C 4**

**2. Age** | | | **C 5 C6**

**3. Grade (09; 10; 11; 12)** | | | **C7 C8**

**4. Parents' status (Single = 1; Divorced = 2; Married = 3; Deceased = 4)** | | **C 9**

**5. Income of family (Poor = 1; Average = 2; Above average = 3)** | | **C 10**

**6. Home environment (Urban = 1; township = 2; rural = 3; informal settlement=4)** | | **C 11**

**7. Home language (Isizulu = 1; Xhosa = 2; Sotho = 3; English = 4; Other = 5)** | | **C 12**

**8. Number of siblings (0 = 1; 1 = 2; 2 = 3; 3 = 4; 4 = 5; 5 = 6; 6 or over = 7)** | | **C 13**

## SECTION B

***The following are statements about non-participation in sport at secondary school level . Please indicate your choice by awarding yourself a number between 1 and 4 which best describes your view. Write this number in the block on the right hand side.***

**For example: I do not participate in sport because…..I am lazy** [3]

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree**

**This person strongly agrees with the statement, in other words, this person does not participate in sport because he/she is lazy.**

**I do not participate in sport because…**

**1. …I am taking medication.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** [ ] **C 14**

**2. …I have to do some chores at home after school as there is no maid.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** [ ] **C 15**

**3. …my parents associate sport participation with aggressive behaviour.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** [ ] **C 16**

**4. …I once fainted during exercise.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** [ ] **C 17**

**5. …the government has totally neglected our recreational facilities.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** [ ] **C 18**

**6. …my friends think sport is for nerds.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** [ ] **C 19**

**7. …other learners laugh at you when you play sport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** [ ] **C 20**

**8. …exercise makes me look sweaty.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** [ ] **C 21**

**9. …my parents cannot afford the sport kit needed.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** [ ] **C 22**

**10. …it interferes with my TV viewing time.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** [ ] **C 23**

**11. …I spend most of my time with friends.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** [ ] **C 24**

**I do not participate in sport because…**

**12. …I become very pale and cold after exercise**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** C 25

**13. …no-one in my family participates in sport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** C 26

**14. …engaging in sport costs a lot of money.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** C 27

**15. …my community associates sport participation with drugs.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** C 28

**16. …my parents do not participate in any of my school activities.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** C 29

**17. …our schools are given facilities according to the political affiliation of the community.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** C 30

**18. …I am not aware of the benefits of sport to my health.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** C 31

**19. …I have been advised by a doctor not to participate in any sport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** C 32

**20…. I have allergies. (medications, animals, insects, environment, etc)**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** C 33

**21. …my academic results were very poor last year because of ill-health.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** C 34

**22. …I am too shy to make mistakes in front of others.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** C 35

**23. …my religion does not allow me to participate in sport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** C 36

**24. …political rivalries in our community prevent me from participating in sport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** C 37

**25. …I cannot stand being criticized by other athletes.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** C 38

**I do not participate in sport because…**

**26. …I dislike bulging muscles.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 39**

**27. …black learners are politically conscientized to believe that education is more important than sport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 40**

**28. …I am from a very poor family.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 41**

**29. …at school, grounds are not well maintained for sport participation.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 42**

**30. …the government does not adequately support school sport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 43**

**31. …I have asthma.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 44**

**32. …when I participate in sport my parents cannot afford to pay for transport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 45**

**33. …I do not get enough financial support from my family to play sport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 46**

**34. …our school ground needs a security fence.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 47**

**35. …blacks have little chances of being selected into the national team in most sports.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 48**

**36. …people who play sport are from rich families.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 49**

**37. ... I have previously experienced severe pain in my neck or arms during exercise.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 50**

**38. …my school does not have a coach for sport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 51**

**39. …black parents still regard academic education as the key into the future, not sport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 52**

**I do not participate in sport because…**

**40. …most of my friends do not participate in sport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 53**

**41. …there is lack of more knowledgeable and qualified coaches.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 54**

**42. …black schools generally have very poor and undeveloped sporting facilities.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 55**

**43. …I have to do piece-time jobs to support myself.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 56**

**44. …my culture does not encourage sport participation.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 57**

**45. … other learners steal the sport equipment.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 58**

**46. …I fear failure.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 59**

**47. …I have high blood pressure.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 60**

**48. …my family think if I play sport it will be a waste of money.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 61**

**49. …some learners have been badly assaulted and robbed during sport events.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 62**

**50. …my parents fear that I'll get injured in sport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 63**

**51. …it is difficult to get transport to take me home after sport practice.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 64**

**52. …black players are culturally alienated and isolated off the field.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 65**

**53. …I do not feel confident enough to compete.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 66**

**I do not participate in sport because…**

**54. …the variety of sport offered at my school is limited.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 67**

**55. …my school does not have adequate equipment for sport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 68**

**56. …changing in front of other learners is embarrassing.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 69**

**57. …my family think I am not good in any sport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 70**

**58. … there are no properly organized recreational activities in our area.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 71**

**59. …my siblings always laugh at my sporting abilities.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 72**

**60. …our teachers are forced to coach and have no enthusiasm for sport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 73**

**61. …sport is associated with our political history.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 74**

**62. …our community is infested with criminals who interfere with school activities.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 75**

**63. …it seems like a forced activity trying to make up for sins of the past.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 76**

**64. …my siblings do not like sport at all.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 77**

**65. … A black player has to be exceptionally good to merit the attention of coaches.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 78**

**66. … I do not like publicity.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 79**

**67. …I do not have the athletic body suitable to play sport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 80**

**I do not participate in sport because…**

**68. …sport is still associated with the apartheid era.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C81**

**69. …my school does not offer the sport I am interested in.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C82**

**70. …black educators still regard academic education as the key into the future, not sport.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 83**

**71. …sport does not interest me anymore since my favourite coach was dismissed.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 84**

**72. …I am not happy with my present weight.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 85**

**73. …my parents cannot afford to provide the sporting equipment.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 86**

**74. … My face is too important to me right now to get it sunburnt.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 87**

**75…. my skin is very sensitive to sunlight.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 88**

**76. …to get into the team is very difficult, especially if you are poor.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 89**

**77. … It opens you up to silly remarks and lowers your self esteem.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 90**

**78. …sport is still being dominated by white administrators.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 91**

**79. …it is dangerous to use public transport after school.**

**Strongly agree 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree** ☐ **C 92**