CHAPTER THREE

HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT IN SPORT ORGANIZATIONS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

As sport managers in the sport delivery system stride more confidently forward toward a more efficient, effective and businesslike operation, an understanding of the dynamics of human resources management marks an area of deficiency (MacLean, 2001). Human resources constitute the primary resource of any organization (Billing, 1985). Sport organizations are people-oriented operations consisting of people as producers, as products and as consumers. This is in contrast to many other organizations that deal with raw materials and automated machinery. The fact that sport organizations are people-orientated elevates human resources management (HRM) to a primary function in organizational management. Similarly, the human problems of management are often the most complex due to the variability of human nature and behaviours (Billing, 1985). It is for this reason that the management of human resources is of utmost importance to the success of the organization. In a sport organization the human resources function may range from simply maintaining employee records to designing complex personnel training and development systems, negotiating compensation and filing of grievances (Slack, 1997).

The effectiveness of a sport organization is heavily influenced by how well it uses its human resources (Slack, 1997). Kanter (1983) states that organizations that have reputations for progressive human resources practices enjoy greater profitability and growth than their counterparts. The HRM function in sport organizations today is more integrated and strategically involved. This is because sport in South Africa has evolved from merely being an amateur-focused activity to a professional-focused activity and sport organizations, which were primarily non-profit organizations, have now shifted their focus to generating profit. Furthermore, changes in technology, economic climate, the growth of foreign
competition, the rise of unions, government action and the demand for specialist personnel (Ivancevich, 1998; Slack, 1997) have contributed to sport organizations changing their attitude towards HRM.

3.2 PLANNING FOR THE EFFECTIVE USE OF HUMAN RESOURCES

A sport organization’s human resources plan should be a component of its overall strategic plan (Slack, 1997:234). In order to accurately plan for the effective use of human resources, the situational factors likely to influence future human resources needs and the availability of suitable personnel need to be considered. A situational audit, which can be periodically updated, can help provide information to help sport managers develop and modify their personnel plans. Two components usually make up a situational audit: an organizational analysis (refer to figure 3.1, page 52) and an environmental analysis (refer to figure 3.2, page 55).

3.2.1 Organizational analysis

An organizational analysis takes into account how a sport organization’s characteristics influence its human resources needs. The organizational factors (refer to figure 3.1, page 52) usually considered are the mission, goals and strategy of the sport organization, resource availability, psychological climate and organizational structure (Slack, 1997).
The mission of the sport organization outlines the organization’s purpose, premises, values and directions (Griffin, 1990). In a sport organization, the programme managers, sports coaches and other employees define the organization mission and play a critical role in the degree to which it is achieved (MacLean, 2001). Following from the mission are goals, which constitute strategic goals, tactical goals and operational goals. The goals of a sport organization are important as they indicate how an organization functions. In a sport organization the strategic goal may perhaps be to negotiate a new coaching contract with the coach, or to win a league, while the tactical goal may be to develop new coaching strategies to produce high calibre athletes. The operational goals may involve hiring and training new assistant coaches or implementing an incentive system for professional coaches. The survival of a sport organization depends to a great extent on the achievement of its goals (Gerber, Nel and Van Dyk, 1989). In order to achieve its goals, the organization
makes use of human and other resources. The employees (human resources) may have their own goals, which may, for example, be to earn a high remuneration. HRM plays an important role in establishing congruence between the goals of the organization and the goals of the employee.

The goals of an organization cannot be achieved without the necessary resources. In a sport organization resources such as facilities, equipment and money are static and can only take on a dynamic character through the intervention of the human resources (Gerber et al., 1989). The success of a sport organization is dependent on the effective and efficient utilization of its human resources. It is therefore important for the human resources manager to be aware of the resources available in his/her organization. Resource availability, especially finance, which influences compensation, influences a sport organization’s ability to attract qualified and competent personnel. The resources that a sport organization may require is dependent on the product or service that is being offered. Most sport organizations are involved in the production of services like coaching and training rather than of goods (Chelladurai, 1999). If a sport organization wants to provide excellent coaching, it needs be aware of the availability of competent coaches. If a sport organization wants to produce high calibre athletes it needs to be aware of the pool of talented athletes that it can attract. Furthermore, the sport organization has to ensure that it has proper and adequate facilities and equipment at its disposal.

Those in charge of human resources must also take into account the organizational structure of their organization as the human resources needs of different organizations would vary depending on the service or product being offered (Slack, 1997). The organizational structure defines the manner in which the tasks of a sport organization are broken down and allocated to employees. Miller (1987) comments that the organizational structure channels collaboration, specifies modes of coordination, allocates power and responsibility and prescribes levels of formality. Although no two sport organizations are alike, they
do have common attributes as far as their structure is concerned. For example the structure would prescribe whom the sports coach needs to report to, what his/her tasks and responsibilities are and what the channels of communication are.

The psychological climate will influence the type of person that will join the organization (Slack, 1997). For example, professional coaches will be recruited because they fit in with the organization or they complement the style of management. Essentially, this means that the human resources, like athletes or coaches need to fit in with the psychological climate of the organization.

The organizational structure is important in sport organizations as sport organizations differ in such areas as the extent to which they require professionally trained personnel, personnel with experience, and personnel who are merely willing to follow the rules. Furthermore, the presence of a union can also affect human resources practices.

3.2.2 Environmental analysis

The factors that constitute the environment (refer to figure 32, page 55) are legislative changes, technological changes, the economic climate, the presence of competitors and the actions of regulatory agencies (Arnold & Feldman, 1988; Gerber et al., 1989; Slack, 1997). Changes in the environmental factors can affect the human resource practices of a sport organization.
The need to redress the imbalances of decades of enforced apartheid and inequality in South Africa led to certain changes in legislation (Levy, 1998). This was done through the introduction of various acts such as the Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995) and the Employment Equity Act (Act 51 of 1998). The Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995) assists sport organizations by clarifying the law regarding employment practice and the Employment Equity Act (Act 51 of 1998) provides the rules about overcoming discriminatory employment practices. Sport organizations are now required to hire personnel from the disadvantaged groups like the disabled and to a large extent Blacks. This however, may not always be possible especially with regard to sports coaching. Unlike other positions such as a clerk where it is easy to hire personnel from the disadvantaged groups (a disabled person can perform the function), hiring a sports coach is more difficult. An organization’s requirement may be for a specific coach with specific qualities that are not common to everyone. Therefore understanding the impact of legislation on a sport organization can help the human resources professionals to predict the type of human resources requirements they will need to meet their organization’s objectives.
The results of technological advances and their applications have an impact on the human resources in a sport organization. Arnold & Feldman (1988:278) define technology as “the transformation process by which mechanical equipment and intellectual skills are used to produce the organization’s goods and services”. In sports coaching many professional sports coaches make extensive use of video analysis. In this instance the mechanical equipment (video equipment) and intellectual skills (of the coach) are used to produce the sport organization’s goods (high calibre athletes) and services (coaching).

The economic climate may influence an organization’s policies and practices. Within the economy the availability of resources, the kind of sport product wanted by the consumer and the ease at which resources can be acquired all play a role in human resources management (Griffin, 1990). For example, in a sport organization the demand for a sport product will determine the personnel that are needed. This in turn will depend on the physical, financial, technological and information resources available. Moreover, the nature of the sport organization’s competitors also plays a role in determining the human resources needs of a sport organization. The human resources needs of a soccer team that is, for example, in the third division may differ from that of a team in the Premier League because of the nature of the competition.

After conducting a situational audit, sport managers can use the market mechanism of supply and demand to forecast the availability of personnel (Slack, 1997). This may influence the strategy that a sport organization will adopt to attract human resources.

Chelladurai (1999) has identified three forms of human resources involved in the production and marketing of sport services available to sport organizations. They are volunteer workers, paid professional workers and clients. Several sport organizations rely heavily on volunteer workers therefore the volunteer workers form part of the human resources. Participation of volunteers and their
contributions are not based on any material rewards. According to Smith (Chelladurai, 1999) their involvement is motivated by the expectation of psychical benefits of some kind. As a result, the management of this set of human resources may require different approaches than that which can be applied to paid workers. Services within the sport organization require the physical involvement of clients since services cannot be produced without their participation. This makes clients part of the human resources. The importance of clients to human resources management lies in the fact that the completion of most participants’ services requires the clients’ participation. The issue that sport managers need to deal with is to differentiate among the motives for client participation and to develop programmes to satisfy these motives. This is important because if the clients do not participate, sport organizations need to constantly recruit new clients, which is not an easy task. Finally, the paid workers themselves form an important part of the human resources in the organization.

In the sport participation and performance segment of the sport industry (refer to figure 2.1, page 21) there are two primary groups of employees: the technical specialists (also known as operations and support staff) and the managers (also known as administrators) (Quarterman & Li, 1998). Both groups of employees are needed and are important to the success of sport organizations. The technical specialists are employees, for example, coaches, who use specialized technical skills, knowledge and ability to produce goods and services that sport organizations have been established to produce. According to Robbins (1998), the technical specialists make up most of the human resources and they have little or no responsibility for directing the work of other employees.

3.3 THE NEED FOR THE HUMAN RESOURCES FUNCTION IN SPORT ORGANIZATIONS

Human resources management, which was once relegated to second-class status in many organizations, has grown dramatically in the past two decades (Griffin, 1990) and is now an integral part of management (Lipiec, 2001). The
reasons for this are: the increased legal complexities involving human resources; the recognition that human resources are a valuable means for improving performance and an increased awareness of the costs involved with poor human resources management. Furthermore, the management of human resources is a demanding and challenging managerial responsibility since human resources managers must continuously assess situations that reflect the dynamic nature of their operations which are interrelated with an increasingly complex global business environment (Hilgert & Ling, 1996).

In sport organizations fundamental changes in the business environment are making human resources management, especially regarding coaches more important. These changes include a more rapid rate of business change accompanied by high uncertainty as well as rising costs accompanied by increased competition. The rapid technological changes accompanied by increased demands for new skills through sourcing, education and retraining and a streamlined and more flexible organization is another factor. Changing demographics accompanied by limited availability of labour and more frequent responses required from external forces like legislation, regulations and union matters and increased multinational competition are also part of the changes taking place (Schuler & Walker, 1990).

Human resources managers in sport organizations need to understand that if people in different organizations need to act differently, then the ways they are selected, trained, organized, managed and paid need to be different. It isn’t a matter of finding the single best system, but of finding a system that supports a specific organization’s approach to work, strategy and culture (Hofrichter, Spencer & Lyle, 1996). The key difference in terms of employees in the sport industry as opposed to employees in other industries is commitment (Watt, 1998). The commitment is driven by a variety of sources, for example, the satisfaction of moulding a good athlete, the passion to help others achieve great heights in sport and the love of physical activity. This commitment overrides the
fact that employees may have to work longer hours, earn lower salaries and sometimes work in poor conditions.

Dynamic developments in the management of human resources compel human resource managers in sport organizations to study and address issues such as, the job satisfaction of employees in the face of rising expectations of people in a complex society, as well as the motivation of employees. Long-range training and development programs for the movement and upgrading of employees as a result of the new demands for professional, technical, and managerial skills is another factor as is the welfare of employees who are displaced or adversely affected by change. Legal requirements in such areas as employee safety, health, welfare, pension benefits and equal employment opportunities, also need to be taken into consideration (Hilgert & Ling, 1996).

Frederick Taylor, the renowned father of scientific management (Aghazadeh, 1999; Ivancevich, 1998) believed that management should assume more responsibility for matching employees to the right job, providing the proper training, providing proper work methods, and establishing legitimate incentives for work to be accomplished.

Therefore in order to grow, prosper, and remain healthy, sport organizations must optimize the return on investment of all resources, especially financial and human resources (Ivancevich, 1998). As a result human resource directors and executives are coming to the realization that if you take care of your people; they will take care of you (Aghazadeh, 1999).

It is important to realize that people implement organizational policies and procedures and help the organization achieve its objectives. The facilities and equipment that an organization possesses are resources only when people use them. Therefore the management of human resources becomes as critical as any other process of management.
3.4 HUMAN RESOURCES PRACTICES

The HRM function in sport organizations today is concerned with more than simple filing, housekeeping and record keeping. When HRM strategies (Ivancevich, 1998) are integrated within the organization, HRM plays a major role in clarifying the organization’s problems and develops solutions for them. It is oriented towards action, the individual, worldwide interdependence and the future. Today it would be difficult to imagine any organization achieving and sustaining effectiveness without efficient HRM programs and activities.

Human resource management consists of numerous activities, which include acquiring human resources, rewarding human resources, training and developing human resources and appraising human resources.

All these activities will be discussed with particular reference to professional sport coaches.

3.4.1 Acquiring human resources

Before a sport organization can acquire its human resources, there are certain functions, which have to be performed. A comprehensive job analysis, which outlines the job description and job specification relating to the job, has to be done. Thereafter the recruitment and selection of suitable candidates has to be undertaken, taking into account current legislation regarding employment practice (refer to figure 3.3, page 61).
3.4.1.1 Job analysis

Job analysis is described as a purposeful, systematic process that is concerned with collecting data on the content of jobs in terms of the knowledge, skills and abilities needed to achieve the outcomes of the job (Gerber et al., 1989; Griffin, 1990; Ivancevich, 1998). It is further concerned with accountabilities, performance criteria, responsibilities, organizational factors, motivational factors,
developmental factors and environmental factors (Cornelius, 2001). It involves the creation of a job description (an account of the duties to be performed), the job specification (the education, training and skills required to do the job), and the performance standards (the expected level of performance and the criteria used to evaluate the performance). Job analysis can therefore be referred to as an accurate and systematic analysis of all tasks and duties of which a job consists, as well as the formulation of the characteristics needed of prospective employees to perform the defined tasks successfully (Gouws, 1999).

Schermerhon, Hunt & Osborne (Chelladurai, 1999) define a job as being one or more tasks that an individual performs in direct support of the organization’s production purpose. For instance, the professional sports coach in a sport organization is given the task of training and preparing athletes for competitions. In carrying out this duty the coach may be required to keep records regarding the athlete’s progress, recruitment, coaching and motivation. In order to perform his/her duty according to the expectations of the employers, the coach needs to know what is expected of him/her. The human resources practice that enables both the employer and the coach to understand their expectations is a job analysis.

Job analysis involves examining the total organization and the appropriateness of each job, determining how job analysis information will be used, selecting the jobs to be analysed and collecting data by using acceptable job analysis techniques (Ivancevich, 1998). The information collected would provide a clear job description and job specification. Figure 3.3 (page 61) provides an example of job analysis with particular reference to professional sports coaches.

Clifford (1994) states that there is an established need for job analysis at all organizations, including sport organizations, since job analysis is a critical element to three types of validation: content validation, criterion-related validation and construct validation. If an employer wishes to demonstrate that the selection
process used for an employment decision was valid, the employer will have to start from the basis of a current job analysis, which includes the job description and job specification.

**Job description**

Any job analysis should focus on the work behaviour/s and the tasks associated with them. If behavioural patterns in the workplace are not observable, the job analysis should identify and analyse those aspects that can be observed (Clifford, 1994). This information is important in the recruiting and selection of appropriate human resources. It also communicates the requirements of a job to the persons filling the position as well as their managers. It further provides details of the extent and limitations of their responsibilities. For example with reference to figure 3.3 (page 61) the job description clearly spells out to the coach his/her job title, duties, the job conditions, the hazards associated with the job, where it is to be performed and the facilities/equipment provided.

**Job specification**

After specific jobs have been analysed and determined, the type of person who would best fit the job needs to be determined. Job specification assists in determining the right person for the job. A job specification outlines those human qualities that are required to perform the job. For example, the job specification for a professional sports coach (refer to figure 3.3, page 61) should include among others initiative, judgement, teaching skills, coaching skills and planning ability.

The means of analyzing jobs should be dynamic, for example, if the nature of a job changes due to technological advances, the job description, specifications and performance standards should change accordingly (Cornelius, 2001; Slack, 1997).
**Purposes of job analysis**

The most basic component of an organization’s structure is the work and the different units to facilitate the carrying out of that work (Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk & Schenk, 2003). The goals of an organization are achieved by means of individuals performing their work in many jobs. This makes it necessary for utmost care to be taken with regard to the quantity and quality of people needed to do the job. Job analysis ensures that this is done effectively and efficiently. Job analysis serves many purposes in a sport organization.

Job analysis can enhance communication. It should respond to that basic question asked by all employees at one time or another: “What do you want me to do?” If job analysis does not provide communication and the understanding of what is to be done, it impedes communication and may be more detrimental than beneficial to the organization. Good quality job analysis can and should improve communication in the organization (Clifford, 1994).

Job analysis can easily accommodate change. Organizations tend to avoid conducting job analysis as a result of the amount of resources necessary to do it and do it well. Jobs are dynamic and constantly undergoing change. Job analysis systems have to address this fact. Data regarding jobs that are out of date are not valid and may be misleading. If the data is not valid, any employment decision based on that data could be suspect. Job analysis should therefore be reviewed periodically and revised to reflect changes that occur over time (Clifford, 1994).

Quality job analysis data can and should contribute greatly to selection, performance evaluation, training and development, compensation, job design, work force projections and work force reduction or expansion decisions (Cushway, 1999).
Detailed job analysis is essential to good workforce planning and utilization. This will ensure that the right number of employees, with the right skills, knowledge and expertise are available at the right place at the right time in an organization (Swanepoel et al., 2003). For example, job analysis can assist the human resources manager in a sport organization to forecast and project the supply and demand of personnel. Questions such as: “Should more women be employed?” or; “Should personnel from minority groups be employed?” can also be answered. Furthermore, organizational restructuring can only take place with accurate information about the various jobs available.

Performance appraisal will be difficult without proper job analysis. In order to appraise the performance of an employee it is necessary to be aware of the standards set by the job (Swanepoel et al., 2003). The job standards also make possible training and development inputs.

Not only are there legal reasons for job analysis, there are also important management considerations as well. The desire by organizations to manage the work activities and the human resources of an organization requires the study, analysis, and organization of work activities that make up jobs (Clifford, 1994).

An accurate job analysis is essential for sport coaches since they are required to perform multiple roles in the sport organization. If there is clarity about what coaches have to do, the chances of them achieving the objectives set out are enhanced.
Once an analysis of the type and number of jobs to be filled, the activities and responsibilities of a specific job, and the job specification is ascertained; human resources managers must develop a strategy to attract people with desired skills, experience, talent and experience to apply for the vacant positions. This involves recruiting prospective candidates for the job.

3.4.1.2 Recruitment and selection

No activity is more important in human resources management than recruitment and selection (Bridges & Roquemore, 1996). It is therefore imperative that sport organizations adopt proper procedures when recruiting and selecting personnel (Cushway, 1999). The importance of recruiting, selecting, and motivating the workforce is recognized by managers in every unit and functional area of an organization (Ivancevich, 1998). Human resources managers may have sound design, effective job design and impressive organization charts, but no aspect of any organization will work well if positions are not filled with competent employees since the employees are the ones that make the organizations’ systems work (Chelladurai, 1999).

All the objectives, procedures and plans of the organization will be effective if it has the right people to execute those plans, objectives and procedures. This holds true, particularly for service organizations, which most sport organizations are. The human resources manager in sport organizations must therefore be concerned with staffing the organization and this is no easy task (Chelladurai, 1999).
Recruitment

Bergmann & Taylor (Slack, 1997) define recruitment as the process of locating, identifying and attracting applicants capable of and interested in filling job vacancies.

Once staffing requirements have been determined, the organization has to ensure that procedures (refer to figure 3.4, page 68) are in place to attract and select candidates of the right calibre. An environmental analysis must be done to establish the availability of suitable personnel and how wide ranging the search has to be. Similarly an organizational analysis should also be done to establish such things as whether internal candidates are available, and who should be involved in the recruitment process. Once this is completed, the ways of finding recruits must be decided upon. The type of employee being recruited may influence the recruitment channels being used. For example sport organizations will not use an employment agency if it needs to recruit lower-level workers. The recruitment strategy used by a sport organization will vary depending on the position to be filled, the resources available for recruiting, and the timelines for filling the job (Slack, 1997). If a sport organization is small, the recruitment process may be informal but if the sport organization is large and complex, the channels of recruitment will be more formal and comprehensive.

There are various ways of recruiting applicants. The sport organization can start by looking at its own pool of prospective applicants (Ivancevich, 1998). Current employees who qualify to apply for the positions should be encouraged to apply for vacant positions. The advantage here is that this is cost-effective since the recruiter knows the candidate and his/her performance and no further assessment of the individual may be necessary. This can be disadvantageous if the jobs are at entry level. Current employees may be over-qualified, too experienced or too old for the job. This practice may also restrict diversity at the
workplace. If a specialist coach, for example, is needed at a sport organization it may be preferable to recruit from outside the organization since the likelihood of such a coach being in that sport organization is minimal.

Current employees should be encouraged to approach friends and relatives with qualifications, experience and qualities to perform the job to apply for positions. This is advantageous as an employee knows the objectives of the organization and may be able to recruit the right candidates. It can be disadvantageous as employees are likely to refer people who are similar to themselves, thus
restricting diversity in terms of sex, race, ethnicity, nepotism and other demographic characteristics (Chelladurai, 1999). Ivancevich (1998) suggests that, although this is a powerful recruiting technique, sport organizations should be careful not to inadvertently violate employment laws, especially if the workforce is already racially or culturally imbalanced.

Applicants can be recruited from campuses, which are the best source of young professionals. The advantage here is that the recruiter gets to meet several potential candidates and do a preliminary assessment. The disadvantage is that a recruiter may have to interact with several candidates who may not be interested in the position (Chelladurai, 1999; Ivancevich, 1998). The various sport academies and sport federations would possibly be a viable option when recruiting prospective sport coaches.

Special-events recruiting can be used when the supply of applicants is not large or when an organization is new and not well known. To attract potential employees organizations may provide hospitality suites at professional meetings. Another method of attracting applicants is to provide job fairs at which organizations publicize jobs available. Positions for vacant posts can also be advertised. Effective recruitment advertising is a critical step and should include the careful choice of the media and the appropriate message (Redman & Mathews, 1998). The advantage of advertising is that a large pool of candidates can apply whilst the disadvantage is that the larger the pool, the greater the task will be to select the appropriate applicant. Positions can be advertised through the electronic media of the Internet, posters, newspapers, television and flyers. To advertise for a sports coach, sport media would probably be the best media to use.

Although it is possible to attract sports coaches via the above-mentioned methods, many sports coaches are sometimes “poached” from different sport organizations. Once a sport organization has recruited a group of suitable
applicants, it needs some means of screening these applicants to ensure that the most suitable candidate is offered the job. This screening method is referred to as the selection process.

Selection

Bridges and Roquemore (1996: 259) describe selection as “the process of reviewing the qualifications of applicants for specific jobs and hiring those that appear most qualified to do a particular job”. The purpose of selection is to predict which of the applicants will perform the requirements of the job most effectively and efficiently. The selection of a sports coach should be based on the coach’s ability to do the critical tasks of the job (Clifford, 1994), which may be to motivate and supervise athletes or plan and coordinate a coaching session. The selection process can have a significant impact on the output in an organization (Bowen et al., 1992). Amos and Ristow (1999) comment that mistakes in selection can be very costly, with serious implications for both the sports coach selected and the sport organization. Performance and productivity can suffer if the wrong coach is selected.

In the present climate of high labour supply and low demand, attracting an adequate quantity of suitable applicants is fairly easy (Clifford & Grant, 1996). However, the selection process is far more complicated than what it appears on paper (Chelladurai, 1999). The reason for this is the need to find a suitable match between the sports coach and the job as well as between the sports coach and the organization (refer to figure 3.5, page 72). Quality job analysis is specifically aimed at the sports coach-job fit; it does not capture the essence of the sports coach-organization fit which encompasses personal needs, attitudes, values of the sports coach and the values and culture of the organization. According to Redman & Mathews (1998) a selection process that assesses the match between the sports coach and the sport organization’s goals will be effective. It is
therefore imperative for human resources managers to resort to other procedures to select an individual who matches the requirements of the organizational context.

For decades, research in the field of human resources has validated various selection devices (ability tests, personality tests, interviews, checking biographical background, considering reference letters, using personal judgement, and the like) as indicators of how candidates will perform. (refer to figure 3.5, page 72), in both productivity and quality as well as how they will fit in with the organization (Bowen, Lawler & Edward, 1992). Therefore, before choosing a selection method or technique, the sport manager must consider the technique’s validity and reliability, the cost of using that approach and how easily it is administered.

A selection device is considered to be valid if there is a relationship between the particular device and some criteria relevant to the job. In addition to being valid, the selection instrument must also be reliable, that is, it must give a consistent score when administered to the same person in a short time span. The selection process must also be free of any unfair discriminatory practices. While there are a number of valid and highly reliable means of help in selecting a sports coach for a job, many are costly. Some may also require trained specialists to administer them, limiting their usefulness for many sport organizations (Slack, 1997).

There are provisions that are made by the government, that govern the employment practice of sport organizations (Chelladurai, 1999), for example, the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (Act 75 of 1997) and the Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995). These are legal requirements that sport organizations need to follow implicitly. These provisions assist greatly in preventing any personal biases from surfacing in the hiring process.
There is a distinct possibility that during the recruitment and selection processes, the applicant, the organization or both, may not be truthful (or have misconceptions about the qualities needed for a job) in what each one has to offer to the other (Chelladurai, 1999). For instance, applicants may project themselves as being more capable than they really are, or applicants may claim to have sports coaching skills, which is a requirement for the job but have no competencies and knowledge about the task. On the other hand an organization may claim that salary and increments are based on performance, whilst in reality salary may be based on seniority and qualifications.

It is therefore important that human resources managers guard against false claims as this may have negative consequences for both the applicant and the organization in the long run. The negative consequences of poor recruitment and selection could result in high staff turnover, poor performance and low
motivation, and possibly an inability to attract candidates of the right calibre from outside the organization (Cushway, 1999).

Several studies (Slack, 1997) have examined the effect that replacing a coach has on a professional team’s performance. Although the general idea behind recruiting a new coach at a sport organization is that the coach brings new ideas that can reduce environmental uncertainty and improve performance, the actual results paint a different picture. This seems to be the case when one looks at some instances where the coach of a team has been replaced. In the English Premier Soccer League, the replacement of coach O’ Leary has resulted in the Leeds United team languishing just four points above the relegation zone, its lowest placing in five years. The team has lost six of their nine domestic fixtures and has announced a record loss of 33.8 million pounds. In South Africa the Bafana Bafana (soccer) team’s performance, compared to its previous performances, has not appeared to have improved or retrogressed under the new coach, Shakes Mashaba. The Proteas (cricket), under new coach Eric Simons, appears to have an improved approach and positive attitude to the game, as compared to their attitude and approach under their previous coach. This has resulted in some of the players breaking world records. In October 2002 for example, the following records, to name a few, were broken or equaled: Herschelle Gibbs equalled the world record of three consecutive international limited overs centuries but was denied the opportunity of breaking the world record of four consecutive centuries when on 97 a wide ball was bowled to him giving South Africa victory against Bangladesh; Graeme Smith became the fourth South African batsman to score a maiden double century in a Test match against Bangladesh, and Gary Kirsten made history when he became the first batsman in world cricket to score centuries against all other 9 Test-playing countries. It may be possible that the above feats are coincidental, but the fact remains that since the arrival of the new coach there seems to be a positive change to the team as compared to the period when they were under the previous coach.
It is important to bear in mind that coaching, unlike other professions, is not just the continuation and completion of someone else’s job. In many instances it may require starting from scratch and the team has to learn about the new coach’s mannerisms and approach before it can start functioning properly. When one looks at the example of Leeds United, the present coach (2002), Terry Venerables complained that he had too little time to change the team’s attitude and approach towards his expectations.

Slack (1997) states that in some sport organizations, people within that organization become complacent and one of the ways to enliven them is to introduce one or more new people who challenge the existing modes of operation. This appears to be the case with the Proteas, who, judging by their positive results and approach, appear to have been enlivened by the arrival of the new coach.

In sport organizations it is important to get the right people in the right posts. Very often in the past, sport coaches had been automatically appointed on the basis of their personality and because they had the technical expertise (Watt, 1998). According to Watt (1998) many coaches come with little or no prior guidance and formal coaching education. They are appointed because they have a great deal of the essential ingredients: enthusiasm, energy and administrative experience gained in another field. In some instances the selection of the coach was by default since no one else was interested in the position (McCallister et al., 2000). As a result of this, many coaches are unable to cope with situations that require more than just their technical expertise. They are unable to handle conflict and to counsel their charges.

Staffing should not take place on an ad hoc basis where someone is employed because one feels that an extra person is necessary (Amos & Ristow, 1999). It appears from the literature that appointments at sport organizations are done on an ad hoc basis. This needs to be discouraged. The future success of sport
organizations lies in recruiting and selecting the best people through the appropriate processes. It is therefore important for the sport manager to follow the proper procedures set by the sport organization, to select coaches.

The essential things that a sport manager is required to do when selecting a coach are firstly to conduct an interview with the prospective coach. This would enable the sport manager to ascertain whether the candidate has the minimum qualifications, experience, training, interest and any other qualities not included in the application form or advertisement (Arnold & Feldman, 1988). Personal contact with the coach will also help the sport manager to gain an insight into the personality and general appearance of the coach. If the coach fulfils the minimum requirements set by the sport organization, the coach can then be tested to measure his/her competence.

According to Gerber et al., (1989), testing is an objective method of getting more information about the applicant. There are various tests that can be taken by the applicant. Depending on the requirements of the job, professional coaches can take achievement tests (to measure how much the coach knows about the tasks). Other tests include intelligence tests (to measure the intellectual capacity of coaches and their ability to learn) and aptitude tests (to measure the ability of a prospective coach to learn a specific task). Personality tests (to measure the different facets of a coach’s personality such as social adaptability, level of dominance, orientation regarding achievements and handling of stress) are also among the tests that can be taken (Gerber et al., 1989). In some sport organizations, the prospective coach may also have to undergo a medical examination before a final decision can be made about his/her selection. If the prospective coach fulfils all the requirements for the job, his/her references will be checked before s/he can be appointed.

The sport manager also has to take into account changes in legislation when conducting a job analysis, recruiting and selecting.
3.4.1.3 Legislation

The effects of decades of a patriarchal system and enforced apartheid and inequality are clearly visible in South Africa (Levy, 1998). Unfair discrimination in the workplace has been rife. As a result the need to redress the imbalances caused by apartheid and patriarchy in the workplace, has arisen (Levy, 1998). This was done through the introduction of various Acts, for example, the Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995), the Employment Equity Act (Act 51 of 1998) and the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (Act 75 of 1997). Human resources managers need to take into account the afore-mentioned acts as well as diversity issues when conducting job analysis, recruiting and selecting coaches (refer to figure 3.6).

![Figure 3.6 Legislation](image)

Labour relations

Clegg (1979) describes labour relations as the rules governing employment, together with the ways in which the rules are made and changed, interpreted and administered, while Gouws (1999) views labour relations as the relation between employees and employers. Both these views are applicable in sport organizations. Labour relations attempts to explain the practical, everyday problems that arise in the relationship between employers and employees. It is
about understanding the how and why of human behaviour at work (Ackers, 1994).

Labour relations in the past used to refer to strikes. However in recent times labour relations has become a powerful tool within HRM in many organizations and almost every workplace has its own contracts manager and shop steward to ensure a close relationship between the organization and government and to assist employees address issues about employee rights and industrial relations (Ackers, 1994).

Employment legislation is becoming more standardized and more restrictive (Lipiec, 2001). Attitudes toward work have changed over the past decade. The increasing awareness of exploitative practices, and labour relations, coupled with the continuous pursuit of a higher standard of living (Gouws, 1999) have resulted in a change in the attitude of South African workers. People now want to develop in their profession and be more autonomous. This is possibly the reason why increasing numbers of part-time coaches and part-time coaching contracts have appeared.

Ackers (1994) believes that the changes in the late twentieth century has led to labour relations providing an indispensable map of work, organization and management with firm social, scientific and ethical bases. Without proper labour relations practices, questions and problems regarding conflicts of interest within the organization will be difficult to answer and solve. Today, there is widespread recognition that management has to take tough and unpopular decisions to secure competitiveness in their organizations (Ackers, 1994).

Advocates of employee involvement argue in favour of labour/management relationships that make unions ‘partners’ in the organization’s success and regard them as ‘critical partners’ in helping the organization achieve its objectives. The union also assumes responsibility for quality, thus creating
opportunity for more systems thinking and more problem solving. These relationships also help create a climate in which employees participate in many of the important decisions. In the absence of union support for employee problem solving and union/employee participation in improvement groups, there is a danger that employees will not trust the process (Bowen et al., 1992). The human resources department therefore has a central role in making unions “critical” partners with management.

The introduction of the Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995) seeks to alleviate many of the labour issues at sport organizations. The Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995) (LRA) assists sport organizations by clarifying the law so that human resources managers and coaches are certain about their rights and obligations. This ensures that all coaches are treated equally by the law, providing a voluntary system of collective bargaining with minimum interference by statute and courts and providing for simplified dispute procedures. This brings South African labour law into line with international labour law standards and compliance with the labour relations provisions in the constitution. It also provides for the establishment of workplace forums to encourage the participation of workers in decision making at workplace level and the regulation of the organizational rights of trade unions. However, there are currently no trade unions specifically for professional sports coaches in South Africa.

In the absence of trade unions, many coaches in sport organizations, especially soccer, cricket and rugby, attempt to protect themselves by signing contracts with their respective sport organizations. However, judging from the high coach turnover in sport codes such as soccer (refer to table 3.1, page 103) and rugby (refer to table 3.2, page 104) it appears that the contracts favour the sport organizations in many instances. Professional coaches are often dismissed by sport organizations and seem to have no avenue for justice. Most cases never go to court and are settled out of court. In rugby, a players’ union known as the South African Rugby Players’ Association (SARPA) has been formed to protect
the players’ interests. In soccer the South African Soccer Players’ Association (SASPA) was established in 2003. There is currently no recognized national coaches’ union. It is therefore important for sport organizations to ensure that there are structures that adhere to the LRA in place to settle labour disputes. As mentioned previously, the most important resource in any organization is the human resource – therefore it needs to be protected and retained.

Human resources managers also need to consider employment equity when conducting a job analysis, recruiting and selecting.

**Employment equity**

The playing fields in terms of education and upbringing in South Africa were chronically skewed (Levy, 1998) as a result of decades of segregation. The introduction of the Employment Equity Act (Act 51 of 1998) addresses the cumulative effects of the causes of unequal treatment and unequal opportunities at the level of the workplace (Levy, 1998). The Act proposes that employers: set up non-discriminatory procedures for hiring, promotion, remuneration, selection for training and retrenchment by establishing clear, justifiable criteria for the relevant decisions. Furthermore, they are required to lay out measures to reduce barriers to historically disadvantaged groups, accelerate training and promotion for people from historically disadvantaged communities and provide key indicators for success in ensuring equity.

The Act also investigates certain aspects relating to strategic issues in organizations. For example, it questions how the present human resource development policy of the organization impacts on its ability to market, whether changes in staffing policy would enable the organization to reach new segments of the market and whether the organization is making optimal use of all the persons working for this organization.
The introduction of the Employment Equity Act (Act 51 of 1998) has resulted in many changes in sport organizations. There has been a tremendous increase in the participation of women (Singh, 2002a) as well as participation by disabled athletes during the last two decades. In many developing countries, opportunities for women, disabled people and other disadvantaged groups were non-existent. These groups now have a legitimate avenue to voice their grievances, namely, the Employment Equity Act (Act 51 of 1998). The Act lays out measures to reduce barriers to historically disadvantaged groups. As a result, coaches that come from disadvantaged backgrounds may, in principle, be able to compete on equal footing for jobs with their advantaged counterparts. Levy (1998), however, comments that although equal opportunity exists in law, it is not necessarily practiced. As a result of millions of job seekers who have suffered the consequences of past discrimination and are unable to compete on equal footing with the advantaged group. This was because job opportunities, education and training were denied to a large proportion of the workforce. The Act makes it easier for people to apply without fear of repercussion or criticism since the organization will be following a nationally accepted procedure.

In the past, employment equity was to combat unfair treatment in the workplace Levy (1998). Although this still holds true today, employment equity is presently not just about equality, but can have practical advantages for any organization that implements it. This is because there has been more transformation both nationally and globally in the past two decades than in any other period of human history (Levy, 1998). Therefore, in order to survive in the long term, sport organizations must be able to respond positively to new developments.

**Basic conditions of employment**

The Basic Conditions of Employment Act (Act 75 of 1997) has been introduced to advance economic development and social justice by establishing and enforcing basic conditions of employment.
Among its many thrusts the Act stipulates the time an employee works, namely; overtime, Sunday work, night shift and public holidays. It is not difficult to apply the Act to people who work normal hours. Professional sports coaches are, however, in a unique position in that they are mostly required to work longer hours, odd hours, on Sundays and public holidays and at night, since it is during this time that most sport fixtures are scheduled. Although the Act does provide for negotiation in terms of flexible working hours, it is not always possible to apply this to professional coaches. In most instances coaches who work longer hours or on public holidays do not receive additional remuneration.

It therefore becomes necessary for human resources managers to take into account the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (Act 75 of 1997) when conducting job analysis, recruiting and selecting. Furthermore, human resources managers also need to take into account diversity in the workplace when conducting job analysis, recruiting and selecting.

**Diversity**

Diversity is defined by many diversity practitioners as a mosaic of stakeholders who bring a variety of backgrounds, styles, perspectives, values and beliefs as assets to the organization with which they interact (Mayikana, 2002). According to Solomon (2002) diversity isn’t about having a politically correct set of demographics. It is about fostering a culture that values individuals and their wide array of needs and contributions. Melymuka (2001) and Cavanaugh (2001) both view diversity as more than colour and gender. It also encompasses age, ethnic origin, culture and even personal style. Melymuka (2001) sees it as an attitude, which is aware of all the differences that make us unique in terms of lifestyles and challenges as well as skills and contributions. Cavanaugh (2001) however, sees diversity as a means of maximizing the potential of the workforce by creating an environment of respect, acceptance, understanding and
communication – a place where new ideas and new perspectives are encouraged, along with a commitment to serve diverse communities.

Most organizations now operate in a diverse environment (Cornelius, 2001). The source of diversity has arisen due to globalization, migration and increased labour market activity by those from traditionally disadvantaged groups, such as women, those from ethnic minorities and those with disabilities. Increased levels of participation by these groups have been fuelled in part by legislation. For example, the Employment Equity Act (Act 51 of 1998) prohibits job discrimination on the basis of race, gender, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture or language. Thus equal opportunities and diverse perspectives are now on many organizational agendas and the potential power of exploiting a range of differences is being acknowledged by management. A number of organizations are exploiting the diverse advantage by creating an organizational environment attractive to many beyond the traditional labour pool. This is achieved through effective HRM strategies that attract, retain, train and develop a diversity of people and ultimately, through utilizing employees to gain competitive edge (Cornelius, 2001). Schuler & Walker (1990) state that if organizations cannot effectively recruit, train and motivate their employees they will lose out and will not be able to compete in the marketplace since competing requires full utilization of all resources that will provide critical leverage in a more competitive business environment.

According to Mello (2002), most human resources managers in South Africa incorrectly assume that workplace diversity is only about increasing racial, gender or disability representation by recruiting and retaining more people from the traditionally underrepresented ‘designated groups’. Mayikana (2002) believes that diversity goes beyond increasing the number of different designated group affiliations to recognizing that such an effort is merely the first step in dealing and managing a diverse workforce for the organization’s utmost benefit. Diversity
therefore becomes not just a moral issue but also a business imperative. It is therefore suggested by Mayikana (2002) that the sooner South African organizations realize this, the sooner they will be able to grow economically. If the full benefits of diversity are to be reaped, organizations need to start thinking about diversity more holistically, by providing fresh and meaningful approaches to work and not assuming that diversity simply relates to race and ethnicity.

Kandola and Fullerton (Cornelius, 2001) show that many organizations believe that diversity makes good business sense by harnessing individual differences to create a productive environment that utilizes the talents of all employees to the full potential and enables employers to gain the competitive edge. Many organizations have realized that the only way to survive in the global community is by embarking on initiatives aimed at diversity in entrenching multiculturalism in their corporate cultures. In South Africa, many sport organizations are using diversity strategies to broaden their workforce. This is especially evident in soccer and baseball where coaches from other countries are recruited. There are also many women soccer coaches in South Africa. Women were historically prohibited from participating in any tournament such as a boxing or wrestling (Singh, 2002a). This, however, has changed and provision has been made in the South African Boxing Bill (B13-2001) for the participation and involvement of women in boxing. Organizations are finding out that when they promote diversity, they also create a more innovative and efficient workplace (Papmehl, 2002). Solomon (2002) states that developing a diverse workforce reduces turnover and casts a wider net for recruiting talented workers since people do not want to work in an environment which is racially different.

Radical changes in workforce demographics mean that organizations need to develop a knowledge and understanding of how to manage a diverse workforce that includes a large percentage of blacks and women. Diversity training is critical as it makes employees and employers aware of diversity issues and addresses certain subtleties as, for example, nonassertive employees being passed over for
top positions (Solomon, 2002). More managers are realizing that diversity is a business and economic issue, not just a moral one. Schuler & Walker (1990) emphasizes that the exclusion of women, the disabled and ethnic minorities from opportunities in the past in many organizations, is to be regretted and has to change. Organizations that promote an open door policy and recognise talent and who overlook race and ethnicity, foster excellence and creativity. This allows the organization to understand the needs of different ethnic and cultural markets (Papmehl, 2002).

Many studies (Inglis & Danylchuk, 1996) have addressed the issue of under representation of women in professional coaching positions. The findings from such studies suggest that women enter coaching positions to extend involvement in competition, work with advanced athletes, serve as role models and help female athletes reach their potential (Inglis & Danylchuk, 1996). They leave professional coaching positions due to factors such as discriminatory practices, burnout, lack of job satisfaction, role conflict and gender structuring which considers opportunity and power in proportion to how they affect organizational behaviour.

Aghazadeh (1999) states that in the past, the efforts of many organizations to deal with a diverse employee population were mandated largely by legal pressures or moral concerns in regards to fairness. These issues of workforce diversity, although complex and complicated will now become more of an issue for those organizations operating on a global scale (Aghazadeh, 1999). Successful organizations will react to diversity as the important business issue it is by implementing proactive, strategic human resources planning.

Aspects through which diversity manifests itself in the workplace are numerous. Research (Mello, 2002), has focused on aspects such as race and ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, disability and religion as manifestations of diversity.
However, diversity can also manifest itself in the form of different positions, namely, coaching, training and instructing in a sport organization.

Globalization has resulted in the emergence of diversified customer bases, which motivate the need to treat diversity seriously. South African sport organizations cannot be globally competitive if their focus revolves only around affirmative action (Mayikana, 2002). The only way organizations can stay ahead of rapid changes in the business environment is by demonstrating their commitment to diversity. Utilizing differences will create and sustain a competitive advantage for organizations and a productive workplace for all (Cavanaugh, 2001).

The question of why a sport organization would prefer a workforce of certain proportions of diversity (for example race, gender, ethnicity, age and national origin) may be repeatedly asked. Osborne (2000) states that profile specific requirements imply that employees of different profiles contribute to profit in differing proportions. For example, a group of people from a certain area is able to identify with a coach that has his/her roots in that area. They may also be more receptive to that coach.

In the USA, a sport such as baseball deals habitually with a highly objective performance measurement such as player statistics and the win/loss ratio of the team (Breslin, 2000). According to Breslin (2000), sports are somewhat unique in that they can shed an objective light on the positive effects of workplace diversity. He uses baseball, which pits large numbers of players against each other, as a basis for his argument. The findings of his research revealed that baseball teams (who were not integrated prior to the 1940’s) who started integrating sooner outperformed those teams that integrated later. A similar trend was evident in major league football where teams that failed to integrate themselves in a timely manner found themselves at a disadvantage.
In South Africa, sport organizations are forced through legislation to apply diversity mechanisms in the recruitment and selection of employees and teams. The process may appear slow but it is clear that in the future members of diverse groups will hold a greater number of positions in sport organizations. Therefore the human resources manager should be sensitive to diversity issues, anticipate the needs of society and embrace the opportunities that come with change as it is becoming increasingly evident that sport as a whole is beginning to profit from such an exercise.

There has been more upheaval and transformation in national and global markets in the past two decades than any other period in history. This process is continuing. Although not every sector is affected to the same extent, no organization can afford to be complacent. Therefore in order to survive and flourish in the long term, organizations must be prepared to anticipate and respond imaginatively to new developments, discard established methods that have served their purpose and to take advantage of new opportunities (Levy, 1998).

It is important not only for HR managers to be conversant with the labour laws but also for the employees. This will develop a better understanding between management and employees and will ultimately result in a better organization.

While conducting a job analysis, the human resources manager should also give careful thought to rewarding human resources.

3.4.2 Rewarding human resources

One of the contributions that HRM can make to organizational effectiveness is to provide the organization with well-motivated and satisfied employees by ensuring that if one wants to improve performance one must see justice in the rewards given (Ivancevich, 1998). An organization’s reward system is the most powerful
tool for managing employee motivation (Griffin, 1990) and implementing effective strategy (Lucero & White, 1995). The reward system therefore must be clearly and tightly linked to strategic performance. Goals should be clarified, measurement indicated and good results should be rewarded.

The rewards that employees receive can be intrinsic or extrinsic (Chelladurai, 1999). Both these rewards can be motivational to the employee and can provide job satisfaction and job security. Intrinsic rewards lie in the job itself, in other words, the enjoyment and satisfaction that an employee derives from the job. Extrinsic rewards can take a financial form (for example, salary and bonuses) or a non-financial form (for example, a comfortable office). Financial rewards that an organization offers can take the form of indirect compensation (for example, medical aid, pension, group insurance and paid leave) or direct compensation (basic salary, overtime and incentive bonuses). Non-financial rewards may relate to career progress (training or studying at the organization’s cost) or to social status (for example, special privileges) (refer to figure 3.7, page 88). The organization has little control over the intrinsic motivation since these rewards reside in the job itself and is administered by the employee. The organization has more control over the extrinsic rewards. In some instances, especially with regard to coaching, professional coaches receive a bonus if the team wins. The entire Korean soccer team, during the 2000 Soccer World Cup was promised a car each if they reached the finals of the World Cup. As a result, the team was motivated both intrinsically (with their individual desire to win) and extrinsically (with the desire to win the car).

Griffin (1990) cites compensation, which is the financial remuneration given by the organization to its employees in exchange for their work, as a critical element in rewarding human resources.
3.4.2.1 Compensation

Compensation is the human resources management practice that deals with every type of reward that individuals receive for performing organizational tasks. The compensation package, consisting of remuneration and benefits, is a major expense which critically affects the competitive position of an organization (Ivancevich, 1998). Compensation is critical to employees as it can assist them in meeting many basic needs. It is also a sign of acknowledgement of their individual achievements. It enhances their self worth and provides prestige, power and status.

Most compensation systems are focused on individuals. Job descriptions spell out what an individual's tasks are. Evaluation systems suggest how much the job is worth (and thus how much the individual is paid) and merit increases reflect how well the individual has done the job (Bowen et al., 1992). Job-based pay
systems tend to reward individuals for moving up the organizational hierarchy. For example, in a sport organization a fitness instructor may be paid less than the manager may, as s/he is lower in the hierarchy. In sport organizations movement up the organizational hierarchy is often slow.

Many human resources practitioners suggest substituting job-based pay with skill-based pay (Bowen et al., 1992). In essence this system pays individuals for what they can do by basing increases on the acquisition of new skills and knowledge. The skills may relate to either horizontal or vertical processes. The logic is that individuals with this broader knowledge will be more effective and thus make a greater contribution to the organization. For example, when one looks at the different levels of coaching qualifications, a coach who completes each subsequent level acquires more knowledge and skill, thus the recognition that the coach will get will be that s/he will be compensated according to the additional qualification achieved.

According to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) every person has the right to equality. That is, everyone must be treated equally. Affirmative Action, which is applied at most organizations, is aimed at providing opportunities to people from disadvantaged backgrounds. It is therefore possible that in South African sporting organizations, there are those that are appointed to positions through Affirmative Action. They may not have the necessary formal qualifications and experience. This does not imply that the appointed individuals should be disadvantaged in terms of the compensation they receive. “Substantive equality” (Singh, 2002b) is provided for in the 1996 Constitution to promote the ethos of reconciliation and reconstruction in South Africa. This approach accepts the injustices and disadvantages arising from the discrimination of the past, and that people, who were previously disadvantaged as a result of discrimination are entitled to preferential treatment. If the formal concept of equality were applied, most people from disadvantaged backgrounds would be earning less than their advantaged counterparts. In South Africa it is
not uncommon to see professional sport coaches (especially in soccer) earning high salaries despite the fact that they have little or no formal qualifications. The compensation is based on their experience, competence and the job and not always on their formal qualifications and skills.

Individual merit pay systems place strong emphasis on individual performance, creating a competitive situation among employees. Lawler (Hofrichter et al., 1996) asserts that job-based pay approaches are well on their way to being replaced by person-based pay. Hofrichter et al. (1996) however, disagree stating that in actual practice organizations are paying much greater attention to variable pay tied to company or team performance.

**Purposes of compensation systems**

Compensation systems serve many purposes (refer to figure 3.7, page 88) in a sport organization. Compensation systems are designed to aid the organization in attracting and retaining good employees (Baird, Schneier & Beatty, 1988; Schuler, 1983). Because every sport organization is in competition with other similar organizations, it is important that a sport organization ensures that its compensation structure matches at least the market rate if it wants to recruit and retain good employees. An effective reward system is competitive with those of other similar or dissimilar organizations seeking a particular kind of competency and talent and is more attractive to potential candidates.

The compensation package offered to coaches can influence the job satisfaction of coaches. This, in turn, may result in reduced absenteeism and turnover (Arnold & Feldman, 1988; Ivancevich, 1998). Lawler (Chelladurai, 1999) states that organizations can design reward systems to reduce absenteeism by linking bonuses and perks to levels of attendance. This strategy is particularly useful in compensating for low job content and poor working conditions that cannot be
improved. For example, the human resources manager may set a policy of giving a monetary bonus or extra days paid leave for perfect attendance.

Competitive compensation packages can motivate the sports coaches to develop their skills and knowledge in the direction desired by the organization and to motivate them to perform to the expectations of the organization (Baird et al., 1988). Based on this assumption a sport organization can design a compensation system to reward employees who develop their skills and increase their knowledge. For example, a sport coach who achieves a higher level of coaching qualification may get a recognition bonus or will move into a higher salary bracket. This may contribute to higher productivity and organizational effectiveness. An effective compensation system motivates performance if it is attractive to the employee, it is tied to a fair level of performance, and the employee perceives the level of performance to be attainable.

It should be noted that although the compensation is for past performance, it influences motivation for future performance. According to Chelladurai (1999) the human resources manager who designs the compensation system in a sport organization must attempt to make the rewards attractive to employees and offer rewards to those who achieve realistic levels of performance.

Compensation systems can influence organizational effectiveness by maintaining the organizational culture that fosters the specific goals and aims of the organization. Lawler (Chelladurai, 1999) suggests that high levels of pay may create a culture of elitism and that member participation in pay decisions may create a culture of participation. If a profit-oriented sport organization engages its coaches in pay and bonus decisions, it facilitates a culture of participation and ownership amongst its coaches.
Types of compensation systems

There is a dearth of ideas in the area of compensation systems (Bowen et al., 1992). Salary, wages and bonuses form the basis of all compensation systems. Although there are many types of compensation systems, they all link rewards with performance (Ivancevich, 1998). However, in addition to monetary compensation, there are also other rewards that an employee may expect and enjoy.

Compensation may be allocated based solely on organizationally relevant performance or based on membership in specific groups meaningful to the organization, for example, seniority or rank (Arnold & Feldman, 1988).

Another variation in the reward system can be a variation in the work schedule. A shorter week, for example, permits an employee to work longer hours each day for fewer days in the week. Flexi-time also permits the employee to vary the number of hours worked in a day subject to the total number of hours in a given period and a day core period (Chelladurai, 1999). This may not be possible in respect of professional coaches as the coach may have a fixed schedule regarding his/her coaching.

Bases of compensation

The bases of rewards (refer to figure 3.7, page 88) are interlinked with the purposes and types of rewards. A question that needs to be answered for setting relative compensation in an organization is: What skills are required to perform the work of various jobs? Jobs requiring higher skill levels usually receive higher levels of compensation. There are other factors, however, that are used in setting compensation, for example, the external labour market, longevity and working conditions but relative skill level is very important for setting relative compensation (Clifford, 1994).
Skills that employees possess, is an approach used by many organizations as a base to determine compensation. It is assumed here that the skills considered are those that can be used within the organization. In other words the skills need to be relevant to the job and the organization.

The advantage of this approach from the organization’s perspective, is that the organization benefits by enhancing its human capital and will have a more flexible workforce not restricted by job description. Furthermore, cross-training is promoted, thus preventing work disruption (Gomez-Mejia, Balkin & Cardy, 1988). For instance, a coach may have other skills, such as office administration and computer skills, which can be used when the need arises. However, it is difficult to imagine a clerk or receptionist who does not have coaching skills doing the job of a coach when the need arises. There are also some risks to the organization associated with this approach. Firstly, it may lead to higher compensation costs which were not budgeted for. Secondly, an employee may master all the skills and receive a higher remuneration than he would have received under a job-based pay rate. Thirdly, employees who have reached the ceiling of their pay structure may get frustrated and leave the organization since there are no more incentives for a pay increase.

The advantage of this approach from the employee’s perspective is that the employees begin to believe that the organization values their personal growth; and a climate is created for personal growth and development thus leading to greater commitment to the organization and increased motivation in job performance (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1988).

Compensation can be based on the job that an individual does (Schuler, 1983). In this traditional approach, the compensation that an employee receives is based solely on the type of job. The job is evaluated by the human resources manager or outside consultants in relation to other related jobs (Arnold &
Feldman, 1988). In many instances the more complex a job is and the more demands that the job puts on the employee, the higher the compensation. For example, an exercise instructor may be paid less than a specialist coach.

It is common practice for most government organizations to base their compensation system on seniority (Che lladurai, 1999). In this approach the organization uses the number of years the employee has been in a particular job as a basis for determining salary and bonuses. Many organizations justify this approach by linking seniority to skills and mastery of the job, in other words, the organization expects a person performing a job for a number of years to have mastered the skills associated with the job. That employee is therefore entitled to a higher salary than a newcomer to the job is. Arnold and Feldman (1988) comment that linking seniority serves to encourage and reward continued membership but does nothing to reinforce productivity and performance. With regard to professional sports coaches, however, other approaches to determining compensation seem more appropriate. It is not necessarily true that the more senior a coach, the more knowledge s/he has about the job and the more productive s/he is.

Most organizations use performance as the basis for compensation (Arnold & Feldman, 1988). The compensation in this instance is based on the performance of the employee. It is easy and objective in a manufacturing organization, for example, if an employee produces 100 units of a product, s/he will be entitled to a higher salary than one who produces less than 100 units of the same product. However, in sport organizations this approach is difficult to adopt, as there are various other factors besides the number of ‘units’ produced. For example, a soccer coach is not compensated by just looking at the number of players he has successfully coached but also the quality of the players and perhaps the number of matches won or drawn.
If people in different organizations need to act differently, then the ways that they are selected, trained, organized, managed and paid need to be different. It is not a matter of finding the single best system, but of finding a system that supports a specific organization’s approach to work strategy and culture (Hofrichter et al., 1996). When employees understand how their pay is determined, this affects their satisfaction with the processes of the pay plan as well as the outcomes they receive (Dulebohn, 1998).

According to Burnett (Singh, 2002b), the rewards and accolades in sport are largely unequal. It can be argued that this is so as a result of certain codes of sport which attract larger sponsorship, larger viewer support and are more profitable to the media that promote these sport codes. It is therefore not surprising that there is great disparity in the compensation systems of different sport codes. For example, it is highly unlikely in South Africa that a tennis coach will earn more than, for example, a soccer or rugby coach. It is also unlikely that a woman coach, despite the fact that equity in all forms has been advocated, will earn more than her male counterpart. This can be problematic in sport organizations. People want to be treated fairly and they evaluate fairness by comparing their time, efforts and rewards with those of others in similar positions. Workforce equity in sport organizations is focused on salaries and professional coaches evaluate pay equity by comparing their performances with other coaches in the same league. Whilst it may be simplistic to suggest that sport organizations should move toward equity regarding compensation, this is not practical due to the fact that most sport organizations in South Africa have disparate financial and other resources. Besides compensation, job security is a very critical issue in the management of human resources (Schuler, 1983).

3.4.2.2 Job security/Job retention

One of the concerns of anyone entering a new profession is job security, or tenure of employment (Singh, 2001). Organizational flexibility has been
accompanied by increasing uncertainty regarding job security, with a job for life becoming a thing of the past in particular sectors (Arnold & Feldman, 1988). Big corporate layoffs, downsizing and rightsizing have caused many employees to fear for their jobs (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1988). Downsizing does not only have a negative effect on the employees who leave but also has a major effect on the remaining employees (Redman & Mathews, 1998). The perception that is created in the remaining employees is that all workers have to get used to changing jobs more frequently (Singh, 2001). Handy and other management gurus (Warren, 1996) have predicted that job security for employees will become a thing of the past.

Job security needs are satisfied for many employees in an organization by job continuity (no layoffs), a grievance system (to protect against unfair dismissal) and an adequate insurance and retirement benefit package (for security against illness and the provision of income in later life) (Griffin, 1990). In many instances job continuity for professional coaches is not guaranteed. Much depends on the skills of the coach, the talent of the team, the win/loss record of the coach and the objectives of the organization. The responsibility for the management of security of employment is shifting among many from the responsibility of the employer to more proactive strategies on the part of employees to ensure that they remain employable. Therefore, the management and continual updating of a personal portfolio of skills, knowledge and expertise is seen as core to ensuring continuity of employment, if not continuity with a specific employer (Cornelius, 2001).

The loss of talented employees may be very detrimental to an organization’s future success. Coff (Sigler, 1999) states that the remaining employees may leave an organization as they become dissatisfied, underpaid or unmotivated. The lack of information regarding the employee’s performance may complicate an organization’s endeavour to retain productive employees. Without adequate
information, an organization may not be able to distinguish productive employees from non-productive ones.

The cost of replacing employees can be high. The cost of recruiting new staff can be up to 150% of the annual salary for key staff. In addition to financial costs there is the loss of skills, knowledge, experience and the investment in training. Also, there is the disruption to the work and staff as well as the effect on staff morale (Curtis & Wright, 2001). In a perfect situation, the productive employees are encouraged to stay within the organization and the nonproductive poor performers are encouraged to leave. In fact if it were measurable, an organization would keep each employee whose contribution produced a positive risk adjusted profit for the organization, and would then also have a more positive influence on the organization than any employee hired to replace him or her (Sigler, 1999).

Retention of talented employees can be a source of advantage for an organization. The retention of talented employees increases the reputation and image of the organization and thus increases selection attractiveness, which in turn enhances the organization’s ability to recruit high-performing staff. Similarly, a decline in employee loyalty and retention is costly to the organization as it is associated with increases in employee behaviours such as lower productivity, theft, absenteeism and general misconduct and the development of “turnover culture” (Redman & Mathews, 1998).

Turnover represents an outflow of skills and may consequently seriously hinder competitiveness, efficiency and quality delivery. Turnover can occur for a variety of reasons with the main ones being retirement, redundancy, dismissal and resignation. However, it is the latter, as it is the most difficult to predict, which has the most disruptive effects. According to Staw (Redman & Mathews, 1998) research also shows that those employees who leave voluntarily tend to be above average performers. In a survey done in 1996, small to midsize
organizations revealed that their high turnover rates are as a result of ineffective hiring practice (Taylor & Kleiner, 2000).

A particular problem for organizations with high turnover rates is maintaining high standards of customer care. The costs of practices designed to facilitate the retention of employees, for example, attractive salaries, improved working conditions and job security, are more than offset by the financial benefits of retaining existing customers over costs of winning new ones, the so called relationship marketing. Staff turnover can be an important measure of an organization’s health as a high turnover can indicate that something is amiss. Too high a turnover will entail substantial additional recruitment and training costs, as well as possible loss of productivity and damage to staff morale (Cushway, 1999).

It may be that in certain industries, high levels of staff turnover are viewed as necessary. For example, nightclubs and fast food restaurants need young staff for the sake of their corporate image. But for most organizations, factors such as quality, customer service and expertise are more important than ensuring that staff fit within a narrow age band. High staff turnover can damage factors such as quality and customer service which provide competitive advantage, thereby inhibiting business growth or even causing a decline in the level of business (Curtis & Wright, 2001). Sport is the opposite with regards to turnover of coaches. Each coach brings into the organization his/her unique flavour, style and personality. The athlete and coach contact time is longer than the contact time between a waiter and a customer, for example. The athlete needs to adjust to the coach and this may take some time, depending on the skill and personality of the coach. In sport organizations it is important to retain coaches for as long as possible. A soccer season, for example, is short and a change in a coach may disrupt the tempo and mental attitude created by the previous coach and could result in poor performance. Additionally, as sport organizations provide human services, it is not possible for athletes to adapt to one coach and then to another
in a short timeframe. De Marco & Lister (Singh, 2001) identified the following reasons for most departures in organizations with pathologically high turnover (over 50%): a 'just passing through' mentality, a feeling of disposability and a sense that loyalty would be ludicrous. Hence, it can be deduced that coach retention could promote loyalty and a sense of self-worth and belonging.

Professional sport coaches experience problems with job security and continuity since the success of coaching is normally measured in terms of success achieved by the team (Van Zijl, 1984). As a result of this, fluctuating achievements may impact negatively on the professional coach. Promising professional coaches are frequently lost from sport as there is no provision for job possibilities, job security and continuity in this direction.

The retention of talent is a major issue to be considered in sport organizations today (Inglis & Danylchuk, 1996). One of the challenges to human resources managers is to devise ways of retaining key strategic employees (Lipiec, 2001; Redman & Mathews, 1998; Sigler, 1999). One of the ways of doing this is by developing a sense of commitment in coaches towards the organization. This can be done by defining the organization’s purpose and objectives and trying to obtain a commitment of them. Human resources managers can also design the job to suit the coach as far as possible and should provide variety, interest and opportunities for learning and growth. The retention of these employees can have a major impact on the success of the organization (Redman & Mathews, 1998).

Employee retention poses particularly acute problems in high-contact service industries. Sport organizations are high contact service organizations. Schlesinger and Heskett (Redman & Mathews, 1998) describe a cycle of failure where high employee turnover results in low productivity, poor service, angry customers, even more discontented workers and thus continuing high turnover. In sport organizations the “coach turnover syndrome” which has affected most popular sporting codes, has resulted in many instances in poor team
performance, discontented supporters as well as dissatisfied coaches. It can thus be concluded that customer retention and employee retention feed one another and result in quality improvement. Rust et al. (Redman & Mathews, 1998) goes on to state that organizations with satisfied employees have satisfied customers.

A customer’s contact with an organization is through employees. In sport organizations it is with employees (sport coaches) that customers (athletes and supporters) build bonds of trust and expectations. When these employees leave, the bond is broken (Redman & Mathews, 1998). It can thus be concluded that service organizations with effective employee retention programmes will achieve higher levels of service quality than those without them.

Warren (1996) states that managers in organizations need to take employment security seriously and build this concept into their professional ideology and practice. Instead of undermining job security, organizations should be trying to preserve and support it in the face of destructive competitive pressures and tendencies. If secure employment cannot be supported and re-established, sport organizations will suffer.

Human resources managers will be responsible for the retention and motivation of the organization’s workforce, especially sport coaches who play increasingly important roles. Different values and lifestyles will have to be taken into account by using personnel policies to develop human resources strategies to retain professional coaches. Service organizations with effective employee retention programs will achieve higher levels of service quality than those without it (Redman & Mathews, 1998).

Understanding the factors considered important for retaining professional coaches has potential significance for reversing the decline of a number of individuals.
Farrel & Rusbult (Inglis & Danylchuk, 1996) view the retention function in human resources systems as one that deals with managing and promoting constructive employee membership behaviours. They are of the opinion that this function does not receive the same degree of systematic attention from human resources managers as the other functions such as employee selection, training, compensation and motivation. Retaining employees such as sport coaches in sport organizations is critical in preventing undesirable employee turnover, maintaining a consistency in workflow and avoiding high costs associated with new employee recruitment and training (Inglis & Danylchuk, 1996).

The most successful organizations will be the ones who can attract, develop and retain individuals who have the ability to manage a global organization that is responsive to customers and the opportunities presented by technology. It will be the human resources department’s responsibility to find, assimilate, develop, compensate and retain these talented employees (Aghazadeh, 1999). Human resources managers will be responsible for the retention and motivation of the new workforce, especially women and minorities who play increasingly important roles (Lipiec, 2001).

Incentive compensation is one method that is used to reduce the problems surrounding the effort to retain employees. By aligning the interests of the employees with the owners of the organization through pay incentives, the agency problems of excessive prerequisite consumption, shirking and poor investment decision-making may be reduced. It is important that pay and benefit is perceived internally as fair as considerable dissatisfaction can arise if people do not feel that they are being treated fairly. Incentive pay may also give the employee the incentive to remain in the organization, provide a competitive wage and encourage the employee to abide by organizational practices. Incentive pay may consist of cash bonuses for employees upon reaching predetermined goals (Sigler, 1999). Pay incentives will help align the employees’ interests with those of the organization’s owners and efforts to improve job satisfaction through
employee autonomy, training and pleasant working conditions will help retain talented employees. For example, a coach may be offered a bonus judged on the achievements of his/her team or athletes.

In addition to using pay incentives to reward the employee for reaching organizational goals and demonstrating loyalty to the organization, efforts can be made by the organization to improve job satisfaction. This may also increase the number of talented employees who remain in the company. Management can ensure that talented employees are given autonomy in their job functions (for example, a coach is given the latitude to draw up his/her own programmes and coaching rules) and are given meaningful assignments, allowing them to be involved in the decision making for their area of expertise (for example in the selection of players). Pleasant working conditions (as, for example, proper training facilities) can also entice productive coaches to remain in their organization and not look elsewhere. In addition, offering these talented coaches training to keep them up to date on their job functions and allowing them to learn new skills can also be utilized to improve employee satisfaction within the organization (Sigler, 1999).

According to Singh (2001), security in sport coaching lies in three broad areas. Firstly, coaches must rely mostly on their own ability, regardless of the number assistants on the staff. Secondly, the lead coach must have complete faith in the players on the team. Thirdly, the coach must have faith in assistant coaches, in knowing that they are dedicated enough and possess sufficient knowledge to do an outstanding job of imparting skills and attitudes necessary for excellence in an athlete.

Kanter (Warren, 1996) noted that the job-tenure ideal of the past is colliding with the job-insecurity reality of the present. Institutionally dependent careers are declining and self-reliant careers as professionals and entrepreneurs are proliferating, increasing the burden on people. As she sees it, the only
employment security will come from a person’s competence and from the skills that will enable them to add value to an organization. Organizations will only be attractive to independent workers if they are able to provide learning opportunities that will enhance their competence in the future.

Mark (2002) comments that coaches do not last long in their jobs. The pressure is high and the job expectancy increasingly short. Singh (2001) adds that coaching is a perilous occupation. The worldwide trend of professional coaches who have impressive track records being dismissed because they have failed to produce winning results appears to have infiltrated South African sport. This country has experienced a high turnover of coaches, especially the national soccer coaches (refer to table 3.1) and national rugby coaches (refer to table 3.2, page, 104) in recent years. More and more coaches are being sacked all over the world by clubs impatient for success. In South Africa, the situation is no different. Four domestic soccer coaches departed from their clubs and the season was barely three months old (Mark, 2002). Both soccer and rugby fans and administrators have expressed vociferous concerns about the National team’s poor performance in international competitions and called for the coaches to be “axed”.

Table 3.1 Coach turnover in the South African national soccer team

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>COACH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Stanley Tshabalala and Jeff Butler appointed as National coaches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>Augustus Palacious succeeds both Stanley Tshabalala and Jeff Butler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Clive Barker replaces Augustus Palacious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>Clive Barker resigns. Jomo Sono appointed ‘temporary’ coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Philip Trousier appointed coach of National team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Carlos Queiroz replaces Philip Trousier as National Coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Carlos Queiroz resigns and Jomo Sono appointed as coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Ephraim ‘Shakes’ Mashaba replaces Jomo Sono as coach</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Springbok rugby team also witnessed a high turnover of coaches (8 coaches in 10 years). Table 3.2 (refer to page 104) illustrates the turnover trend in rugby.
Table 3.2 Coach turnover in the South African national rugby team

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>COACH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>John Williams was the national team coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993 - 1995</td>
<td>Ian MacIntoch succeeded John Williams as coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995 - 1996</td>
<td>Kitch Christie replaced Ian MacIntoch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997 - 1998</td>
<td>Andre Markgraaff was the national coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Carel du Plessis became the national coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998 - 2000</td>
<td>Nick Mallet replaced Carel du Plessis as national coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Harry Viljoen became the new national coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002 - current</td>
<td>Rudolph Straueli is the current national coach</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The media however, tends to worsen the situation. A team might win a tournament but the media will still complain that the style of the team was not artistic enough, the team was not imaginative or the players did not attack as often as they should have.

Workers’ perceptions of job insecurity are said to affect a number of economic variables. A study by Manski & Straub (Singh 2001) revealed that job loss tends to decline as age increased, but so do expectations that a subsequent job search would be successful. It was further found that insecurity tended to decline as educational and skill attainment increased. This implies that if coaches’ education and skills were improved job security would increase.

Changing employee expectations (Aghazadeh, 1999) pose several different challenges for HRM professionals. In order to retain good employees and keep them satisfied, these challenges must be successfully met. Organizations need to first identify what their employees need. After needs have been determined, the next goal is to establish a cost-effective plan to provide for the employees’ needs. The human resources professional needs to be aware that the employees’ needs are not static. They are ever changing. They provide benefits based upon what the best particular fit is for the employee. One location may
provide child-care benefits, while another may offer flexible hours or working from their homes.

Aghazadeh (1999) suggests that organizations need to build a better benefits package. Organizations need to look at their total reward package in order to retain their skilled workers to be sure that these programs really add value. They should avoid being too rigid and try to customize benefits suited to the individual employee.

Research on job security in South Africa is fragmentary and anecdotal (Singh, 2001). Relevant information is needed to educate future sport coaches about what is expected of them and whether coaching is a stable and secure job. South Africa’s re-entry into the international arena has resulted in greater interest in sport, which in turn has created a greater need for qualified coaches in all sports. Sport managers need to look at strategies that will make coaching a more stable and secure job.

It is evident from the literature that in order for sport organizations to retain their coaches, sport organizations need to ensure that coaches have a clear sense of the objectives of the organization; an awareness of their role in the organization; the ability, skill and experience to manage their own input; clear guidelines and a degree of authority, power and responsibility. This will prove beneficial to both coaches and the organization, and will contribute not only to the job security of coaches but also to their job satisfaction.

3.4.2.3 Job satisfaction

Today, employees – the human resource – demand more of their jobs and respond favourably to management activities that give them greater control of their lives (Ivancevich, 1998). As a result, the need has arisen in sport organizations to look at the job satisfaction of employees seriously.
According to Dawis & Lofquist (Chelladurai, 1999) job satisfaction is a pleasurable affective condition resulting from one’s appraisal of the way in which the experienced job situation meets one’s needs, values and expectations. Arnold and Feldman (1988) on the other hand describe job satisfaction as the amount of overall positive feelings that individuals have about their job experiences. Furthermore, job satisfaction is multifaceted and subsumes factors such as salary, security, achievement and challenge.

Job satisfaction is of great significance at three levels (Chelladurai, 1999), namely the humanitarian level, the economic level and the theoretical level. At the humanitarian level, the sports coaches are concerned with the welfare, achievements and performances of their athletes since there is evidence that job satisfaction is related to life satisfaction. Sports coaches are interested in job satisfaction at the economic level since increased satisfaction with the job may lead to increased enthusiasm, increased motivation and fewer work-related accidents. At the theoretical level, job satisfaction is viewed as a direct cause of increased work performance and co-operation.

Job satisfaction can also be looked at from a client’s perspective. An important reason to look at job satisfaction from this perspective is that most clients engage in sport and physical activity for their own enjoyment and well-being. They are viewed as partial employees of the sport organization, therefore their feelings about their involvement and the organizational process facilitating their involvement are critical measures of the effectiveness of the organization.

Job dissatisfaction, on the other hand, is categorized by Beach (Singh, 2001) as: nature of work, job insecurity, interpersonal relations, upward mobility and status. Although these categories are major reasons for job dissatisfaction in general human resources management, they are also applicable to the sport industry since professional coaches are paid employees.
Flexibility in human resources management is important as it enables human resources managers to react to and address employee expectations. According to Lipiec (2001) two kinds of flexibility exist, namely, internal and external. Internal flexibility facilitates reducing lack of motivation, absenteeism and change reluctance, while external flexibility takes into account macro-economic changes by addressing redeployment aspects, adjusting the workforce during economic fluctuations and tying remuneration with performance and competencies.

Watt (1998) is of the opinion that people in sport are very motivated. The reasons he cites for this motivation include status, recognition, personal achievement, personal interest and financial gain. In order to achieve improved human performance it is necessary to create, initiate, maintain or coach individual or group motivation. There are several theories of human motivation. The general paradigms for these theories are based on needs. The need-based theories are also called content theories as they indicate what factors (that is, personal factors such as individual needs, or organizational factors such as the tasks and rewards) motivate individuals to engage in specific behaviour. These theories can assist a sport manager in understanding the complexities of human behaviour as well as offering an insight into the appropriateness of the theories and their concepts to specific situations. For instance, when a coach is unhappy about the nature of his/her job, the content of the job is in question. Maslow’s and Herzberg’s content of motivation theories are more relevant in addressing the issue.

Maslow proposed five categories of needs in order of importance: physiological needs, safety and security needs, love and social needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs (Griffin, 1990). The thinking of Herzberg (Watt, 1998), on the other hand, is that individuals have to be maintained in a relatively comfortable environment in terms of safety, security and status, and be developed through achievement, recognition and advancement. The value of Maslow’s Theory for
sport managers is that it emphasizes people’s needs and allows sport managers to work towards providing the employee the means to satisfy these needs and be more productive. Maslow’s Theory is of great value in a general sense but does not apply universally to all people at all times. Current studies (Bridges & Roquemore, 1996) demonstrate that lower level needs (physiological, survival, safety and security) may be in sequential order, but beyond that, people may be motivated separately or simultaneously by several needs which are not in the order of Maslow’s Hierarchy.

Human wants must be recognized at all levels and individual desires must be realized. It is important that sport managers must understand that individuals look for fair treatment and opportunities to advance and that financial gain isn’t the only motivator. It may be an incentive but not the crucial motivator that many individuals are driven by. Self-esteem and recognition are as important as financial gain. In fact, in many instances, the appeal of sport is so strong that many individuals are willing to work long hours with low pay and under trying conditions (Abney & Parks, 1998).

In sport organizations, it is difficult to relate job satisfaction to sport and recreation clients as the description of client satisfaction normally relates to a product that a client has purchased or consumed. In sport organizations the ‘product’ that is normally purchased or consumed is a service provided by the sport organization (Chelladurai, 1999).

It must be the job of HR to build values and practices supporting continuous, incremental improvement in the quality of employees’ lives throughout the organization (Bowen et al., 1992).

For employees to make a valuable contribution to an organization, they must feel that the job is right for their abilities and that they are treated equitably. Since
most employees spend the majority of their waking hours at work, the job becomes a major source of personal identity (Ivancevich, 1998).

In sport organizations, it has been clearly identified (Watt, 1998) that people will be satisfied in their professions and their commitment and effort will be increased if they obtain a sense of achievement by what they are doing and have some responsibility. Similarly, if their efforts are recognized and they have a feeling of personal and career achievement or face some type of challenge, they will feel fulfilled and will perceive their work as interesting and worthwhile.

The professional coach is normally driven by the desire to excel and achieve his/her personal best and the highest standard of performance. Achievement of the highest standard of performance should lead to excellent results. Excellent results lead to recognition and this in turn should lead to the job satisfaction of the coach.

It is not necessarily true that satisfied employees are automatically more productive, but unsatisfied employees do tend to quit more often, be absent more frequently and produce lower quality work than satisfied workers.

3.4.3 Training and developing human resources

The training and development of employees is any attempt to improve the current or future employee performance by increasing an employee’s ability to perform through learning by changing his/her skills and knowledge (Schuler, 1983). Training can have a ripple effect on an employee. It can increase his/her job security and job satisfaction, and impact on the compensation that the individual receives.
3.4.3.1 Training

Training is a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge or skill behaviour through learning experience to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities (Cushway, 1999). According to Gomez-Mejia et al. (1988) it focuses on providing employees with specific skills or helping them correct deficiencies in their performance. For example, if a sports coach who may be an expert in his/her code of sport lacks teaching or communication skills, training can be used to correct the skill deficit. Bowen et al. (1992), however, are of the opinion that training covers problem solving techniques, problem analysis, statistical process control and quality measurement – a reach that goes far beyond specific job skills.

Effective training is a crucial element of effective performance. The most difficult aspect of training is changing attitudes and behaviour, compared to which improvements in knowledge and skills are relatively straightforward to attain and measure (Cushway, 1999). The main reason for training (Cushway, 1999) is for the organization to ensure that it achieves the best possible return from its investment in its most important resource, namely, its employees. Training is used to develop individual skills and abilities to improve job performance and to familiarise employees with new systems, procedures and methods of working. Helping existing and new employees in becoming familiar with requirements of a particular job and of the organization and furthering the fit between the individual and the organization, can also be seen as part of the training (Chelladurai, 1999).

Sport coaches, like business managers, perform several functions (Fizel & D’itri, 1996) that are critical to the performance of their organization (refer to figure 3.8, page 112). For a sport organization to be successful, its coaches need to be taught the basics skills of teaching, communication, motivation and supervision. The coach’s role has evolved over recent years. Many sport organizations have come to see sport as a means of generating revenues. As a result, the coach is
called upon to perform different functions. At one level, the coach is a manager whose task it is to plan, organize, direct and control the activities of his/her charges towards the concrete objective of winning. Here the coach becomes charged with the responsibility of not only selecting the talented players but of also motivating such players to display their peak performance. On another level the coach is an educator. As an educator, a coach is required to socialise youth into knowledge, skills, beliefs, attitudes, and thought processes that enhance survival in an increasingly scientific and technological society (Watson & Tharpe, 1990). In this role, coaches are required to transmit to their athlete students a body of knowledge and skills as well as a related set of processes. While all educational objectives are distributed between the cognitive, affective and psycho-motor domains, the coaching task involves the acquisition of psycho-motor skills to a much greater degree from coaches than from educators in other fields (Watson & Tharpe, 1990). Therefore, existing skills need to be developed and an understanding of strategic considerations that can improve performance needs to be fostered. Each game or event requires a coach to devise game plans for different opponents, monitor and adapt to changes made by the rival coach, to organize and re-organize substitution patterns and to address unexpected occurrences such as player injuries (Fizel & D’itri, 1996). As an efficient coach is expected to perform these managerial functions, s/he needs to be adequately trained in these critical areas.
Figure 3.8 Roles of a professional coach

Coaching science has developed largely along scientific lines with emphasis on the principles that underpin the physiological, psychological, technical and tactical development of the athlete (Potrac et al., 2000). The impression that is created with the scientific approach is that coaches are merely technicians in the transfer of knowledge. Aronowitz and Giroux (Potrac et al., 2000) argue that coaches, far from being merely technicians need to be educated as intellectuals with cognitive and social skills and values. It is further advocated that coach education should focus on the problems and realities of human interaction since coaching does not exist in a sanitized classroom environment. It is therefore important that when coach education programs are developed, the temptation of
teaching and applying ready-made knowledge should be avoided since this oversimplifies the understanding of coaching and various goals that coaches may have. Locke (Potrac et al., 2000) comments that the present 'smorgasbord of disconnected facts and experiences' presented to prospective coaches may not be the most effective way to produce consistent excellence in such a complex area of human relations.

The need for training

Market paradigms require employees to be numerate and well educated (Lipiec, 2001). As a result, appropriate training and retraining may be indispensable in assisting the employee to acquire new skills and gain experience. The idea that hiring an “average” person and expecting him/her to become a high performer via self-training, is fast becoming a thing of the past (Taylor & Kleiner, 2000). Employee competencies must be redefined in the face of the emerging paradigms that force sport organizations to be leaders in their field. The focus should be on the quality of products, technological changes, good customer service and low operational costs (Lipiec, 2001). The rapidly changing nature of many sport organizations has resulted in training becoming an increasingly important means of getting and retaining competitive advantage (Slack, 1997). Many sport organizations, which were once amateur-focused, have become professional-focused. Also, many sport organizations have changed from non-profit to profit organizations resulting in the need for more competent employees. The appetite for vocational training and educational opportunities, by both organizations and individuals is pervasive. This is intensified by the increasing emphasis on individuals taking responsibility for their own career development (Cornelius, 2001).

Before the human resources staff of a sport organization can plan and administer appropriate training, they must ascertain the need for training in their organization. Training needs can be established through observation of individual
employee performance or overall organizational performance (Bridges & Roquemore, 1996). According to Schuler and Jackson (Huang, 2001), sport organizations require employees to possess specific skills, knowledge, and abilities needed to implement their competitive strategies, and that development of the desired behaviour and abilities depends on the design and implementation of specific training methods. Training can occur at three levels: the organizational level (where a new strategy, market, or type of technology necessitate that employees acquire new and different skills), the job level (where a specific task may change and as a result, employees have to be trained in appropriate skills to handle the job) and the individual level (where the employee may need certain type of skills to perform their job adequately or to help them move up the career ladder) (Slack, 1997). With regard to sport coaches, if at the organizational level the organization decides to penetrate new markets like international competition, it needs to train the sports coach to cope with the demands associated with international competition. At the job level, for example, should the organization need the coach to recruit new athletes, the coach has to be trained in that regard. On the individual level, an assistant coach can be trained so that s/he may one day fill the position of the head coach.

The main goal of training is to remove performance deficiencies, whether current or anticipated, that are the result of the employee’s inability to perform at a desired level (Schuler, 1983). As the pace of technological change is accelerating rapidly, sport organizations must be able to anticipate the training needs for sports coaches in the future. Coaches may have to rely to a greater extent on video analysis in the future to coach their athletes. They may therefore have to be trained in the use of video analysis.

The need for training has come about because there is a need to ensure the continual flow of suitable coaches to help produce the top performing athletes of the future, as well as to introduce new participants to the benefits and joys of their particular sport. In the past, the element of administration had been missing
from coach education despite the fact that nearly all coaches were involved in some form of administration or other. According to Watt (1998), it often seems that the more involved coaches get, the less coaching they do as more organizational demands are placed on them.

The profession of sport management needs people who come from a practical background with additional training (Watt, 1998). The need for training is often identified regardless of whether a person already possesses a qualification. Training can provide specific skills, knowledge and expertise that will not come from any academic course but will still be essential. For example, a coach may have a formal qualification in coaching but may not be able to counsel his/her athletes. The structure of a sport organization can affect the need for training. A sport organization that pushes decision-making down its hierarchy is more likely to emphasize staff training where decisions are centralized. Likewise, in an organization that promotes people from within, training is seen as a way of preparing future managers (Slack, 1997). Therefore consideration should be given to the practicalities that face people working in sport and how they are going to cope with them. This can be done through progressive and well-established training programmes.

One of the ways the above-mentioned skills can be developed is through the introduction of a structured apprenticeship programme in coaching. This will give the coach the opportunity to ‘model the master’ and thus consolidate the fundamental processes of coaching. Mentor coaches will also benefit from the insight that would come from teaching others their craft and through the additional incentive to further their own knowledge (Launder, 1995).
The function of training

Training programs can develop three types of skills; namely technical skills, interpersonal skills and problem-solving skills (refer to figure 3.9, page 117). Technical skills are most frequently focused upon and are more common to lower level employees and sport managers (Quarteman & Li, 1998) as these employees spend most of their time with equipment or are directing non-managerial staff. Interpersonal skills are important as most sports coaches in sport organizations work in some type of group and success depends on the ability of the group to work together. While it is important that coaches be well versed in the effects of exercise, exercise prescription, nutrition and technique, they should also be cordial in their interactions with athletes (Hata & Umezawa, 1995). Examples of interpersonal skills are listening skills, communication techniques and understanding group dynamics. Problem-solving skills are frequently required in sport organizations given the fact that work in sport organizations is of a non-routine nature. Problem-solving ability of employees often involve logic and reasoning skills, working to define problems and what causes them, and developing and analyzing courses of action for dealing with problems (Slack, 1997). In sport organizations professional coaches sometimes need to make complex decisions which impact on skills such as decision making skills, teamwork skills as well as time and resources management skills (Bowen et al., 1992).
Sport organizations are primarily in the business of providing services. One of the services that the sport organization provides is coaching. The clients of the services that are provided by the sport organization include athletes, spectators and the media. According to Humphrey & Ashworth (Chelladurai, 1999) two types of knowledge in the development of a service worker (coach) are necessary for effective service encounters, namely, script and categorical. The script knowledge encounter refers to a coach’s expectation of a series of
coherently organized events in a successful service encounter and for the alternative courses of action available for every event whilst categorical knowledge structures refer to an understanding of the different types of clients with specific needs and wants and of personal characteristics. Gronroos (Chelladurai, 1999) stated that human resources management should focus on developing a holistic view of service organizations, developing skills concerning how various tasks are to be performed and developing communication and service skills.

In the context of sport, the training on categorical knowledge emphasizes the distinction among various classes of customers and their motives for participation whilst the script knowledge entails training in the technical skills needed to provide the service, such as techniques and strategies of coaching (Chelladurai, 1999).

Research in the USA (Redman & Mathews, 1998) found the most common forms of training content in order of frequency to be: interpersonal skills; quality improvement process and problem solving; teamwork; arranging and attending meetings; statistical analysis; supplier training and benchmarking. Redman & Mathews (1998) further comment that the extent of quality related training in areas such as teamwork processes and interpersonal skills will be positively related to increased levels of customer perceived service quality.

**Training: controlling bodies**

In South Africa the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act (Act 58 of 1995) was assented to by President Mandela in September 1995 to oversee the development of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). This was achieved by formulating and publishing policies and criteria for the registration of bodies responsible for establishing education and training standards or qualifications. The accreditation of bodies responsible for monitoring and auditing achievements
in terms of such standards and qualifications was also developed, as well as the implementation of the NQF by ensuring the registration, accreditation and assignment of functions to the bodies referred to above. The registration of national standards on the framework was also part of the development.

The National Qualifications Framework (NQF) is a system of assuring and continually re-assuring learners and other users of the education and training system that credits, awards or certificates issued during the learning process adhere to the standard registered on the framework. It also ensures that all forms of provision deliver learning to the same standards for accreditation purposes. It ensures an integrated system that encourages life-long learning. This implies that the NQF facilitates access to, and mobility and progression within education, training and career paths. It is also responsible for accelerating the redress of past unfair discrimination in education, training and employment opportunities thereby contributing to the full personal development of each learner and the social and economic development of the nation at large. This implies that a qualification that a coach achieves will be recognized throughout South Africa and if the coach wants to continue with his/her training it would possible to do so anywhere in the country where it is offered.

The SAQA Act (Act 58 of 1995) clearly articulates the need for the South African Qualifications Authority to do its work in a spirit of consultation and co-operation. This indicates the commitment of the government to the principles of representation and participation of all relevant stakeholders in society’s institutions. This approach differs from that of the past when learning programmes were constructed by so-called experts in the field, usually academics rooted in formal institutions of learning with little or no consultation with the users of the qualifications, although sport federations also developed and provided coaching and technical officiating programmes of their own. The former approach came in for a great deal of criticism as what was taught in formal institutions and what was required in the working world differed
significantly. At formal institutions the focus was on theory and academic performance while the working world had a need for individuals with practical knowledge. Furthermore, there was little formal consultation between previous ministries of Education and Manpower, and between providers of formal education and providers of training. This meant that there was no means to align learning across different service providers. As a result, qualifications remained sectorally based, geographically based or institution-based with little formal articulation between the learning areas.

The National Standards Bodies (NSB) defines and recommends the boundaries of the field to South African Qualifications Authority, recognizes or establishes Standard Generating Bodies (SGB) within the framework of the fields and ensures that the work of the SGB’s meet SAQA requirements (SAQA, 1995).

The SGB’s are responsible for generating standards and qualifications in accordance to SAQA requirements, updating and reviewing standards, recommending standards and qualifications to NSB’s as well as recommending criteria for the registration of assessors and moderators (SAQA. 1995).

The Tourism, Hospitality, Sport Education and Training Authority (THETA) is the Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA) established under the Skills Development Act (Act 97 of 1998) for the Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Economic Sector. The Sport, Recreation and Fitness chamber of THETA comprises, among others, sporting events and the activities of sportspeople, sponsors, athletes, judges, umpires, teachers, coaches, coaching conditioners and administrators. Its operations focus on providing excellent, responsive skills development services to the industry sector in general and its constituent employers and employees in particular. This is achieved by developing sector skills plans in the framework of the national skills development strategy and implementing them by learnerships, approving workplace skills plans, allocating grants to employers, providers and workers, and monitoring education and
training provision. It also co-operates with the National Skills Authority and other SETA’s on skills development policy and strategy, and on inter-sectoral education and training provision.

Currently there is no national coaching structure in SA. One of the ways in which Education and Training with regard to sports coaching was addressed in sport organizations in South Africa in the past was by the introduction of the Protea Mmuso programme (figure 3.10), which was part of a bigger sport development programme initiated by the National Sports Council of South Africa (NSC). It was aimed at training coaches, administrators and technical officials (Singh, 2002).

The Protea Mmuso program has created a meaningful framework that has both depth and structure for sport in South Africa. At the Sports Leader Level (SL), the training program provides information on all three components: coaching,
technical officiating and administration as most people involved at this level will tend to do a little of each. A sports leader’s course, for example, includes running sports sessions and offering some basic instruction (coaching), planning and running a small tournament (administration) and officiating (technical officials). In the coaching and technical officiating components, a short specific course is offered to help teach the fundamental skills of the sport and to introduce and apply the rules. At the higher levels, the roles become increasingly specialized, thus the training programmes are run separately by Federations to develop expert skills and knowledge required. The Protea Mmuso program no longer exists in its original form. It has been taken over by the South African Sports Commission and repositioned on the NQF. The SASC is currently liaising with SAQA with regard to quality assurance concerning the courses. The new national coaching structure is expected to be in place by March 2004 (information supplied by SASC).

Currently most of the sport federations have their own coaching associations. Many of the sport federations have developed and provided their own coaching and technical officiating qualifications and short courses. The weakness of this approach is that these qualifications are mostly recognized by the federation that developed it and not by any other federation or internationally.

It is therefore important that a national coach Education and Training system is constructed through a process of participation and negotiation between the stakeholders and relevant authorities. This will not only meet the needs of all stakeholders but also enjoy greater legitimacy and credibility in the society within which it operates than would otherwise be the case.

It is important that training is seen as an on-going process that does not just relate to individual skills or short-term development, but rather as a first step that leads to the development of skilled and well-motivated workers.
3.4.3.2 Development

Development is an effort to provide employees with the abilities that an organization will need in the future (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1988). It refers to learning opportunities designed to help employees grow (Bernadin & Russel, 1993).

Madden and Mitchell (Jones & Fear, 1994) define development as the maintenance and enhancement of the knowledge, expertise and competence (refer to figure 3.11) of professionals throughout their careers according to a plan formulated with regard to the needs of the professional, the employer, the profession and society. It includes everything that has the effect of developing the professional individual in the course of their career. It is an activity that helps to maintain and improve professional competence and to promote effective performance at work. The aim of effective development is to provide a profession where members are fully trained and competent to perform the tasks expected of them throughout their careers.

![Figure 3.11 Development](image)
Thus the concept of continuing professional development (CPD) is becoming increasingly recognized by organizations as essential for ensuring that their members remain up to date and maintain professional competence (Jones & Fear, 1994). The number of organizations that have a continuing development policy appears to be steadily increasing.

The concept of CPD cannot be divorced from the requirement to ensure that activities that are undertaken are consistent with strategic and operational business plans. A major change that has occurred in management training is that such training now has to be justified in terms of organizational benefits. Organizations seek to ensure that management development is driven by the needs of the organization. Bently (Jones & Fear, 1994) argues that continuing professional development represents an investment in performance. This implies that if sport organizations promote the concept of CPD within the organization, the results and achievements are bound to improve.

Development differs from training (refer to table 3.3, page 125). In training the focus is on the current job. In development the focus is on both the current job and jobs that the employee will hold in the future. The scope of training is on an individual employee, while the scope of development is on the entire work group or organization. Training is job specific and addresses certain performance deficits or problems while development is concerned with the work force’s skills and versatility. Training focuses on immediate organizational needs while development focuses on long term requirements. The goal of training is fairly quick improvement in the workers performance while the goal of development is the overall enrichment of the organization’s human resources (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1988).
Table 3.3. Training vs Development (Source: Gomez-Mejia et al., 1988: 237)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TRAINING</th>
<th>DEVELOPMENT</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FOCUS</td>
<td>CURRENT JOB</td>
<td>CURRENT AND FUTURE JOBS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCOPE</td>
<td>INDIVIDUAL EMPLOYEES</td>
<td>WORK GROUP OR ORGANIZATION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIME FRAME</td>
<td>IMMEDIATE</td>
<td>LONG TERM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOAL</td>
<td>FIX CURRENT SKILL DEFICIT</td>
<td>PREPARE FOR FUTURE WORK DEMANDS</td>
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</table>

Many coach education schemes place very little significance on developing administrative and organizational ability (Watt, 1998). The result is that many coaches are stressed and pressurized in their jobs. Many sport managers harbour the perception that it is the duty of the coach to perform a variety of roles although they are not trained to perform these specific roles. This demotivates the coaches and makes them feel inadequate. The Protea Mmuso programme (refer to figure 3.10, page 121), for example, was aimed at giving coaches the added skills that they required without detracting from the quality of coach education and development directed specifically at the coaching tasks that they are required to perform.

The Skills Development Act (Act 97 of 1998) provides an institutional framework to devise and implement national, sector and workplace strategies; to develop and improve the skills of the South African workforce; to integrate those strategies within the NQF contemplated in the SAQA Act (Act 58 of 1995); to provide for learnerships that lead to recognised occupational qualifications; to provide for the financing of skills development by means of a levy grant scheme and a National Skills Fund and to provide for and regulate employment services.

The purpose of the Skills Development Act (Act 97 of 1998), amongst others, is to develop the skills of the workforce by improving the quality of life of workers, to improve productivity in the workplace and the competitiveness of employers and to promote self-employment. In many instances professional sports coaches are
self-employed. It also encourages employers to use the workplace as an active learning environment and to provide employees with the opportunities to gain new skills as well as to encourage workers to participate in learnerships and other training programmes. This implies that it might not be necessary in all instances to attend an educational institution to further one’s education and training.

An effective sport organization will develop individuals if they feel that their personal development is valued and seen as crucial to the organization. Watt (1998) states that employees in the organization must be seen as worthy of training and development for their own benefit as well as for the organization. Performance appraisal can assist in developing training and development programmes.

3.4.4 Appraising human resources

The overall assessment and control of employee work activity is just as important as the control of inventories, production output, quality of products, and expenditure of money (Bridges & Roquemore, 1996). The appraisal of employee performance is basic to human resources management systems and often directs the organization’s future (Barber & Eckrich, 1998; Chelladurai, 1999; MacLean & Zakrajsek, 1996). It is therefore a necessary process for all jobs, regardless of level or complexity. It is very important to first define performance by giving substance to the specific criteria needed in the appraisal process as there is very little value in accurately measuring the job performance of an individual if the criteria measured are unrelated to the job. Performance (MacLean, 2001: 6) can be described “as the activities or behaviours of workers completing tasks associated with a job”. There should be a link between what is expected in the job and the criteria used to evaluate the individual doing the job.
In a sport organization the assessment of the employee’s work is unique. This is because the context of the sport setting and the impact it has for the management and evaluation of personnel is unique (MacLean, 2001). A sport organization, for example, is different from an organization that builds blocks and has a workforce that is solely focused on the production and sales of blocks. Sport organizations are often very diverse in the services or products they deliver, thus they employ a diverse workforce. As a result, it is clear that many differences exist among the jobs performed within the sport organization. These variables have caused sport organizations to lag behind in the development of effective employee performance appraisal (MacLean, 2001).

3.4.4.1 Performance appraisal

Schuler (1983: 275) defines performance appraisal as “a formal measured system of measuring and evaluating an employee’s job-related behaviours and outcomes in order to discover how and why the employee is presently performing. It also defines how the employee can perform more effectively in the future so that the employee, the organization and society will all benefit”. Chelladurai (1999), however comments that an employee’s domain of performance includes both the job-specific task as well as non-job-specific task (refer to figure 3.12, page 128). The job-specific task performance will include written and oral communication, supervision and leadership, and management and administration whilst the non-job-specific task performance will include effort, personal discipline, and involvement in and the facilitation of peer and workgroup tasks. This therefore implies that both the job specific tasks as well as the non-job specific tasks are to be appraised during performance appraisal. The job of the professional coach at sport organizations encompasses both job-specific as well as non-job-specific tasks. For example, for a professional coach the criteria associated with the job might include items such as game preparation, teaching techniques used at practice and motivation of athletes. It could also include the outcome of behaviours associated with winning games and silverware and the
The coach’s level of achievement could be determined by comparing such criteria to other coaches’ performance or to a certain standard of performance. This may result in the performance appraisal of the coach being more difficult and complicated.

**Figure 3.12 Performance appraisal**

After defining the nature (tasks) and level (competency needed to perform the tasks) of the job, specifications for performance can be outlined. The key questions that need to be asked are what the expectations are for the performance to be appraised, and what can be clearly observed. Describing the performance behaviour for each task can be categorized in terms of knowledge (the part of the job that is based on understanding, awareness and familiarity), skill (expertise and proficiency necessary to perform the task) and abilities...
(performance under various conditions) (refer to figure 3.12, page 128). The specifications for performance form the basis for performance appraisal.

The primary question of performance appraisal is whether the employee does what is expected of him. The secondary question is whether the employee performed at an acceptable quality level (Clifford, 1994). Studies have shown that employees’ attitudes toward the performance evaluation process are positively related to the degree to which they understand the process (Dulebohn, 1998).

According to MacLean & Zakrajsek (1996) jobs are created to fulfil specific purposes in the framework of organizational objectives. For example, the coach’s duty at sport organizations may be to select, motivate and prepare athletes for competitions. The responsibilities associated with the job define the job description, which becomes the focus of performance appraisal. Many authors (MacLean & Zakrajsek, 1996) have urged the need to link job description to performance appraisal since, historically, the practice of aligning evaluation with actual job requirements has been problematic. Although job-specific performance appraisal is broadly recognized as an essential component for valid evaluation, Murphy & Cleveland (MacLean & Zakrajsek, 1996) argue that, in addition to the job description, contextual factors of the environment ranging from the social and legal system to the climate and culture within the organization should also be considered.

Chelladurai (1999) adds that every job is characterized by core and peripheral elements. For performance appraisal to be effective, all the core components need to be included in the evaluation. According to Cornelius (2001), the key performance areas that are appraised during performance appraisals should be specific in terms of the aspect of work performance to which they relate, measurable in terms of quantity and quality, achievable within other work
constraints, relevant to the aims and objectives of the organization and time constraints.

Studies undertaken by MacLean & Chelladurai (1995) identified six dimensions in the scale of coaching performance to reflect both outcomes and the processes associated with sport coaching. These dimensions are not only applicable in the context of coaching but are generally transferable to many other positions in sport management. The dimensions and operational definitions are illustrated in Table 3.4.

**Table 3.4 Operational definitions of the scale of coaching performance (Adapted from Chelladurai, 1999: 191)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DIMENSION</th>
<th>OPERATIONAL DEFINITION</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Team products</td>
<td>Outcomes of coaching that accrue only to the team or individual athletes comprising it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Personal products</td>
<td>Outcomes of coaching that accrue only to the coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Direct task behaviours</td>
<td>Application of interpersonal skills and appropriate strategies and tactics in enhancing the performance of individual athletes and the team as a whole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Indirect task behaviours</td>
<td>Activities such as recruiting, scouting, application of statistics that contribute indirectly to the success of the programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Administrative task behaviours</td>
<td>Adherence to policies, procedures, budget guidelines and interpersonal relations with superiors and peers that strengthen the administration of the whole enterprise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Public relations behaviours</td>
<td>Liaison activities between employees’ program and relevant community and peer groups</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident from the dimensions described that the evaluation/performance appraisal of professional sport coaches extends beyond the job description of coaches, which may prove successful in other job situations. Although direct task behaviours were rated the most important evaluation criteria and classification in support of the need for job-specific performance criteria, the other dimensions were not far divorced from the direct task behaviour criteria. In fact, both sport managers and coaches held almost corresponding beliefs about criteria important for evaluating coaching performance.
MacLean & Zakrajsek (1996) questioned the importance of the dimensions in a follow-up study. This study revealed that whilst human resources managers and coaches differed to some degree, they were in agreement on the most important dimension: direct task behaviours (Barber & Eckrich, 1998). The study therefore shows that there is common ground between human resources managers and coaches with regard to performance appraisal.

3.4.4.2 Purposes of performance appraisal

Performance appraisal is central to human resources management. It provides a diagnostic tool for organizational problems as well as quality control (Barber & Eckrich, 1998; Chelladurai, 1999). It contributes to getting improved results from the organization, departments, work teams and individuals by understanding and managing performance within an agreed framework (Cornelius, 2001).

The performance of the coach in a sport organization has to be appraised for three basic reasons. Firstly, the ultimate success of an organization is dependent on the quality and performance of its personnel. Although the success of a sport organization is dependent on many factors, it is the personnel who guide, define and implement operations that are the most important factors in the system. Secondly, it is not possible to manage an organization effectively without reliable information about employees’ work performance since such information serves to maintain control of current operations and help guide future planning. Thirdly, sport organizations need performance appraisals as they are consumer-oriented organizations and because their consumers deserve quality (MacLean, 2001).

Furthermore, performance appraisal determines the extent to which the employee is contributing to the overall goals and objectives of the sport organization. This assists the human resources managers in giving feedback to subordinates so that they know where they stand in terms of their performance
relative to what is expected and to the performance of other people in similar
groups (Maclean, 2001; Swanepoel et al., 2003). For example, if a sport
organization’s objective is to prepare athletes for international competitions, the
number of athletes that a coach is able to prepare in a season is indicative of his/
her contribution to the overall goals of the organization.

More specifically, performance appraisal contributes to enhancing the
effectiveness and efficiency of sport organizations by guiding management in
developing valid data for compensation, promotion decisions (refer to figure 3.12,
page 128) and other forms of reward (Slack, 1997; Swanepoel et al., 2003). For
example, in a sport organization the reward structure for a coach can be based
on the number of wins that the coach is able to achieve or the overall position
that the team achieves in a league.

It is also instrumental in identifying employees who are not performing to the
required standard and either removing them from the organization, disciplining
them, providing training for them or providing a means of warning them about
unsatisfactory performance (Slack, 1997).

In addition to assisting the human resources manager to validate the recruitment
and selection criteria used in the initial hiring process, performance appraisal
also assists in identifying the type of training programs needed in the sport
organization. For instance, a professional coach may have the expertise in a
given code of sport but lacks communication skills. The organization can, after
identifying the weakness in the coach, focus on improving the communication
skills of the coach.

Performance appraisal can help develop employees by providing feedback to
employees to assist them with career decisions and professional growth (Barber
& Eckrich, 1998; Slack, 1997). It also provides valuable assistance to human
resources managers with regard to supervising and developing staff (Cornelius,
2001) as well as to counsel and coach subordinates so that they improve their performance and develop their future potential (Chelladurai, 1999). If for instance organizations use only the professional sports coach’s win/loss record as a measure of the coach’s potential, whilst ignoring other factors like the players and facilities, the chances of developing the coach’s potential is diminished.

Both Chelladurai (1999) and Cornelius (2001) are in agreement that performance appraisal can lead to better information exchange and more open communication between employee and manager. It can help significantly to clarify organizational, managerial and employee expectations and highlight actual and potential shortfalls in performance as well as to strengthen manager/employee relations. Through this strengthened relationship commitment to the organization is developed. Employees also benefit through a discussion of career opportunity and career planning. This support helps motivate employees to contribute unselfishly to the organization.

3.4.4.3 Problems associated with performance appraisal

While the importance of evaluation to management is unquestioned, the principles and methods associated with evaluation have undergone continual scrutiny (Barber & Eckrich, 1998). Human resources managers should have an understanding of the type of errors that occur during performance appraisal and guard against them. Human resources managers should also be aware that there is not a single performance appraisal technique that is not subject to some limitations (Swanepoel et al., 2003).

Human resources managers need to be cautious about possible errors in performance appraisal that may be distributional in nature. Being too lenient or strict, or placing every performance in the central range, are some of the pitfalls. Basing the evaluation of an employee in relation to the previous employee evaluated instead of in comparison to the standards of the job is another
(Chelladurai, 1999). Furthermore, human resources managers should guard against a tendency to attribute failure to the coach and success to the situation, or to rate coaches similar to themselves higher than others (MacLean, 2001). Human resources managers should also guard against ignoring individual differences and generalizing findings across all groups of employees.

Most studies (Ferris, 1999) have only questioned the extent to which organizations utilize formal performance appraisals. This is because the use of formal performance appraisals can mean very different things in different HRM systems. For instance: Are the performance appraisals developmental in nature? Do they include co-worker or customer input? Are forced rankings used? Are appraisals reflective of traditional subjective supervisory ratings? Certainly, the type of appraisal most conducive to achieving the organizational goals would vary across organizational contexts. The generic performance appraisal in relation to the amount of information it conveys, is therefore limited. More definitive constructs would provide richer information and insight into the effectiveness of these practices and their appropriateness would provide variance to organizational goals.

Coaching evaluation systems that have been generally proposed were generic in nature (Leland, 1988). They focused on the coach’s ability to teach skills and strategy, communicate effectively and motivate (Barber & Eckrich, 1998). Swan (1991) cites the most common problems with performance appraisal as: inadequately defined performance standards and criteria; misunderstanding regarding performance standards and criteria; lack of proper performance appraisal documentation; human resources managers relying on their instincts about the coach and an absence of post appraisal discussion and follow-up.

The responsibilities of professional coaches are also dependent on the sport organizations priorities, which may be affected by the ability of a program to generate revenue. It is therefore important for sport managers to identify criteria
which professional sport coaches will be held responsible for and provide the necessary support and resources for them to be successful in attaining them. Coaches also need to be aware of the criteria and process of evaluation.

There are some researchers who reject performance appraisal. Deming (Redman & Mathews, 1998) maintains that performance appraisal is inconsistent with quality improvement. He argues that variation in performance is attributable mainly to work systems rather than variations in the performance of individual workers. Improvements in service provision were thus found mainly by changing processes rather than people. Deming (Redman & Mathews, 1998) claims that to develop teamwork where the focus is on blaming the individual (as in traditional appraisal) in a climate of fear and risk avoidance is difficult. This is also a concern for short-term, individual targets, which undermine co-operation and creative and committed behaviour. He argues further that not all staff performs equally well, but that appraisers are incapable of desegregating systems-effects from individual staff-effects. Deming (Bowen et al., 1992) argues that most service quality problems are the products of systems and processes. The focus on individuals is therefore counterproductive in that it diverts attention from the primary causes of poor quality. Watt (1998), on the other hand, suggests that the process of performance appraisal in itself will lead to increased performance and can improve staff morale. He is of the opinion that through such a process, staff will feel that they are being taken seriously and that management is endeavouring to assess and improve their training needs. The process is seen as a supportive and job-strengthening intent.

While it has been recognised that the coaching process is vulnerable to the different social pressures, the humanistic nature of the coaching process remains a little understood and un-researched area (Potrac et al., 2000). For example, in many professional codes of sport, management makes funds available to facilitate the transfer of quality players to their organization. As a result, the teams perform well and the coach is seen as competent. Sport organizations that
do not have sound financial backing are unable to acquire quality players. The result is that the coach, who may be competent, has to do the best with the resources available to him/her. If the core criterion were results, the coach with poorer results would be seen as inferior. It would not necessarily be a true reflection of the coach’s ability or performance.

It is inevitable that the question of how you would rate the performance of the coach would result in answers that may generate disputes. This is because each party to the game, that is, the fans, the media, the sport analyst, the administrators and the players come to the game with different expectations of the coach.

From the literature it is evident that the appraisal of coaches’ performances is both difficult and controversial. Many organizations use the win/loss record of coaches to assess the performance of the coach. This approach is flawed in that it only looks at the outputs of the coach, ignores the efforts that the coach puts into his/ her coaching, or the talents of the athletes/players and the strength of the opponents. There are a myriad of factors besides winning and losing that contribute to successful coaching performance (MacLean, 2001). A loss may result from poor coaching, but it may also result from circumstances outside the coach’s control, such as injuries, a close call by the referee, inclement weather or just a bad bounce of the ball. It should also be borne in mind that for every winner, there has to be a loser. Winning or losing in itself cannot act as an indicator to determine the success of a coach. Consequently, it is imperative that sport organizations increase the criteria used to evaluate the performance of the coach.
3.5 CONCLUSION

The management of human resources is an important function in a sport organization. This is because the source of all quality is the human resource engaged in the production of goods and services. Most sport organizations produce services, therefore the management of human resources is a critical concern of sport managers. This view holds particularly true for services, one of which is professional sport coaching, in which production and consumption takes place as an interface between clients and employees who are the human resources of the organization.

Sport organizations today are facing a level of competition that they have not experienced before. Globalization, increased demands to deliver a better quality of life, complying with legislation and the demands of winning are a few of the factors that have contributed to this. At the heart of these factors are the human resources – the people who contribute to the success of the sport organization. Sport organizations that manage their human resources more effectively and efficiently than other sport organizations are more likely to achieve greater success than other sport organizations. Since the essence of HRM is managing people, HRM has the potential to play a significant role in ensuring that a sport organization achieves its goals. Most sport organizations want to achieve success, offer high quality service and contribute to socially responsible and ethical practices (refer to figure 3.13, page 138). This can be achieved if the sport organization is able to implement structured guidelines (refer to figure 3.13, page 138) when conducting a situational audit, acquiring, rewarding, training and developing, and appraising human resources.

Having established the theoretical foundation of this study, the next chapter (chapter 4) will examine the research methodology employed to gather the data.