SPORT AS CULTURAL CAPITAL IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

BY

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UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

PROMOTER: Prof A.E. GOSLIN

OCTOBER 2016
DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my own unaided work. Any assistance that I have received has been acknowledged in the thesis. It is submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Human Movement Science (Sport and Recreation Management) titled SPORT AS CULTURAL CAPITAL IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE at the University of Pretoria. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any University.

Letsebe Hendrik Mohlamonyane

Signature: __________________________________________

Date: __________________________________________

Place: __________________________________________
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to first; acknowledge the Almighty God who unselfishly granted me the wisdom to fulfill part of the purpose that He brought me to this world for. It is by His grace that I accepted Him as my Lord and Saviour because His word says in 1 John 4:4 “You are of God, little children, and have overcome them: because greater is He that is in you, than the one that is in the world.”

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To my beautiful, kind, loving and God fearing wife, Kedibone, a big hug and thank you so much for always reminding me that: “the dictionary is the only place where success comes before work.” You are my strength as you always say: “success is not a doorway, it’s a staircase.”
ABSTRACT

This study has been undertaken to analyse the potential of sport as cultural capital in the South African Police Service. There is a need to determine the role of sport in the SAPS and its realisation as a cultural capital and to also find out why the SAPS does not fully realise sport as Cultural Capital. The study offers an understanding of aspects of law enforcement agency sport, cultural and social capital, social cohesion, the social role of sport, sport governance, political power and struggle and sport policy in the SAPS.

A review of relevant literature dealing with sport in the law enforcement agencies, cultural and social capital and sport policy was carried out. The sources to gather information embody: books, magazines, articles, newspapers, Government media reports, journals and information from the internet.

Single stage sampling procedure was used as the researcher has access to names in the population and can sample the people or other elements directly (Creswell, 2009). A schedule of questions served as the main data collection tool, and it was piloted on ten percent of the members of the population who did not serve in the final sample of respondents. This exercise assisted in validating the questions. The qualitative study was done with face-to-face semi-structured interviews to get the views of SAPS sport participants relating to SAPS sport. The questions schedule was used to conduct face-to-face interviews to collect data analysed using Atlas ti.

SAPS sport contributes towards the accrual of cultural capital within the South African Police Service, but with an exception of language culture, embodied cultural capital and objectified cultural capital. The study concludes that workplace sport has a positive influence on employees’ performance and it contributes significantly towards the high level of employees’ commitment to the organisation.

Police officers should be given opportunities to be involved in sport and recreation activities within the working environment. SAPS should ensure that proper resources are provided and are made easily accessible to enable employees to participate in sport regardless of rank. All police
personnel should be exposed to opportunities that are there because of participation in sport in the work environment. SAPS top management should give full support to all members who are interested in participating in sport because of the benefits that are accrued when taking part in sport. Proper sport structures should be put in place at all levels of SAPS sphere of operations so that there should not be communication breakdown in relation to sport issues.

**Keywords**: bonding social capital; bridging social capital; cultural capital; embodied cultural capital; ‘field’; ‘habitus’; institutionalised cultural capital; linking social capital; objectified cultural capital; social cohesion.
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<tr>
<td>AC</td>
<td>Administration Clerk</td>
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<tr>
<td>ASA</td>
<td>Athletics South Africa</td>
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<td>BPD</td>
<td>Basic Police Development</td>
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<td>CBOs</td>
<td>Community Based Organisations</td>
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<td>CFO</td>
<td>Chief Financial Officer</td>
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<td>CSC</td>
<td>Client Service Centre</td>
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<td>CSF</td>
<td>Commissioner Sports Fund</td>
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<td>DCS</td>
<td>Department of Correctional Services</td>
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<td>FSA</td>
<td>Food Service Aid</td>
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<tr>
<td>F/MAN</td>
<td>Foreman</td>
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<td>GEMS</td>
<td>Government Employees Medical Scheme</td>
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<td>HRD</td>
<td>Human Resource Development</td>
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<td>LOC</td>
<td>Local Organising Committee</td>
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<td>LT</td>
<td>Lieutenant</td>
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<td>MAJ</td>
<td>Major</td>
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<td>MSC</td>
<td>Multi Sport Committee</td>
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<td>NI</td>
<td>National Instruction</td>
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<td>NGOs</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organisations</td>
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<td>NSA</td>
<td>Netball South Africa</td>
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<td>PA</td>
<td>Police Act</td>
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<td>PFMA</td>
<td>Public Finance Management Act</td>
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<td>POLMED</td>
<td>Police Medical Aid Scheme</td>
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<td>PO</td>
<td>Provision Officer</td>
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<td>POPCRU</td>
<td>Police and Prison Civil Rights Union</td>
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<td>PPO</td>
<td>Principal Provision Officer</td>
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<td>PSA</td>
<td>Public Service Act</td>
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<td>PSL</td>
<td>Premier Soccer League</td>
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<td>REF</td>
<td>Reference</td>
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<td>RSA</td>
<td>Republic of South Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>SAC</td>
<td>Senior Administration Clerk</td>
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<td>SADC</td>
<td>Southern African Development Community</td>
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<td>SANDF</td>
<td>South African National Defence Force</td>
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<td>South African Police Service</td>
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<td>SAPU</td>
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<td>SASSA</td>
<td>South African School Sport Association</td>
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<tr>
<td>SO (G)</td>
<td>Standing Order (General)</td>
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<tr>
<td>TMPD</td>
<td>Tshwane Metropolitan Police Department</td>
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CHAPTER ONE

AIM, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND METHODOLOGY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Participation in sport in the South African Police Service is meant for all employees in the organisation as services and programmes of employee health and wellness. Employee sport is not based on spectators that give it commercial value, but it is geared towards the physical fitness of employees, maintenance of the employees’ physical fitness; developing social networks, inter-relation with other law enforcement agencies and promotion of the image of the organisation. The South African Police Service (SAPS) offers employee recreation sport in the South African context in order to promote physical fitness, social interaction among all its members and above all, as a tool or vehicle to reduce stress amongst the members of SAPS. Sport may also have a wide range of health benefits that include improvement of cardiovascular strength, assisting in the development of physical strength and balance and maintenance of a healthy weight which is of paramount importance for police officers.

SAPS sport federations are engaged in social responsibility programmes in the communities in which they are hosting SAPS annual championships. It is during these programmes that the SAPS assists in sport development by offering coaching clinics with the purpose of involving the youth in sport to facilitate productive leisure time which in turn could contribute towards eradication of criminal activities. Social interaction of members is presented through sport in the form of cultural capital, social capital and symbolic capital that is supported by SAPS top management. SAPS members’ participation in sport is beneficial to the organisation in that there is social cohesion, trust and pride when playing sports. The support given to SAPS participants in recreational sport is a means of building social capital, economic capital and cultural capital. It is offered in the form of availing resources such as finance, facilities, human support, equipment and time off to attend the sporting events. The availability of resources makes it possible for the sport participants to interact, share common values and good practices that each province has in their respective environment.
Sport in the South African Police Service is mainly aimed at physical fitness gains and benefits. The focus or aim is to increase participation and raise standards of performance in regional and international sporting events. It is used as a social activity whereby its social importance and significance extend beyond the players. In this regard, the role of sport as a social outlet may be in a variety of forms such as extensive voluntary service provided to amateur or recreational sport such as that in SAPS (Putnam, 2001). Sport brings SAPS employees together, helps in building the work force and provides focus for collective identity and belonging. Sport as a form of physical activity is an important component of a healthy lifestyle that improves not only physical, but also psychological health of individuals (Sullum, Clark & King 2000). The results or benefits of regular physical activity do not only include muscle and bone strength, but physical activity also brings about improved weight control, decreased body fat and aerobic fitness that is an inherent requirement of the police force.

1.2 RESEARCH CONTEXT

Research context as defined by Dey (2001:7) is “any information that can be used to characterise the situation of an entity. An entity is a person, a place, or object that is considered relevant to the interaction between the user and the applicant, including the user and the applicants.” According to Hendrickson (2003:12), context is the “set of circumstances surrounding context that are potentially of relevancy to its completion.”

In the paragraphs below, the researcher has discussed the following in the context of this study: the role of sport in the SAPS, SAPS sport participation and benefits, and SAPS sport governance.

1.2.1 The role of sport in the South African Police Service

Sport plays an important role within a community, such as the socialising process within the working environment through recreational sport. In the recreational sport environment, participants may learn the values of the broader community or organisation through taking part in sport and they may learn how to become effective members of communities or a particular organisation. Parks, Quartermen and Thibault (2007) maintain that sport may serve as a bridge
between cultures as successful participation depends on skill, let alone race, sex, cultural background and political affiliation. Sport serves two important functions for the South African Police Service. These functions are, the generation and enforcement of educational goals via exposure to a network of social relations serving to attach the participants to the organisation (SAPS) and its norms; and the facilitation of achieving such goals by empowering the employees or sport participants with personal resources such as, interpersonal skills and self-confidence (Eithe & Eithe, 2002).

As part of the SAPS physical culture, sport contributes to the health, well-being and identity of individuals, the community and the nation. For the individual police officer taking part in sport, sport becomes an activity that satisfies personal expression. Participation in sport is a physical experience necessitating mental effort and has a strong emotional component enabling individuals to express themselves physically, experience the pleasure of play, self-development, personal achievement and self-actualisation. Sport also involves testing oneself, learning and allowing the competitive spirit to flourish in pursuance of individual excellence and winning (Chandler, 2006). When SAPS sport participants take part in recreational sport that is done within communities and on facilities belonging to municipalities or private entities. This then forms the basis for broader social interaction, community building, developing inter-cultural relationships and local pride, collective activities of volunteering and planning sports events and family activities around sport, community identity and cohesion (South African Police Service, Information Note: Ref 10/1/1, 2013). In broad terms, sport becomes part of family life as it is extended to individual participants’ families.

Sport contributes to unity and national pride as the nation watches its best SAPS sports people perform and act as ambassadors for the organisation or the country. This is evident more especially when SAPS teams take part in international games like the World Police and Fire Games (WPFG) hosted outside the borders of the continent of Africa, and this includes regional games like the Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Cooperation Organisation (SARPCCO) games hosted by Southern African Development Community (SADC) member countries. SAPS employees and young people gain priceless knowledge as they travel; interact with fellow countrymen and people of other countries, cultures and value sets, thereby developing respect,
understanding and fellowship (South African Police Service, Information Note: Ref 10/1/1, 2013). Research links sport success and productivity at work (Ashton, Gerrard & Hudson, 2003). Sport activities have a positive impact on work environments that give rise to healthy and motivated employees, improved client services, excellent interpersonal relationships in the workplace and more profitable organisations (Ashton et al., 2003).

Organisational sport or employee sport such as within SAPS, when utilised in a profitable way or manner that is structured, impacts positively on the staff or employees to a point that they focus more on their similarities than their differences (Joubert & de Beer, 2010). The workplace inhibiting factors are done away with in this manner, and once they have been overcome, the organisational human resources or staff will have access to knowledge, skills and abilities because they work excellently towards common goals. This could impact positively on the leadership and supportive systems of the organisation as the goals and efforts of individuals and organisational groups are aligned.

It is through employees or organisational sport that organisations and departments generate benefits. The benefits that accrue are improved communication amongst employees (top-down approach and bottom-up approach), committed workforce, and employees with thorough knowledge of one another and respect and trust at the highest peak in the work environments (Chandler, 2006). This notion of Chandler (2006) is reflected by the success that SAPS sport participants have during the structured national championships, which encourage the participants to be more productive in the work environments. SAPS Sport participants bring about return on investment due to the positive impact that they have on the organisation, for example, the reduction of sick leave and unnecessary absenteeism.

1.2.2 SAPS sport participation and benefits

Silva (2005) states that the issue of sport as cultural capital in law enforcement agencies has not been addressed satisfactorily by research. The available literature addresses law enforcement agencies sport only on the impact that it has on the organisation and benefits thereof. Eithe and Eithe (2002) on the contrary assert that participation in sport has no significant effect on the
personal development of participants. But contrary to the assertions of Eithe and Eithe, police officers’ participation in sports programmes serves the following important functions for organisations such as South African Police Service:

- The generation and reinforcement of organisational goals via exposure to network of social relations serves to attract the employees to the organisation and its norms (Eithe & Eithe, 2002).
- The facilitation of achievement of goals is through empowering employees with personal resources, such as, interpersonal skills and self-confidence (Sullum, Clark & King, 2000).
- The promotion of physical fitness, social interaction among members and also serving as a tool to reduce stress amongst police officers (Blue, Wilbur & Marston-Scott, 2001).

In the South African Police Service, there are three categories of sports participation namely: national championships, SAPS inter-academies championships and international participation (SAPS National teams). The latter is meant for only those sporting codes that are funded by the Department of Police within a specific financial year (South African Police Service Report, 2010). Joubert and De Beer (2010) assert that participation in sport has differential consequences for work performance in the sense that it reduces absenteeism and unnecessary sick leave and members are not prone to opportunistic diseases related to physical inactiveness. The group from which the employer benefits from is debatable. Joubert and de Beer (2010) suggest that participation in sport within a work environment reduces the rate of absenteeism and brings about high work rate, whilst the non participants are prone to be absent at work due to sicknesses related to physical unfitness. On the other hand, Bourdieu (2002a) argues that sport participants who display cultural attributes, for example punctuality at work and competence, are more likely to do well in the working environment because the organisation like SAPS values and rewards such attributes.

Sport and physical activities are inter-twined and could have a significant educational and cultural impact. Changes in police officers who are actively involved in sport can be seen in motor skills development and performances as well as educational potential. This shows the positive relationship between being involved in physical activities and psychosocial
In this regard Mbekela (2012) asserts that sport and physical activities inculcate amongst others, the following values to police (members of SAPS) who take part in sport:

- Honesty;
- Team spirit;
- Respect for others and self;
- Fair play;
- Adherence to rules;
- Resilience;
- Time management skills;
- Ability to cope with winning and losing; and
- Discipline.

Besides inculcating above values according to Mbekela (2012), there are also important life skills that (SAPS) police officers could acquire through participation in sport. Values such as leadership skills, listening skills, negotiating skills, followership skills, communication skills, time management skills, problem solving skills, and interpersonal relationship skills. All these acquired values and life skills are an indication of intellectual wellness of individuals or the workforce. Intellectual wellness concerns learning for learning’s sake. An individual or group of people, who is/are intellectually well, searches/search for mental stimulation for their\its own sake (Horton & Snyder, 2009) which are beneficial to an employer.

Participation in sport in the South African Police Service is done whilst members are on duty with no special sport leave required as regulated by the policy, South African Police Service Standing Order (General) 203 of 2004, implying that members take part in sport activities during working hours without taking special sport leave as sanctioned by SAPS management. These, however, only relate to those sporting codes that are approved and funded by the organisation. A narrow definition of sport as given by Mbekela (2012) is all forms of physical activity that contribute to physical fitness, mental well being and social interaction. These include play, recreation, organised casual or competitive sport and indigenous games. Physical activity is vital to the holistic development of police officers, especially young ones, fostering their physical, social and emotional health. It can be argued that the benefits of sport in a law enforcement
agency reach far beyond the impact on physical well being and the value of educational benefits cannot be underestimated.

The South African Police Service gives its employees an opportunity to participate in sport for physical fitness purposes and for interrelation with other law enforcement agencies and this is done on duty and at cost to the organisation (South African Police Service, Standing Order (General) 203, 2004). The interrelation that exists due to sport participation in the SAPS is however, not regarded as a form of capital. The notion of cultural capital as stated in reviewed literature is associated with a narrowly defined economic category of monetary exchange for profit. In accordance with the work of Bourdieu (2000), however, the concept of cultural capital is an attempt to expand the understanding of capital beyond just the economic and to identify culture as a form of capital. In Bourdieu’s work, social capital is included alongside cultural capital and Bourdieu wrote more generally of symbolic capital and more specifically of linguistic capital. The factor of commonality in Bourdieu’s arguments on capital is that each requires, and is the product of an investment of an appropriate kind and each can secure a return on investment or benefits for an employer or individual (Bourdieu, 1996). Following Bourdieu’s line of argument that generating capital (or benefits) requires an investment in some sort of activity that would yield benefits, institutionalised sport in the SAPS can be regarded as cultural capital, and even social capital.

Institutionalised sport and recreation activities within SAPS are the responsibility of the Division: Human Resource Development (HRD), Component: Basic Police Development (BPD) and Section: Sport and Recreation Management. There is an approved structure of sport within the organisational structure of the Division: HRD, of which sport is one of its core businesses. Structurally SAPS sport activities are organised by Section: Sport and Recreation Management and the following are sub-sections responsible for sport, recreation and physical fitness maintenance: Sport Coordination and Physical Fitness Maintenance (South African Police Service Report, 2010). Even though the department funds sport activities, the core function (crime awareness, combating and fighting) enjoy priority over and above participation in sport on duty. There are SAPS Provincial Championships, SAPS National Championships and SAPS International Team Participation, all of the above are funded, and participation is on duty,
Sport Participation in the South African Police Service is not seen as a right, but a privilege (South African Police Service Standing Order (General) 203, 2004) as approval has to be obtained from supervisors or management for all participants selected to take part in SAPS sanctioned championships or sporting events. The institutionalised structures cannot manage the provision of sport and recreation activities without the help or assistance of people at grass root level and such personnel do the work on ad hoc basis as volunteers (South African Police Service Report, 2010).

All Police Officials appointed in terms of the SAPS Act are expected to maintain a high level of fitness in an effort to meet the challenges that are generic mandate which (inter alia) include crime prevention, combating and detection (South African Police Service Information Note, Ref 10/1/1, 2010). In order to achieve this ideal, management and other statutory groups such as Police and Prison Civil Rights Union (POPCRU) and South African Police Union (SAPU) have recommended the introduction of sustainable fitness programmes without compromising operational time. The adoption of career-long fitness and wellness standards by SAPS Officials ensures the police officers’ ability to defend themselves (South African Police Service, Information Note, Ref 10/1/1, 2010).

Timpka, Finch, Goulet, Noakes and Yammine, (2008) define sport and physical activities as the activities that transform and are being changed by the participation groups (societies) in which they are practised. This is the case with SAPS as the employees who participate in sport can have a major influence on all types of sporting codes they take part in. For example, they can change the rules and regulations to suit their standard of play and participation. On the other hand the influence that sport and physical activities have on participating SAPS members is evident in terms of the staff turnover, for example, the rate of absenteeism amongst athletes is low or non-existent. Competitive and non-competitive sport within SAPS is the focus point of the integrated approach that delivers a qualitative police workforce and excellent service to all clients. This in itself is a collective approach, which is double-pronged in nature in that it addresses organisational image building, prestige and holistic physical well-being of SAPS personnel.
The SAPS Section: Sport and Recreation Management actively promotes physical activities for all employees while SAPS top management does not fully realise the potential of sport as cultural capital in the organisation. There seems to be a perception among top management that physical activities and sports advocate the notion of partying and holidaying at the expense of the Department of Police. But, sport and physical activities play an important role and have a more important position in social life of the employees and their work performance than ever before (Timpka et al., 2008). Within the SAPS, there is an increasingly sedentary lifestyle as the obesity epidemic is reflected in a rapid increase in the prevalence of obesity and overweight, and their associated chronic medical conditions (Timpka et al., 2008). The epidemic has evolved in the SAPS in spite of long recognition of the beneficial role of participation in games and sports for physical, mental and social development and the prevention of health problems (Timpka et al., 2008).

1.2.3 SAPS sport governance

The definition of governance as asserted by Fukuyama (2013) is the ability of government to make and enforce rules, and to deliver services. Another definition governance in a broader perspective can be the setting of rules, the application of rules and the enforcement of rules (Kjaer, 2004). In this case, it is SAPS sport office, which sets rules and sees to it that such rules are enforced and applied in the SAPS sport environment. Kjaer (2004:11) states that ‘new governance has more to do with how the centre interacts with society and asks where there is more self steering in networks’. Governance is the capacity of a governing entity to make and implement policy, in other words, to steer society, organisations or groups of people. Rhodes (2000a) provides a typology of seven different approaches to governance, which takes on board the idea that governance; requires an inter-organisational network between public, private, and non-profit entities.

Governance, certainly in the case of sport, more specifically relates to approaches to stakeholder engagement, establishing and implementing equalities agendas, enforcing ethical and honest behavior, developing methods for transparency and accountability, addressing issues of social and environmental sustainability, and strengthening relationships with civil society organisations.
(Bovaird & Loffler, 2003). The inherent question in all of these approaches according to Bovaird and Loffler (2003) is not only how to steer, but also how to improve methods of interaction and effectiveness across these networks of governance. In practical terms, the SAPS has at a minimum, an office at provincial level responsible for the oversight of sport and thus creating a method for interaction and effective management of sport. The level of power and autonomy the SAPS provincial sport offices have for the public governance of sport is multiple. The responsibilities and budgets in the provincial offices are sub-divided at cluster and stations’ level. All SAPS provincial sport offices have a common model for public management of sport and approaches to the governance of sport.

It is through SAPS sanctioned championships that the Department of Police interacts with the community by means of social responsibility projects in the communities where the championships are hosted to establish interaction according to the perspective of Bovaird and Loffler (2003). This practice also supports the argument of Osborne (2006) when he states that governance is the capacity of a governing entity to make and implement policy in other words, to steer society. In the sporting realm or environment, this relates to approaches to stakeholders engagement, establishing and implementing equalities agendas, enforcing ethical and honest behavior, developing methods for transparency and accountability, addressing issues of social and environmental stability, and strengthening relationships with civil society organisation (Bovaird & Loffler, 2003). The ultimate result is the improvement of interaction; total effective management and stakeholders’ involvement in governance.

When considering sport governance within the SAPS, it corroborates with what Pierre and Peters (2000) assert. Pierre and Peters (2000) maintain that when considering the public governance of sport and the relationship between sport federations and the governing entity, (SAPS), it speaks to three scenarios. First, it provokes the question of sport as a social service to be considered as a deliverable of government. Second, there is a concept that sport is ‘delivered’ by government–sanctioned (most often financially supported) non-profit organisations with monopolies over the organisation and development of a particular sport (or a bundle of sports in the case of a multi-sport committee). Third, it focuses attention on the layers of interaction (local, provincial, national, regional and international) and differing types of state, federations, citizen engagement
within each layer. There are over 22 SAPS National Sports Governing Bodies (Voluntary Federations constituted by SAPS employees) and over 30 SAPS Federations in all nine provinces including SAPS Head Office Divisions and other activity/interest associations or bodies like Commissioner Sports Fund (South African Police Service, (2012) Sport & Recreation Business Plan (Financial Year: 2011/2012), Ref 10\1\1). In addition to this number is a group of SAPS Sports Clubs, which operate below national level but deliver most of SAPS top athletes and competitive results and as a result have a very strong say and contribution in sport and recreation policy matters. The body called SAPS Multi Sport Committee represents the interests of the National and Provincial Sport Bodies. It is recognised in SAPS and thus can voice legitimately all stakeholders needs and demands and be a partner to the Department of Police in the policy bargaining process, (Girginov, 2001).

The Section: Sport and Recreation Management of the Division: Human Resource Development is responsible for the administration, management, facilitation and coordination of all sport projects and physical fitness maintenance of SAPS including the development of policy standards which are consistent with the objectives of the Department of Police (South African Police Service Information Note ref 10/1/1, 2010). This is in alignment with the argument of Kjaer (2004) as enforcement of rules and policies lies solely within the division human resource development (section sport and recreation). Like any other components, units or sections within a government department, the sport section has to compete for a market share and scarce human capital, both paid and volunteers. Sport organisations often have minimal human resources and are likely to rely on volunteers. Within the SAPS volunteers’ system; members are supported with resources, but are not paid for doing the sport-related duties. They are only given time off and given subsistence allowances to take part in all sport-related activities. Figure 1 provides an organogram depicting the chain of command within South African Police Service where sport and recreation management resorts:
The organogram above depicts the senior management and middle management of the Division: Human Resource Development down to Section: Sport and Recreation Management being the division, component, section and sub-section within which the service of sport and recreation resorts. Other voluntary structures like SAPS sport federations and Multi-Sport Committee are not reflected in the organogram even though they assist the custodians of SAPS sport in the management and administration of approved programmes. The regulatory frameworks that allows external individuals or groups of people to get involved in the governance of SAPS sport is an approved policy document called South African Police Service Standing Order (General) 203 of 2004 and other related documents or Government Acts within the public service. These regulatory frameworks, standing orders, national instructions and Acts regulate all the permanent serving members (sport coordinators, biokinetists and sport scientists) and volunteers within the SAPS sport environment.

The governance framework and organisational arrangements of SAPS sport create the conditions to deliver high-quality interdisciplinary and solution-oriented sport in partnership with all relevant stakeholders. For SAPS to achieve this, it needs a robust and flexible governance structure to give enough administrative and management support linking work priorities and
actionable sport interventions. This could then lead to building capacity across the country to produce and apply results focused sport programmes that contribute towards generating social capital and cultural capital in the South African Police Service through sport.

1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND RESEARCH QUESTION

The problem that this study wishes to address centres around why sport as mechanism to build cultural capital in the South African Police Service is not given the proper attention it deserves and its indirect implication to service delivery to the citizens of South Africa. Sport provides opportunities and settings of social interaction, sharing common interests and enhancing a sense of community or belonging. It also brings about social networks, norms and values and understanding that facilitate cooperation within or among groups (Coalter, 2007). Sport has tremendous value, but because of the priorities of the organisation (SAPS) such as combating and fighting crime, fewer efforts are put in the organisation and management of sport. It is not seen as the core function of a law enforcement agency. It thus creates the perception of sport participation as being time wasting and a misuse of state resources without the awareness that sport has the potential of bringing cultural capital into the police or SAPS working environment.

In institutionalising sport for employees the SAPS invests resources and according to Bourdieus’s (2000b) argument, this creates cultural capital through the benefits that participation in sport yields. The problem is that the SAPS management does not perceive and realise this potential.

This then leads to the question that needs to be answered to undertake the proposed research:

Is the potential of sport as cultural capital perceived and realised in the South African Police Service?

1.4 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The primary aim of the study is to explore and describe whether the potential of sport as cultural capital is realised in the South African Police Service.
In order to achieve the stated primary aim of the study, the following are secondary objectives:

- To establish benchmarks or appropriate practices for sport to be optimally perceived as cultural capital;
- To assess the degree to which the police rank system affects SAPS employees’ participation in sport, as players, volunteers and members of sports clubs and spectators;
- To ascertain the contribution that sport can make to human resource capacity building, particularly through volunteers being involved in decision-making and management in the SAPS;
- To determine the extent in which sport can provide opportunities for social engagement which can create awareness of differences and break down barriers for individuals and groups within the SAPS;
- To explore how sport can be used as an engagement mechanism or tool to build relationships with hard to reach individuals or groups; and
- To provide guidelines for sport in the SAPS to develop cultural capital.

1.5 CLARIFICATION OF TERMINOLOGY

The terms below form the basis of the research and need to be clarified in order to establish a baseline understanding. The terms are briefly discussed within the context of the study in the paragraphs that follow.

1.5.1 SAPS

SAPS is an acronym that stands for South African Police Service which is a Department of Police within the Republic of South Africa. The constitutional mandate of the SAPS, which is provided for by section 205 (3) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 calls on the police to prevent, combat and investigate crime, maintain public order, protect and secure the inhabitants of the RSA and their property, uphold and enforce law. It is a national department, which is the context within which this study is undertaken. SAPS as a public service entity provides sport activities for all its employees in a structured format where full-time employees are utilised as sport and physical fitness co-coordinators (South African Police Service Standing Order (General) 203, 2004).
1.5.2 Sport
Sport has the power to change the world. It has the power to inspire. It has the power to unite people in a way that little else can. Sport can awaken hope where there was previously only despair (Mandela, 2000). Sport and physical activities are important to many people and SAPS employees in particular due to the nature of the work they are doing. These provide enjoyment and contribute to the health of participants (South African Police Service Information Note, 2010). When delivered with other initiatives like combating and fighting crime, sport may play a part in reducing crime and increase educational attainment in terms of awareness. Sport promotes integration within groups or organisations whose human resource works for a common cause, such, as is the case with the South African Police Service that consists of individuals of diverse beliefs and values.

Sport refers to exercise activity that is often competitive, and carried on for its intrinsic enjoyment, including that of its spectators (Sport and Recreation South Africa, 2012). It is generally recognised as activities based in physical athleticism or physical dexterity, there are rules that govern sport to make a point that there is fair competition and consistent officiating of the winner.

1.5.3 Cultural Capital
The concept of cultural capital was developed in the early 1960s by the French sociologist, Pierre Bourdieu. It was developed in order to help address an empirical problem namely, “economic obstacles are not sufficient to explain” disparities in the attainment of children from different social classes (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990: 18). Bourdieu maintains that, beyond economic factors, “cultural habits and dispositions inherited from” the families are fundamentally important (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990:18). His argument thus has deviated sharply from the traditional sociological conceptions of culture, which views it primarily as a source of shared norms and values, or as a vehicle of collective expression (Bourdieu, 1996). Bourdieu asserts that culture shares various properties that have characteristics of economic capital. In this regard, Lareau and Weininger (2003) maintain that cultural habits and dispositions such as sport are resources capable of generating “profits” which are prone to monopolisation by individuals and groups. Under appropriate conditions, habits can be transmitted from one generation to the next. Cultural capital is defined as institutionalised, widely shared, high status cultural signals
(attitudes, preferences, formal knowledge, behaviors, goods and credentials) used for social and cultural exclusion (Lareau & Weininger, 2003).

1.5.4 Social Capital
Social capital is defined as a collection of resources that either an individual or organisation gains through a set of communal norms, networks, and sanction (Putnam, 2001). It plays an important role in the economic performance of an individual or an organisation. Field (2003) and Halpern (2005) maintain that social capital can assist in the increasing of trust between individuals thus promoting a healthy social network that has expanded.

Social capital is defined as the actual or potential resources that an individual has at his\her disposal because of a durable network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition (Bourdieu, 1989). This refers to membership in a group, of which the results are for an individual rather than a group. Contrary to the above definition, Coleman (1999) defines social capital as a way of understanding the relationship between educational success and social inequality (Schuller, Jackson & Luo, 2001) as well as relationships between families and the community. In this regard, the results are for groups, organisations, institutions and societies. These could imply SAPS sport clubs, SAPS provincial teams and provinces in relation to this study.

1.6 OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology of this study covers the following: research design, research instrument, research sample, data collection and data interpretation. In the paragraphs below, an overview of the research methodology used in the study is stated. In Chapter Four the research methodology is discussed in detail.

1.6.1 Research Design
Research design is a plan and procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed method of data collection and analysis (Patton, 2001). The function of the research design as asserted by Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004) is to ensure that the evidence obtained enables the researcher to answer initial questions as unambiguously as possible.
This study is qualitative in that it focuses on discovering and understanding the experiences, perspectives and thoughts of participants - that is, qualitative research explores meaning, purpose or reality (Creswell, 2003). This involves emerging questions and procedures, data collected in the participants’ setting, data analysis inductively building from particulars of general themes, the researcher making interpretations of the meaning of the data (Creswell, 2003).

### 1.6.2 Research instrument

The schedule for questions was used in this study to gather data by conducting semi-structured face-to-face interviews. The set of questions were designed in such a way that they explored in more detail the issues pertinent to the topic and the researcher used the additional probing questions.

### 1.6.3 Research sample

A purposive sample was taken from South African Police Service employees. It was used as the study focused on a specific service delivery unit (sport) in SAPS. The sample was purposive because the researcher has access to the names in the population and access to people in this study and purposefully targeted those.

### 1.6.4 Data collection

In collecting data, there was interaction between the researcher and the interviewees in the form of semi-structured face-to-face interviews. During the semi-structured face-to-face interviews, a voice recorder was used and the researcher took field notes. Literature, which relates to the context of the study, was reviewed to gather relevant information.

### 1.6.5 Data interpretation

The content analysis method was used as way of data interpretation and included coding of the answers. The Atlas ti software qualitative research analysis tool was used to analyse the recordings of the semi-structured face-to-face interviews.

Detailed discussion of the research design and research methodology is done in Chapter Four of this study.
1.7 CHAPTER LAYOUT OF THE STUDY

The layout of the research chapters is as follows:

Chapter One introduces the study by giving the background information and elucidating the need for the study; research problem and research question; provided the aims and objectives of the study; defined and explained sport, cultural capital, social capital as fundamental terms used in this study.

Chapter Two presents a theoretical overview of the concepts of cultural and social capital as a basis for Chapter Three where sport in the SAPS is contextualised as cultural capital.

Chapter Three discusses sport as cultural capital in the SAPS sporting environment.

Chapter Four outlines the research design and methodology covering the following: the research approach; the research type; research instruments; research universum (research population, research sample, sampling method and representative, interview briefing and fieldwork and analysis of results); research methodology (data collection, primary data collection, invitation to selected respondents briefing session, main data collection, challenges of fieldwork, reliability and validity, data handling, data analysis and interpretation); and ethical aspects relating to the study.

Chapter Five presents the study findings, results analysis, discussions and interpretation.

Chapter Six gives a summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations for the specific stakeholders and further research.

1.8 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

In this chapter the context and rationale of the study was provided regarding sport as cultural capital in the South African Police Service. A brief discussion on what the study entails was provided and fundamental terms were defined and discussed.

The next chapter deals with the theoretical concepts of cultural and social capital.
CHAPTER TWO

CULTURAL CAPITAL AND SOCIAL CAPITAL AS THEORETICAL CONCEPTS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

As sport has gone global, it has become more embedded in national and international politics, which in itself have an impact on cultural capital. The power of sport has been used for different kinds of dictatorship on and off the playing fields. The coaching fraternity within sport, for example, thrives on dictatorship to maintain order and excellent performance. Another example of dictatorship within sport is in the administration realm where elected members force down unpopular decisions on members of federations and associations to implement. Sport is also used as cultural capital for many populist publications to campaign politically, governing and symbolic politics; and has increased its presence and importance in political life (Markovits & Rensman, 2010).

The purpose of this chapter is to give a theoretical framework of cultural capital and social capital as the main concepts of this study. The significance of analysis of cultural and social capital in this chapter further serves to put into perspective the two concepts as the basis for Chapter Three where sport in the South African Police Service (SAPS) is contextualised as cultural capital. This chapter, therefore, explores the holistic concept of “capital”, defines and discusses cultural capital and social capital typology and their functions as well as the relationship between cultural and social capital.

2.2 EXPLORING THE HOLISTIC CONCEPT OF “CAPITAL”

Capital is defined as ‘accumulated labor in its materialised form or its incorporated embodied form that, when appropriated on private, that is exclusive basis by agents or groups of agents, enables them to appropriate social energy in the form of living labor’ (Bourdieu, 2001a:96). There are five kinds of capital worth mentioning and discussing in this study namely: financial,
natural, produced, human and social capital of which all are in essence assets that have the capacity to produce flows of economically desirable outputs and sustain economic development.

According to Goodwin (2003), financial capital facilitates economic production which is money regarded as capital assets when invested in activities that can be productive. Natural capital constitutes resources and ecosystem services of the natural world, for example, a pool of water is a natural asset when it plays a role in the economic productive process. Produced capital is made up of physical assets produced by applying human productive activities to natural capital capable of generating a flow of goods or services. Physical assets are produced by the application of human productive activities to natural capital that provides goods or services. An example in this regard is bricks and mortar that are transformed through human productive activities into a house. Human capital is the productive capacities of an individual, both inherited and acquired though education and training (Goodwin, 2003). It is also seen as a stock of capabilities, which give rise to a flow of services, for example, an individual’s ability to work with computers. An individual’s capabilities do not, however, depend only on knowledge, skills, training and education, but also on behavioral habits, energy levels, physical and mental health (Fukuda-Parr, 2010).

Capital in any form qualifies as capital only if it makes humans more productive when they use it in combination with other forms of capital (Castle, 1998). Capital is also an important determinant of prosperity because of being a deliberate sacrifice in the present for future benefits. When investing capital as assets, it will come in handy to be utilised in future for the benefit of the investor and the immediate surroundings. Capital is not only physical, but it can also be in the form of skills, education and training which indicates or identifies human capital (Putnam, 2001). Organisational capital is another example of non-physical capital. It refers to a system of organisation to process information commonly known as business technological know-how. The latter informs the organisation of the latest technological advances or changes, and it is through this non-physical capital that databases can be stored for organisational current or future use, thus creating organisational capital.

Bourdieu (1989:113) maintains that ‘capital is a social relation which only exists and only produces its effects in the field in which it is produced’. Based on the assertion of Bourdieu, the
concept of cultural capital cannot be grasped and understood in isolation from other forms of capital. Alongside cultural capital, societal advantage and disadvantage are constituted (Silva & Warde, 2010). Other forms of capital include economic capital; symbolic capital; and social capital. These latter three concepts are of utmost importance to the study and have to be explored and discussed in terms of their academic definitions in the context of this study. Cultural capital is one of the main forms of capital that will be explored and discussed in this chapter, as the research is pertaining to sport as cultural capital in the South African Police Service (SAPS).

2.3 DEFINING CULTURAL CAPITAL

The French sociologist, Pierre Bourdieu is regarded as a major proponent of cultural capital. Bourdieu defines cultural capital as the general cultural background, knowledge, disposition, and skills that are passed on from one generation to another. Cultural capital represents ways of acting and socialising, as well as language practice, values, type of dress and behavior (Bourdieu, 1989). He sees it as an investment in a set of symbols and meanings reproduced by the dominant class of society and passed down, or reproduced, through generations (Bourdieu & Passeron, 2000). Another definition of cultural capital refers to forms of knowledge, both tangible and intangible, that has value in a given society in relation to status and power (Putnam, 2001). In support of the above definition, Bourdieu (2001a) defines cultural capital as ideas and knowledge that people draw upon as they participate in social life and as such everything from rules of etiquette to being able to speak and write effectively can be considered cultural capital.

Markovits and Rensman (2010) assert that cultural capital consists of tastes, preferences and behaviors. All these form the core characteristics of membership of a certain class. Cultural capital is comprehensively interpreted into class, hierarchy and struggle given its categories, namely, objectified, embodied and institutionalised cultural capital (Tzanakis, 2011). Class is determined by a group’s amount of “capital” which in turn shows areas of class inequality where some people (classes) are more privileged than others in specific fields. Class memberships are subtle, thus making them difficult to acquire, but are recognisable by other class members.

In further exploring cultural capital, Bourdieu (2000b) looks at taste and cultural consumption. Taste and cultural consumption cannot be the same within a group of people. The way people
prefer for example, certain sporting codes relates to taste which depends on the idea different classes have of the body (Markovits & Rensman, 2010). The middle classes as such prefer sporting codes that are seen as expensive and elite. These to them are non-contact as opposed to lower classes whose involvement in sport or physical fitness activities means physical contact and thorough workout (Kingston, 2001). Participation in sport activities is regarded as cultural consumption.

According to Bourdieu (1996) engagement in a particular sport and the taste for sports are seen as components of practices for the operation and presentation of the body. Members of different social classes have cultural and physical dispositions which are deeply embodied, dispositions by means of which class position can be performed, recognised and represented (Jeannotte, 2003). Preferences for sport form part of the dispositions which constitute the “habitus”, thus becoming elements of embodied cultural capital (Bourdieu, 2001b). Bourdieu also maintains that taste responds to two kinds of stimuli. On the one hand pleasure is connected with human needs. On the other, associations refer to other points in the cultural universe in a kind of in-group conversation where individuals come into contact on regular basis. Once the human needs are met, it will result in the well-being of certain individuals socially and culturally (Hosta, 2009).

Berkes and Folke (1993) assert that social and cultural well-being equity entails fairness, social justice and distributional issues; empowerment which is the ability of people to exert a degree of control over decisions affecting their lives and sustainable livelihoods being the capacity to generate and maintain one’s means of living. Cultural sustainability is said to be the ability to retain cultural identity, and to allow change to be guided in ways consistent with the cultural values of people (Berkes & Folke, 1993). As such there will be social cohesion and social capital accrued. Social cohesion is shared values and commitment to a community as the foundation stone of social order; while social capital is social organisational features, such as trust, norms and networks (Collins & Kay, 2003).

Sullivan and Katz-Gerro (2007) maintain that cultural capital tastes and cultural participation are two dominant measures of cultural capital. Cultural tastes represent preferences by individuals and cultural participation represents individual behavior. In studies done by researchers such as
Kraaykamp (2002); Silva (2006); Sullivan and Katz-Gerro (2007) and Warde (2008), cultural consumption is described in three ways, namely embodied, objectified and institutionalised. Cultural tastes or cultural participation are cultural capital’s interchangeable indicators whereby tastes and participation have been used in tandem without their performance being varied. As such tastes and participation are treated as two different cultural capital dimensions when studying cultural capital theory.

Social and cultural reproductions together with class alignment are the basis of sporting preferences as asserted by Bourdieu (1989). Appropriate tastes and preferences as well as skills and knowledge are the requirements of sports consumption and this is not distributed evenly amongst the social classes as capital.

According to Bourdieu (2002b) cultural capital performs the following five theoretical functions: 1) informal academic standards; 2) class attributes; 3) basis for social selection; 4) resource for power; and 5) basis of class position. Bourdieu (1996) further argues that those groups that are dominant to mark their cultural distance and proximity use cultural capital. These groups monopolise privileges, and exclude and recruit new occupants of high status. According to Silva (2005), the theory of power that is eminent in Bourdieu’s theoretical apparatus focuses on resources dependency and maximisation of resources. Cultural capital is something that is invested in and accumulates over time and it is also linked to intellectualised appreciation (Robson, 2003). The co-concepts of cultural capital “habitus” and “field” are likely to have influence over the academic standards; class attributes; basis for social selection; resources for power; and basis for class position. These co-concepts are discussed in the paragraph below.

2.3.1 “Habitus” and “Field” as co-concepts of cultural capital

The study of cultural capital cannot be done without a thorough exploration of ‘habitus’ and ‘field’ as co-concepts. The concepts of ‘habitus’, capital and ‘field’ are linked to one another as each achieves full analytical potency only in tandem with the other (Bourdieu, 2001c) and are discussed in subsequent paragraphs.
‘Habitus’, according to Bourdieu (2001b), refers to a cognitive structure that determines the way people perceive the world. It explains how individuals internalise the objective successes which are a consequence of their economical and cultural background (Wacquant, 2002). Bourdieu (2000b) perceives ‘habitus’ as a heuristic tool which enables people to make sense of the world. ‘Habitus’ is said to be the ‘product of history’ (produced by practice) which makes people go through specific events and experiences. People use their cognitive skills to relate to their experiences and events in life. Class ‘habitus’ refers to the way of perceiving the world specific to one’s class (Bourdieu, 1996). Perceptions of people differ based upon a particular class a person is part of. According to Bourdieu (2000c), ‘habitus’ is a principle of both social continuity and discontinuity, because due to its continuity, it stores social forces into the individual organism and transports them across time and space.

In essence ‘habitus’ refers to lifestyle, the values, the disposition and the expectations of particular social groups and this ‘habitus’ is developed through experience (Bourdieu, 2002a). People learn best by what they see in life and how to expect life. The ‘habitus’ of each individual or group differs because different social groups have different chances and experiences in life. People control values, but they are not, in total captive of the ‘habitus’. In this regard people are free to act and choose what to do thus leading them to make certain choices reflected as behavior. Bourdieu (2001d) maintains that individuals have to react to particular events, many of which are novel, but they tend to do so in terms of behavior that they have come to see as reasonable, common sense behavior. This implies that ‘habitus’ is an infinitive capacity for generating products which include the idea of thought, perceptions, expressions and actions whose limits are set by historically and socially situated conditions of its products, tastes, class and education (Bourdieu, 2001c).

Lastly, ‘habitus’ is defined as a set of ‘disposition’. In this perspective, it implies that ‘habitus’ goes beyond mere perception whilst having an influence on motivation, desire and choice. It is a specific form of perception, which also structures action. At the same time, it is a cognitive structure, a motivating structure produced by practice and experience (Bourdieu, 2001b). Bourdieu further explains that habitus is a durably installed principle of regulated improvisations that gives rise to practices that produces regularities. On the other hand Trosby (2001) asserts
that the human body and our relation to it is included in the ‘habitus’, which implies that all people have different ‘habitus’ that comes from different experiences and practices, resulting in different relations to their bodies. In essence habitus helps in the explanation of the functioning of the concept of inequality through socialisation. The way habitus relates to capital reveals the effect that the amount of capital affects one’s thinking.

Bourdieu (2001a) asserts that the concept of ‘field’ is a social space in which different forms of capital are exchanged. In line with this definition, ‘field’ then becomes a structured space of positions and hierarchy which presupposes and creates a belief within the participants of the value of a specific form of capital (Jenkins, 2002). A field is a situation or context defined by its relation to its participants and their relations to each other as well as the distribution of the relevant capital. The autonomy of ‘field’ is invisible or unavailable in that field itself, but becomes visible through the participants’ practice. Field developed due to the attempt by Bourdieu to get clear explanation of the relationship between the practices of people and the institutions, values and rules upon which they occur.

The concept of field as maintained by Bourdieu (1996) refers to the relation between the distribution of capital and different ‘habitus’; the outcome of practice as well as a classifier of practice. It is a structured space of positions, a force field that imposes its specific determinants upon all those who enter it. ‘Field’ is an arena of the battlefield or struggle. Institutions and agents utilize it to save and overturn the existing capital distribution and it is also a battlefield wherein there is a dispute about identity and hierarchy (Jeannotte, 2003). Individuals can adopt certain stances and move with certain potentialities, profits and costs because of the offers by ‘field’ and it also influences the way of thinking and conduct of especially the top echelon individuals, thus pursuing conservative strategies (Warde, 2006). There are examples of field such as economy, law, religion and politics that comprise of imbedded autonomous rules and forms of authority. According to Wacquant (2008:268) Bourdieu has identified two aspects of field, namely: “dispositions have been imposed on people entering a specific field; and the second aspect is that they are seen as struggle areas that agents and institutions utilise to preserve the existing capital distribution.”
2.3.2 Typology of cultural capital

Typology is synonymous with classification in which the phenomena of a domain under study are classified into types according to certain common features (Croft, 2003). The following types of cultural capital will be explored and discussed in the paragraphs below; embodied cultural capital, objectified cultural capital, institutionalised cultural capital and tangible and intangible cultural capital (Tzanakis, 2011).

2.3.2.1 Embodied cultural capital

Embodied cultural capital consists of both the consciously acquired and passively inherited properties of one’s self with inheritance here used not in the sense of receipt over time, but usually from the family through socialisation of culture and traditions (Silva, 2006). It is also referred to as a form of long-lasting disposition of the mind and body. Bourdieu (1989) asserts that attitudes, preferences, and behavior are forms of embodied capital and are thus considered embodied cultural capital that are parallel with various empirical manifestations. An example of these manipulations would be the buying-in of decisions by individuals who have to implement such decisions for the smooth running of organisations or institutions. These decisions need to be endorsed to acquire the status of collective agreement, but not that of dictatorship.

An embodied state refers to the work one does for oneself, an effort that presupposes personal cost and investment of time. As a result, embodied cultural capital cannot be transmitted instantaneously whilst functioning as symbolic capital (Bourdieu, 2001d). It seems to be the accumulation of cultural capital in a form that is referred to as culture, and cultivation. This presupposes the process of incorporation and embodiment, which implies the labor of inculcation and assimilation, costs time and time that must be invested personally by the investor. It also implies acquisition, which is the work on oneself, or self-empowerment that goes hand-in-hand with personal costs and investment (Bourdieu, 2001a).

Embodied cultural capital is regarded as external wealth transformed and transferred into an integral part of a person, into ‘habitus’, and as such it cannot be transmitted instantly by gift, purchase or exchange. It declines and dies with its bearer or holder’s biological capacity and memory (Bourdieu, 1996).
2.3.2.2 Objectified cultural capital

Objectified cultural capital consists of physical objects that are owned, such as scientific instruments or works of art and can be transmitted for economic gain or profit (Silva & Warde, 2010). These are in the form of cultural goods regarded as the trace of or realisation of theories or critique of these theories (Bourdieu, 2001b). Physical objects symbolically convey cultural capital, for example, a household that has access to paintings and books is rich in objectified cultural capital. It is that kind of capital, that is objectified in material objects and media. This objectified state, according to Bourdieu (2001d) is transferable by legal ownership, but does not constitute the precondition for specific appropriation. An example in this regard is a framed and autographed jersey of a sport team, but not the means of utilising it. Cultural goods can be appropriated materially, which presupposes economic capital and symbolic capital, which presupposes cultural capital (Bourdieu, 2001a).

According to Bourdieu (2002b), objectified cultural capital presents itself with all the appearances of an autonomous, coherent universe, which, although the product of historical action has its own laws, and transcends individual wills, can be appropriated by its agent. This capital exists as symbolically and materially active, effective capital only if it is appropriated by agents, implemented and invested as a weapon and field of cultural production (Silva & Warde, 2010).

2.3.2.3 Institutionalised cultural capital

Institutionalised cultural capital consists of institutional recognition, most often in the form of academic credentials or qualifications of the cultural capital held by an individual (Bourdieu, 1996). When a person acquires a degree, diploma or certificate of learning or competency, it indicates institutionalised cultural capital. This certificated person tells the society that they are intelligent, learned in their respective majors, concentrations, minors, and worthy of jobs or positions.

When an institutional recognition of cultural capital possessed by a person is conferred, the qualification, according to Bourdieu (2001c), makes it possible to compare qualification holders and even exchange them by way of substituting one for another in succession. There is monetary
value attached to a given academic capital because of the conversion rate between cultural capital and economic capital. Thus in turn, the holders of a given qualification have a potential monetary value that can be exchanged on the labor market.

2.3.2.4 Tangible and Intangible cultural capital

The concept cultural capital was defined in earlier paragraphs as an asset that stores or gives rise to cultural value in addition to whatever economic value it may possess (Ulibarri, 2000). It implies that cultural capital does not only involve intangible assets, but it also includes assets that are tangible, for example, values as intangible assets and museums as tangible assets (Tzanakis, 2011).

Cultural capital according to Eames (2006) describes the value of culture when measured as an asset in terms of economic, social and environmental resources. It is the forms of knowledge, skill, education, and an advantage a person has which gives them a higher status in society, including higher expectations. It can be used in the same way as money as our cultural inheritance can be translated into social resources, for example, wealth, power and status. Robinson and Williams (2001:55) state that ‘cultural capital is an important aspect of social capital and social capital is an expression of cultural capital in practice’. Social capital is based on and grows from the norms, values, networks and ways of operating.

Two distinct possibilities set cultural capital apart from the other forms of capital. First, it is proposed that items of cultural capital are simple cultural elements that are not consumable as consumption goods (Ulibarri, 2000). Second, an alternative approach to defining cultural capital according to Trosby (2001) and Wright (2006) is in terms of the types of tangible value to which cultural assets give rise.

A sports playing field, as an example, may have a potential sale price, but over and above that it may have historical significance unable to be expressed in monetary terms. It may have had an influence over time on architectural styles; it may act as a symbol of identity or place, issues that
cannot be converted into objective monetary value. Table 2.1 below indicates examples of tangible and intangible forms of cultural capital (Ulibarri, 2000).

Table 2.1 Tangible and intangible forms of cultural capital (designed by the researcher)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TANGIBLE CULTURAL CAPITAL</th>
<th>INTANGIBLE CULTURAL CAPITAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Art works</td>
<td>• Values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Artefacts (paintings &amp; sculpture)</td>
<td>• Beliefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Heritage buildings</td>
<td>• Inherited traditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Literature</td>
<td>• Standards</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Intangible cultural capital exists in the cultural networks and relationships that support human activity (Brustad, 2010), and in the diversity of cultural manifestations within groups or communities, cultural “ecosystems” and cultural diversity (Trobsy, 2008). A cultural ‘ecosystem’ is defined as shared cultural networks and relationships that exist within a given or confined area or space.

Tangible forms of cultural capital manifest in the form of assets accumulated over a period of time which includes movable and immovable assets within a community or group of people (Trosby, 2008). Both tangible and intangible forms of cultural capital exist as capital assets, which could be assigned value in both economic and cultural terms at a given point in time.

2.4 FUNCTIONS OF CULTURAL CAPITAL

The subsequent paragraphs discuss and explore the functions of cultural capital that entails the social processes of reproducing certain race, power, privileges, class and social cohesion.
2.4.1 Social processes of cultural capital reproduction

According to Bourdieu (2002a) cultural capital makes explicit the social processes of reproducing race and class privileges and exclusions in societies that are far along in the historic process of individualised exclusion. It plays a pivotal role in ensuring that there is reproduction of dominant social relations and structures. This process entails the development of institutions that carry out class and race exclusions in impersonal and individualised ways (Bourdieu, 1996). Cultural capital can be acquired, to a large extent, relying solely on the time, the society and the social class whilst its transmission and acquisition are more obscured than those of economic capital (Bourdieu, 2001a). It accumulates over time and is invested in, and according to Bourdieu, consumption of cultural activities cannot be unreflective for the reason of pure enjoyment. Over and above this, Dumais (2002) maintains that there is linguistic and cultural competence within cultural capital going hand-in-hand with knowing the culture of the upper class comprehensively.

Cultural capital is also familiar with society’s dominant culture with more emphasis on the fact that the key feature is the ability to utilise educated language (Sullivan, 2001). It is viewed as a class attribute that forms the basis for social selection in life and a resource for power indicating class position in a given time and in the society. In Bourdieu and Passeron’s cultural capital theory (2000), cultural capital is seen as being used as platform for exclusion from resources, jobs and high status groups. Bourdieu and Passeron (2000) expose four major forms of exclusion: 1) over-selection, 2) direct selection, 3) relegation and 4) self-elimination. In the realm of over-selection, individuals who are less endowed with cultural resources are prone to the same kind of selection of those who are culturally advantaged. Individuals affected by relegation exclusion are said to be having less cultural resources and as such end up in positions that are not enticing, thus get less out of their investment.

Exclusion is viewed as a form of power, which is more pervasive (Bourdieu, 2001c). This in turn yields disgust, alienation, anguish, humiliation, despair, frustration and disruption (Bourdieu, 2001b). It implies that cultural capital is used to exercise power which is not a power of influence over certain decisions made, but it is used to shape other people’s lives by means of exclusion and imposition which is symbolic. This kind of power supports the claim that specific
cultural norms and practices are more superior than others, which then authenticate these claims in the regulation of behavior and access to resources. Cultural capital’s focus is on the reproduction of power structures without giving any judgment on the effects that the reproduction has (Schuller, 2000).

On the other hand, Stempel (2001) argues that cultural capital exposes the socially denied fact that differences in the distribution of knowledge, abilities, tastes and dispositions are immersed in the leisure and freedom from the pressures of necessity that the dominant classes have. Cultural capital thus becomes economic capital put in use by the dominant classes to distance themselves from the non-dominant classes and maintain exclusive access to the most valued and valuable resources, positions, activities and institutions (Bourdieu, 2002a). The concept of cultural capital put to light the crux of positive interaction between cultural traditions and social styles and also mutual respect that develop between cultural groupings. It also brings to the fore the necessity of having a culturally aware society that has matured socially in order to handle behavioral problems (Eames, 2006).

2.4.2 Social cohesion
Social cohesion is defined as the capacity of a society or organisation to ensure welfare of all its members, minimising disparities and avoiding polarization (Ritzen, 2000). In essence, it is when members are brought together by a pulling-force for a common goal, which is beneficial to the organisation and helping to meet the objectives of the organisation in question. The concept of social cohesion is viewed as a policy goal focused on, making sure that all people are given an opportunity to improve their situation; are guaranteed basic social rights and decent accommodation and enough medical care (Ritzen, 2000). Social cohesion plays an important role in framing policy discussions within organisations with a creation of a social cohesion network (McCree, 2009).

Social cohesion as stated by Jeannotte (2003) describes society where a variety of groups or institutions, for example sport federations, knit together effectively despite differences. It shows high degrees of willingness to work together and consider the different needs and priorities that are of paramount importance to the sustenance of the institution. The Senate of Canada (1999) asserts that social cohesion is underpinned by individual opportunities (including education, jobs
and health); family well-being (including parental responsibility); strong communities (including safe and reliant communities); and national identity (including history, heritage, culture and rights and entitlements).

A number of dimensions of the concept of social cohesion are identified in theoretical literature (Jeannotte, 2003). Social cohesion has six dimensions, which are 1) equality-inequality, recognition-rejection (referring to the degree of respect and toleration of differences), 2) legitimacy-illegitimacy) with respect to the institutions that act as mediators of social relations), 3) inclusion-exclusion (as regards the degree of equality of social and economic opportunities), 4) belonging-isolation (involving the extent of shared values, identities, and feelings of commitment), and 5) participation and involvement. Social cohesion is based on the willingness of individuals to cooperate and work together at all levels of society to achieve collective goals (Jeannotte, Stanley, Pendakur, Jamieson, Williams & Aizelwood, 2002).

### 2.5 DEFINING SOCIAL CAPITAL

Social capital is a form of capital that comes into being by means of social processes existing between the ‘family’ and broader society and is constituted or made up of social networks (Silva, 2005). The term social capital refers to social networks that help society or groups of individuals like sports teams to function effectively (Hoye & Nicholson, 2009). Included are voluntary associations, for example; community groups, sports and cultural clubs that provide links between people in the community and enable them to be more effective in business, politics and a wide range of social activities (Robinson & Williams, 2001).

According to Jarvie (2003) and Putnam (2001), social capital helps community members to resolve collective problems more easily, increases connections between community members, and allows communities to achieve goals more smoothly. Social capital plays a role in Bourdieu’s theory of cultural capital, in that someone who aspires to move up the social hierarchy, who has accumulated the necessary qualifications and taste, still needs social connections for their qualifications to be translated into admission into a class faction of higher status.
2.5.1 **Typology of social capital**

Bonding, bridging and linking social capital are types of social capital that will be explored in this study.

Bonding social capital, according to Putnam (2001), refers to close ties between kin or informal networks of strong family ties, neighbors and close friends producing resources that help individuals to get along. It is observed in player-to-player interactions where relationships between people who are similar are formed (Joubert, & de Beer, 2010). Communities and individuals in linking social capital have the capacity to leverage ideas, resources and information that emanate from institutions that are formally outside the close community. In this concept, individuals feel that they share common identity and meet frequently and as such the strength of expectations and obligations amongst them are reinforced (Schuller, 2000).

According to Spaaij (2010) bonding social capital’s relationships are characterised by frequency, hierarchy, heterogeneity and homogeneity which in essence give rise to strong ties between individuals. An example in this regard is the family networks with defined roles which then imply that individuals feel that they share common identity and frequently meet with the sense of expectation and obligation.

The concept of bridging social capital refers to the relationships developed with people that are different from oneself for example between players and spectators, albeit a conceptual rather than implicit relationship (Spaaij, 2010). Bridging social capital networks have more distant ties with some people, such as loose friendships and colleagues (Jarvie, 2003). It goes with resources helping individuals to change their opportunity structures. As a result of this, networks are perceived as excellent linkages to assets from outside (Putnam, 2001).

Spaaij (2010) asserts that bridging social capital exists as a result of a combination of frequency, heterogeneity and homogeneity referring to informal groups. It is not hierarchical and thus what motivate people to gather together are the similarities and the perception that they are without a definite productive purpose. The group can be openly accessible and can also be repetitively contacting one another, thus individuals develop that trust whilst sharing some common value (Spaaij, 2010). Bridging social capital in this regard breeds the notion of “reaching-out” which
in essence is a process of individuals giving a helping hand to one another or interacting in personal capacity as equals or not equals. This in a way is an informal exercise for the benefit of all individuals involved.

Putnam (2001) maintains that linking social capital is that type of capital that links people or groups to those further up or lower down the social ladder. It is formal networks connecting members of voluntary organisations and formal networks of activists in political parties. The relations that exist in linking social capital are between people and groups of social strata that are different; and these people are in dissimilar situations, for example, people who are outside the community or group (Spaaij, 2010). Social relationships that develop within linking social capital are in a hierarchical format in organizations that are formal; and what strengthen the ties are the frequent interactions, but not the homogeneity (Field, 2003). The relationships as purported by Putnam (2001) are between co-workers who have frequent interaction instead of homogeneity among individuals and the roles are well defined within the group with repetitious interactions.

### 2.5.2 Functions of social capital

Social capital is a multi-dimensional concept that has dimensions such as relationships, trust reciprocity and action for common purpose (Hoye & Nicholson, 2009). From a cohesion perspective, the concept of bridging social capital is equivalent to “cross-cultural contact” and is a means by which society can begin to break down barriers and develop understanding and trust between different communities (Wilson, 2002). Bourdieu (1996) maintains that social capital is the aggregate of the actual or potential resources, which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition, or membership in a group providing each of its members with the backing of the collectivity owned capital entitling them to credit. The relationships alluded to above may exist in the practical state, material or symbolic exchange helping to maintain them.

Social capital according to Schuller (2000) improves governmental operations and systems that are in place and leads to increased community cooperative action whereby local common problems are solved. The linkages that exist amongst people are strengthened by increased social
capital and this as a result diffuses innovations. The quantity and quality of information that flows between groups are improved by increased social capital, which also reduces costs of transactions (Jarvie, 2003). Lastly, risks are pooled together allowing people to pursue more risky and higher return activities.

2.6 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURAL AND SOCIAL CAPITAL

The following section of this chapter discusses the relationship between cultural and social capital. Two concepts or terms (cultural and social capital) are used in the social sciences to put into perspective analogous concepts pertaining to social resources that are derived or gotten from social interaction (social capital) and reproduction of power (cultural capital). Putnam (2001) asserts that cultural capital and social capital are concepts that are contested with debates and claims that relate to their relationship. Both concepts of cultural capital and social capital are reflections on people whereby the former reflects the way people know the world, how they act within it including traditions and language. It has an influence on the voices heard and listened to whilst having an impact on certain areas. On the other hand, social capital entails the reflection of people and organisation connections (“social glue”) which make things positive or negative; in essence things happen because of social capital.

Social capital as concept originates in the work of scholars such as James Coleman, Robert Putnam and Pierre Bourdieu who share the thrust or focus on social relations aspects which entails, values, norms, and networks. The concept of cultural capital is associated with the French Sociologist Pierre Bourdieu (2000b) who maintains that cultural capital is the credentials and cultural assets embodied in individuals and their families. It focuses on the way power structures are reproduced. The social relations aspects, for example, norms and values only manifest in people, as they are capable of forming networks. Networks that are formed in this regard, give rise to social bonds. It is in families whereby, one finds social bonds that are characterised by class inequalities. Social bonds come up with sustenance of individual connections and are derived from social capital, which explains class inequalities. The existence of class inequalities on its own indicates the existence of social capital within a set environment or milieu.
Bourdieu (2001b) maintains that social capital is a durable network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition. An individual’s membership to a certain group which depends on capital possessions does not mean that social capital is something that is given naturally, but it has to be acquired and when acquired, it has to be used (Hoyle & Nicholson, 2009). In acquiring social capital, it means engaging in the process of using knowledge and skills that are a form of cultural capital, this is indicative of the link between cultural and social capital.

Cultural capital refers to long-lasting dispositions of the mind and body, namely, skills, knowledge, competencies and representation of self-image (Bourdieu, 2001c). These dispositions are displayed in individuals as cultural capital, which implies that it is more likely for such people to gain acceptance and status in society thus acquiring social capital. When an individual has a social network, that individual is likely to have more opportunities and as such obtaining economic capital which can in turn be re-invested in cultural capital.

According to Coleman (1999), social capital is intangible social resources based on social relationships that a person can draw upon to facilitate action and to achieve goals. In contrast to the definition above, Bourdieu and Passeron (2000) assert that cultural capital consists of investment in a set of symbols and meanings reproduced by the dominant class of a society and passed down, or reproduced through generations. Cultural capital reproduction and investment serve to include or marginalise individuals in society leading to unequal social and economic rewards (Bourdieu, 2001d).

The concept of cultural capital links with social capital in that it acts as social relation that is found within a system of exchange having accumulated cultural knowledge that confers power and status (Bourdieu, 2001a). Once there is social relation, it means social capital is prevalent because it is said to be resources based on group membership, relationships, networks of influence and support (Markula & Pringle, 2006). As stated in this section, cultural capital reproduces a social class inequality, which in essence covers the fundamental characteristics of social capital. In social capital, there is connection of individuals who are confident when it comes to their social investment and they have a great sense of belonging (Bourdieu, 2000b).
This in turn implies that such individuals acquired skills and knowledge as they play a more active role in their communities, and it also infers that social capital interlinks with cultural capital in this regard (social relationships and skills and knowledge) (Bourdieu, 2001b).

Cultural capital as a social sciences concept is used in explaining the hierarchical reproduction that in essence is social capital because it is through this reproduction that an individual can maintain an elite position (Bourdieu, 2000c). Once position comes to the fore, it means social interaction kicks in, which is in a way part of social capital. The reproduction of power structures as in cultural capital cannot be done in a void, but it develops or comes into being within a circle of individuals. This infers that it touches on social capital, which according to Coleman (1990) focuses on networks or the relationships within and between them, and the norms governing the same relationships.

2.7 RECOGNISABLE ELEMENTS OF CULTURAL AND SOCIAL CAPITAL

In the preceding paragraphs cultural and social capital were discussed. It became evident that both cultural capital and social capital manifest through specific elements. In order to assess an organisation’s ability to facilitate or enable cultural capital, elements of cultural capital and social capital need to be identified.

Tables 2.2 and 2.3 below present specific elements and indicators based on the theoretical analysis and discussion of cultural and social capital.
### Table 2.2: Recognisable elements of cultural capital (designed by the researcher)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELEMENTS OF CULTURAL CAPITAL</th>
<th>ORGANISATIONAL INDICATORS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language practices</td>
<td>Inclusive/exclusive language policies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational culture</td>
<td>Strategies and opportunities for diverse cultural backgrounds and skills to act and socialise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diverse norms and values</td>
<td>Perceptions of what is socially desirable and realisation of values. The following are values: brotherhood, freedom and happiness, peace, obedience, honesty and beauty. The levels of norms are at these levels: individual, structural and cultural/symbolic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embodied cultural capital</td>
<td>Opportunities to demonstrate diverse tastes and preferences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectified cultural capital</td>
<td>Tangible art works, artefacts, buildings, literature, and historical records. Intangible organisational values, beliefs, traditions, standards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional cultural capital</td>
<td>Employee recognition through certificates, merit awards and qualifications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class hierarchy</td>
<td>Processes, structures and policies to indicate hierarchy: organograms, job titles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Habitus</td>
<td>Employee expectations, active lifestyles and disposition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field</td>
<td>Structural social spaces and opportunities where employees can socialise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exclusion</td>
<td>Policies and practices that exclude individuals or groups based on language, tastes, preferences, values, and qualifications, physical and cognitive abilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social cohesion</td>
<td>Access and opportunities for social gatherings. Opportunities to work together in committees, groups or task teams.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELEMENTS OF SOCIAL CAPITAL</td>
<td>ORGANISATIONAL INDICATORS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social networks</td>
<td>Society or groups of individual and teams function effectively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sports and cultural clubs provide links between people in the community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bonding social capital</td>
<td>Close ties between kin or informal networks of close friends. Produced resources that help individuals to get along.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relationships are characterised by frequency, hierarchy, heterogeneity and homogeneity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Defined roles and sharing common identity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bridging social capital</td>
<td>Relationships of people who are different. More distant ties with same people such as close friends and colleagues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group similarities and perceptions. The belief that people are without definite productive purpose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Process of individuals giving helping hand to one another or interaction on personal capacity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linking social capital</td>
<td>Linking people or groups to those further up or lower down the social ladder.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formal networks connecting members of voluntary organisations. Social relationships in hierarchical format in formal organisations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relationships are between co-workers who have frequent interaction instead of homogeneity among individuals and roles are well defined.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.3 Recognisable elements of social capital (designed by the researcher) (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELEMENTS OF SOCIAL CAPITAL</th>
<th>ORGANISATIONAL INDICATORS</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multi-dimensional</td>
<td>Existence of dimensions such as relationships, trust reciprocity and action for common purpose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governmental operations and systems</td>
<td>Increased community cooperative action whereby local problems are solved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linkages amongst people are strengthened by increased social capital and as such diffuse innovations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quantitative and qualitative information that flows between groups are improved and this reduces costs of transactions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social investment</td>
<td>Individuals have a sense of belonging due to their confidence in social investment. Skills and knowledge are acquired by individuals as they play a more active role in communities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social relation/ Social bonds</td>
<td>Resources based on group membership, relationships, networks of influence and support.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intangible social resources</td>
<td>Social relationships that a person can draw upon to facilitate action and to achieve goals. There is investment in a set of symbols and meanings reproduced by the dominant class of society and passed down or reproduced through generations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual or potential resources</td>
<td>Link to possession of durable network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual acquaintance or membership in a group. Each member is provided with the backing of the collectivity capital entitling them to credit.</td>
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2.8 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This chapter explored the holistic concept of ‘capital’, defined and discussed the concepts of cultural and social capital in detail, co-concepts of cultural capital, the typology of cultural and social capital, and their functions and in the next chapter lays the foundation for the application of sport as cultural capital in the South African Police Service. The literature that was reviewed provided theoretical background that supported the conceptual framework related to this study and benchmarks in the sport environment. The researcher also discussed the relationship between cultural capital and social capital.

The next chapter (Chapter Three) entails the application of the concepts of cultural capital, social capital, sport, power, politics and sport policy-making in the South African Police Service (SAPS).
CHAPTER THREE

SPORT AS CULTURAL CAPITAL IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Researchers (Ritzen, 2000; Bourdieu, 2001; Putnam, 2001; Adler & Kwon, 2002; Coalter, 2004; Hoye, 2008; Nicholson & Hoye, 2008;) refer to the concept of sport as cultural capital in the contexts of general organisations and law enforcement agencies. Coalter (2004), for example, contributes the ongoing and recent awareness of the significance of opportunities to engage in sport in law enforcement agencies, to it being recognised and accepted as a basic human need. Bourdieu (2001c) defines cultural capital as ideas and knowledge that people within communities draw on as they engage in social life. Although access to and opportunity to engage in sport is integrated into the infrastructure of the SAPS, it operates strongly within the social domain of societies as a human need. Employers who approach sport as an additional way to address and satisfy human needs could achieve increased collective benefits for the organisation. In this regard Ritzen (2000) argues that employee sport within organisations could have health benefits that translate into economic benefits due to lower rates of absenteeism. The creation of social cohesion within organisations through sport results in a close-knit workforce. In this study it is argued that sport activity infrastructure in the SAPS could be an asset in the form of cultural and social capital to maintain fitness levels and forge engagement and cohesion.

In the rest of the chapter, the key concepts of cultural capital, social capital, power, politics and policy-making are applied in the context of the SAPS. An overview of sport infrastructure and practices precedes the application.

3.2 AN OVERVIEW OF SPORT IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

The South African Police Service (Department of Police) gives its employees an opportunity to participate in sport for physical fitness purposes and interrelation with other law enforcement agencies such as Department of Correctional Services, South African Defence Force and City of Tshwane Metropolitan Police Department. This is done on duty and at cost to the organisation (South African Police Service Standing Order (General) 203, 2004). All SAPS sport participants
are paid for by the Department of Police and there is no need for special leave as it deemed to be done on duty. It is during the inter-forces championships that good practices are shared and relationships are forged amongst the law enforcement agencies. Police officers exchange ideas and share good practices that benefit the law enforcement agencies. Participants share good work practices on crime combating and crime fighting in a more relaxed manner during sport events. The way sport activities are organised by the local organising committees rubs off on other law enforcement agencies by learning how to organise and manage projects and events.

Sport and recreation activities within the South African Police Service are the responsibility of the Division: Human Resource Development (HRD), Component: Basic Police Development and Section: Sport and Recreation Management. There is, therefore, an approved structure of sport within the organisational structure of the Division: HRD. The sub-section Sport: Sport Coordination and Physical Fitness Maintenance is responsible for delivering sport services to SAPS members. These structures are mandated to manage and organise sport by the South African Police Service Standing Order (General) 203 (2004) which is the legal framework or sport policy in the Department of Police (refer to Figure 1.1, the organisational structure that appears in Chapter One, Page 12).

The Division: HRD through Section: Sport and Recreation Management provides the policies, programmes and services that encourage greater participation of all SAPS employees in sport and active recreation. Sport and recreation activities not only provide a range of benefits at the individual level, it also helps bring people together (social cohesion), builds a stronger workforce or communities which are physically and mentally healthy (Hoye & Nicholson, 2009). Even though SAPS top management is sometimes reluctant in recognising the benefits of sport in the Police, there is a growing awareness of the social, physical and health benefits of employees’ participation in sport and recreation. Through sport and recreation, social values, norms and organisational policies are upheld and reflected so that a safe and enjoyable environment is provided for those who participate (Western Australia Government, 2007).

SAPS sport participation is structured in passive and active participation in terms of management and administration. The passive level of participation includes domestication and paternalism, whereby police officers participate by being told what has been decided or has already happened.
It is done unilaterally without taking into consideration people’s inputs or responses. The SAPS sport federations will be informed or be provided with the budget and year programme that they did not have a say in or to which they did not contribute. This practice could lead to insufficient resources such as finance, human and physical resources that are of paramount importance in ensuring that participation of employees in sport is efficient and effective. Once resources are insufficient, it could be one of the inhibiting factors that prevent the realisation of sport as cultural capital in the SAPS. Active participation includes cooperation and empowerment that involves people working with outsiders to implement activities intended to benefit participants. Decision-making is through dialogue and participants are involved in its implementation. In this case SAPS sport federations are involved in the planning of events. Both passive and active participation have sub-categories that are discussed in the paragraphs below as indicated in Figure 3.1

<table>
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<tr>
<th>ACTIVITIES</th>
<th>PROCESSES</th>
<th>PARTNERSHIPS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Manipulation</td>
<td>Domestication</td>
<td>Passive Partnership</td>
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<td>Therapy</td>
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<td>Forming</td>
<td>Paternalism</td>
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<td>Consultation</td>
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<td>Placation</td>
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<td>Placement</td>
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<tr>
<td>Partnership</td>
<td>Cooperation</td>
<td>Active Partnership</td>
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<td>Stakeholder Control</td>
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<td>Control</td>
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Figure 3.1 Forms of participation: South African Police Service employee sport (Adapted From: Deshler & Sock, 1985)
Domestication refers to participation where control over a given activity, for example SAPS sport, lies in the hands of planners, administrators or professionals. In this case, the total control of SAPS sport rests in the hands of the Division: Human Resource Development as the custodians. The management and administration of SAPS sport in this regard is achieved by using pseudo-participatory techniques to manipulate police officers to do what outsiders perceive as important rather than to empower participants (Rao, Nantiyal, Maikhuri & Saxen 2013). Passive participation partnership is imminent in this regard where there is manipulation and therapy forming. The SAPS federations committees for example, are democratically elected to serve in the committees and lead the participants in collaboration with the unit that manages sport within the SAPS. In this regard, the overall decision making within the sport milieu lies solely with SAPS management in relation to strategic SAPS sport matters. This excludes the members of SAPS sport federations who are doing sport administration and management on ad hoc basis. It is in this regard where the SAPS sport federations are seen as passive participants who are manipulated. This approach has a negative influence in the realisation of cultural capital within SAPS sport because the people who are doing the actual work at grass-root level are excluded from decision making and allocation of resources, for example, with regard to the budget.

Deshler and Sock (1985) assert that in paternalism power and control are solely in the hands of an external agent or an elite member. It implies that in SAPS sport participation, the patron in charge of a said SAPS sport federation, for example, the president of the sport federation with the rank of Lieutenant General or Major General, is in full control as an external person together with the sport federation’s executive committee members. The person is regarded as an external agent because she or he is not operating within the immediate sport federation environment, but she or he operates on an ad hoc basis as an elected patron. Members of the SAPS sport fraternity receive information and are consulted, assisted or placated. They may be informed about the activities, but have no influence over decision-making or control over benefits (Patwary, 2001). It is good for proper corporate governance, but not as a laissez faire kind of management style, and on the other hand this can inhibit the realisation of cultural capital within the SAPS.

Participation as cooperation involves SAPS sport federations working with outsiders, for example, civilians who are members of South African sport federations and school sport
associations to implement activities intended or meant to benefit them directly (Patwary, 2001). In this case, any decision taken within the SAPS sport environment is from the custodians of sport (SAPS sport unit), which is in collaboration with external people like volunteers in the South African Police Service sport federations. There is bilateral decision-making taking place and SAPS sport federation executive committee members are involved in the implementation of whatever decision is taken by SAPS management. There is also sharing of power and control, which is an inductive, bottom-up, rather than a top-down process or approach. This implies partnership and delegated powers in the process or approach.

The empowerment process refers to an approach in which police officers hold complete power over and are fully in control of a programme or an institution, for example, SAPS sport federations, including decision-making and administrative activities. This relates to SAPS sport federations as entities within the working environment. Participation occurs at the political level, meaning that office bearers are elected democratically by way of voting. The organisation benefits socially and culturally as the workforce becomes united due to social cohesion that is facilitated by participation in sport. This also includes development of skills such as time management, communication skills and inter-personal relations acquired through participation in sport. Economic benefits occur in the form of staff turn up, for example, individuals who take part in sport tend to be less absent at work due to sick leave. Empowerment of sport volunteers is achieved through growing consciousness, democratisation, solidarity and leadership (Rao, Nantiyal, Maikhuri & Saxena 2003). Sport volunteers’ participation usually characterises autonomous processes of mobilisation for structured, social and political changes as asserted by Rao et al., (2003). The SAPS sport federation executive members are brought together during forums such as a sport indaba or fitness conventions whereby ideas are shared. It is during these forums where planning is done taking into consideration sport coaching clinics and workshops for volunteers. SAPS sport federation members attend coaching clinics and administration courses that capacitate them to cope with the demands of various sporting codes and integrate and apply new trends in sport in general.

3. 2.1 Role of sport in the armed forces/services (law enforcement)
According to Young (2012) sport is not known as an institution that is quick to change, but neither is it static. The way sport changes itself to fit the ever-changing social climate of a
community is one of the dimensions of change visible in sport which also includes becoming exposed to and affected by external structures, expectations, policies and laws. Sport experiences social control whilst some sports are more socially controlled than others. Young (2012) asserts that sport occurs in a cultural context that normalises and glorifies risks amid an institutional network of social relationships. When one participates in sport, one is likely to have a wide range of possible socialisation experiences, both positive and negative.

Researchers such as Lauder, Baker, Smit and Lincoln, (2000), Phillips (2006), Young, Goslin, Potgieter, Nthangeni, and Modise (2011), and Young (2012) conducted studies on the role played by sport in law enforcement agencies or armed forces (police service), particularly on the benefits accrued. Sport within the armed forces prepares the army to be combat-ready and physically healthy to execute their mandate or duties, which is to serve and protect communities. Law enforcement sport is focused on promoting and maintaining military efficiency and morale of personnel and it is also through sport that members of the police force (service) achieve a state of relaxation away from their demanding work (Young, et al., 2011). In a military setting or law enforcement milieu, sport enables the force or service to achieve physical fitness, mental alertness and qualities of military readiness.

The South African Police Service Standing Order (General) 203, (2004) is the overall sport policy of the Department of Police which governs the management and administration of sport within the SAPS. The purpose of South African Police Service Standing Order (General) 203 of 2004 is to regulate the participation of SAPS employees in official sport in the Service and to support the morale and health of every employee. It is meant to ensure that SAPS employees are prepared for their daily tasks, and thus opportunities must be created to enable employees to function on an optimal level, both physically, emotionally and mentally. All operational members of SAPS have to be combat ready; as such, sport within the service is used for physical maintenance of the police officers. When members or police officers take part in sport, it prepares them for any physical activities the department organises. Police officers continuously engage in sport activities such as league games, club matches and trials for selection in provincial teams within the SAPS sporting environment. All police officers who participate in SAPS sport are regarded to be on official duty for the period during which they, on the authorisation of their commanders or seniors, participate in sport recognised by SAPS.
The paragraphs to follow highlight the impact and benefits of sport participation in the SAPS, and military readiness through sport participation in the SAPS.

### 3.2.1.1 The impact and benefits of sport participation in the SAPS

There is a growing or widening gap between physical activity and competitive sport in the South African Police Service. Individuals who are less competitive are removed from sport development groups thus leading to fewer personnel taking part in sport and those who participate are expected to compete for the few available places in international military games. Millward and Lovemore (2007) assert that modern, codified sport has been considered by many sociologists and political scientists, as a vehicle used both deliberately and unwittingly to help create and maintain collective identities. This is clearly the case within the SAPS because participants in sport are brought together from all corners of the country, in all nine provinces and as such social cohesion is promoted among SAPS participants through sport. Participants are afforded the opportunity to interact with one another at social level (social cohesion) where there are no constraints related to work or protocol. Sport as a social service in the SAPS, sets the stage for enduring engagement amongst the internal sporting fraternity (Groeneveld, 2009). The SAPS provincial sport teams compete against each other that translate into trans-provincial cooperation, which could include best practices in relation to the combating and fighting of crime. The SAPS members who are participants in sport gain mental and physical fitness that are inherent requirements of being a police officer. Socially, the SAPS gains in that the officers participating in sport become a coherent workforce that is united by one common goal of participating in sport.

SAPS sports federations receive their funding from national government on the premise or basis that they deliver sport as a social service to their employees. Employees of SAPS are allowed to work within sport federations on a voluntary basis as providers of technical and managerial support and as a liaison with the SAPS section responsible for sport. The role of these individuals is replicated through three (3) main levels of SAPS sport: National, Provincial and Local. SAPS top management members are included in SAPS sport federations committees as co-opted or elected Presidents. This in itself means that a representative within the top echelon of the Department of Police is assigned to each sporting code and is responsible for good
governance as stipulated in the Department of Police’s overall sport policy (SAPS SO(G) 203). According to Groeneveld (2009), this type of system may appear heavily bureaucratic, but it represents a deep commitment by all involved to the co-governance of sport and to the role that sport plays as an integral part of cultural capital. There is interaction from all levels of SAPS with the common goal of good governance of sport through which in its execution, cultural capital is accumulated. Members learn and develop in the process and share knowledge which could be transferred to other work and life situations.

Sport offers more for the development of people than just a form of exercise to reduce the risk of developing lifestyle diseases. For many people, sport forms a significant part of their lives, shaping their development into members of society, organisations or departments and kind of people they become or develop into (Phillips, 2006). Sport could have a positive influence on employees’ performance. It contributes immensely towards high levels of employees’ commitment to organisations and their programs (Mokaya et al., 2012). SAPS sport and recreation activities help to boost employees’ productivity by meeting their physical and psychological needs, which in turn reduces the rate of absenteeism, sick leave, and medical costs (Phillips, 2006). This gives rise to increased working hours by healthy employees due to concentration that is at its highest level leading to improved organisational efficiency and profitability.

The role of sport and recreation in the police environment is multi-faceted in that, according to Lauder et al., (2011), it creates physical fitness, flexibility, mental alertness and qualities of military-readiness. Sport can also be used to build or create a platform that boosts the morale of the police by creating inter-rank links or relations outside the parameters of potentially threatening organisational (hierarchical) structures. At international level, countries show their superiority over other countries when winning the Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Cooperation Organisation (SARPCCO) Games which is an indication of various political intentions. The political intentions are brought about by the cross-border engagements because of sport whereby policing matters are discussed and good practices are shared by countries. The mandate of combating crime on the part of the police chiefs is given by the political heads of the countries, who are heads that have been voted into power. This on its own encourages
international and national integration of law enforcement or crime fighting (combating) which is a positive indicator of patriotism.

A growing body of research, Lauder, Baker, Smit, & Lincoln (2000), Hollander & Burnett (2002), Phillips (2006), Young et al., (2011), Mokaya, & Gitani (2012) also suggest that participation in sport and active recreation has benefits. It has an impact on social factors such as community pride, identity, crime prevention, crime combating, crime awareness campaigns, the development and maintenance of life skills and increased social networks that profit the country. Young et al., (2011) maintain that sport has a positive influence on employees’ performance. It contributes immensely towards high levels of employees’ commitment to the organisation. Sport and recreation plays a huge role in bonding amongst employee and with clients. Sport gives an opportunity for socialisation and strengthening ties among employees and clients (Mokaya & Gitari, 2012). Sport also helps in skills development such as leadership, interaction and communication that are essential in the provision of an effective police service delivery (New South Wales Sport and Recreation, 2006).

The SAPS identifies itself with those police officers whose physical appearance is appealing in terms of fitness in contrast to those that look unfit because of inherent job requirements of the police. Sport events that are sanctioned and funded by SAPS, are used as vehicles for crime prevention initiatives and as social networks for both the community and the SAPS. During such events, Community Police Forums host crime awareness campaigns in collaboration with SAPS units that are responsible for the provision of sport. When sport participants visit non-governmental organisations such as orphanages or shelters, community members are afforded the opportunity to interact with the police officers and socialise with them through sport thus creating social cohesion and role modelling.

3.2.1.2 Military readiness through sport participation in the SAPS

Sport is used as a vehicle to create military readiness and maintenance of physical fitness of the police officers within the South African Police Service as police officers are constantly deployed to areas where they have to be involved in crime combating and prevention. Literature suggests that participation in sport in police settings or law enforcement settings is used as a vehicle to
create military readiness and is mainly focused on promoting and maintaining police efficiency and morale (Young et al., 2011). According to Lauder, Baker, Smit and Lincoln (2000) military readiness is a function of the ability of a person to perform his or her full duty. This implies that if SAPS sport participants are military ready, they should be ready to execute their duties of policing or other support services. Physical fitness constitutes a major part of military readiness. The SAPS sport participants are given the opportunity to take part in institutionalised sport activities that contributes to the maintenance of physical fitness. Activities are also used as de-stress mechanisms, as policing conditions are stressful. The morale of SAPS police officers is boosted by the fact that during the SAPS sport activities, for example, championships, leagues for clubs and trials, there is spirit of competition and camaraderie as the players are gunning to outshine one another.

Lauder et al., (2000) assert that military readiness is a function or the ability of law enforcement officers to perform their full duty. The person referred to in the definition of military readiness, as asserted by Lauder et al., (2000), is a police officer or personnel in the law enforcement agencies who are operational, which means combating and preventing crime by maintaining law and order. The members of SAPS are trained in a military way; hence, the assertion of Lauder, et al (2000) includes them in the description. The needs of police officers should be met such as the provision of protective vests, guns and ammunition for shooting, sporting codes, to be in the position to focus on the task. Police officers as law enforcers need proper training and proper equipment that will enable them to confront any situation that needs their attention in their line of duty. The provision of resources such as physical resources (for example cars, guns and protective vests), financial resources, material resources and human resources should ensure that police officers deliver an efficient and effective service to the communities. In addition, police officers need to de-stress through sport and recreation as they work in stressful situations.

The demands of police work put police officers under tremendous stress and as such they need optimal utilisation of time to de-stress. Phillips (2006) asserts that conversely, lack of sport and recreation activities could result in decreased readiness because sport and physical fitness activities could contribute to task readiness or military readiness. Sport facilitates physical fitness maintenance, mental readiness and preparedness for police officers to cope with work challenges and the rigors police officers face daily. SAPS sport participants learn how to cope with stressful
situations and challenges of the working environment and the high demands of service delivery on both support and operational policing services. Acquiring knowledge and skills in sport participation, for example, time management, personal interrelation, working under pressure and discipline could be transferred to broader working demands of the SAPS.

Sport, according to Hollander and Burnett (2002) is sometimes manipulated to serve the ideology, political, social and religious purposes of influential leaders of institutions in society and institutions. Institutions such as SAPS are also prone to use sport as manipulating tool that promotes the leadership ideology and certain mandates and instructions. The SAPS as a law enforcement agent or organization that has employee sport within its environment uses manipulation of sport and sport practices to gain social control of the masses. This is used to enforce the organisational ‘work ethics’, facilitate societal control and structures to maintain the status quo in a variety of cultural contexts (Hollander & Burnett, 2002). Physical fitness is a priority in the SAPS due to work demands. It is thus evident that participation in sport activities, fitness and health projects or interventions should be focused on the enhancement of SAPS’s productivity (Hollander & Burnett, 2002). A healthy police force or service yields excellent results by serving communities as their external clients and serving the workforce as the internal client in regard to support services offered in accordance to organisational prescripts. Sport as a form of physical activity could contribute to the development of physical fitness, mental well-being, and social interaction, for example, recreation, play, competitive sport, indigenous games/sport and organised sport. These attributes as stated above are important for the optimal execution of duties by police officers, and thus effective and efficient service delivery.

3.2.2 Factors inhibiting sport participation in the SAPS

Although the contribution of sport participation to military readiness is documented, there are factors inhibiting sport participation in the SAPS such as bureaucratic red tape, work priority, crime fighting or combating and misinterpretation of participation in sport within law enforcement agencies. SAPS sport participants have to acquire permission first when they are called upon to take part in sport as police work enjoys priority. Some senior police officers misinterpret participation in sport within working hours as being misuse of time and resources whilst sport participants in fact benefit a lot, for example, fitness maintenance and reduction of
risks of getting diseases of lifestyle and unnecessary sick leave which depletes the fund of the medical aid. Bureaucratic red tape, organisational structures and policies, different schools of thought and power struggles in the organisation, and especially the SAPS sport federations, are inhibiting factors. Amusa, Toriola, Onyewadume and Dhaliwal, (2008) maintain that sport participation is also constrained by socio-economic, socio-cultural, facility awareness and accessibility barriers. The latter part of this statement is, however, not the case in SAPS as members have access to private and state-owned facilities. Bureaucratic red tape is perceived as an inhibiting factor when it comes to sport participation in the SAPS as it takes time to obtain approval to participate in sport. For example, SAPS sport participants who need authorisation to practice and prepare for championships might not have that time authorised. This goes hand-in-glove with SAPS’s organisational structures that have considerable hierarchical impediments when it comes to sport activities. An application for approval to take part in sport activities often takes longer than expected such that the scheduled date of the activity might lapse whilst approval is awaited.

The power struggle within SAPS sport federations and operational units become impediments towards sport participation due to different belief systems and views of members in SAPS management positions. For example, time off given to participants to prepare for the SAPS championships, might be seen by some as waste of government resources and time as it is during working hours. Yet other views might be in line with the sport policy that states that police officers should be afforded opportunities to play sport during working hours upon approval by commanders.

The South African Police Service Standing Order (General) 203 of 2004 as a national sports policy allocates the majority of funding to elite sport interests. Green and Houlihan, (2004) maintain that it is generally accepted that sport policies are focused on the parallel objectives of enhancing elite sport performance and increasing the proportion of employees involved in formalised competitive sport and physical activity. This applies to national and provincial championships and all international games which the SAPS takes part in. There are, however, some impediments or inhibiting factors in sport participation as dictated by policy formulation and its implementation within the SAPS. The formulation and development of policy takes place within a particular context (Sam, 2005) such as combating and reducing crime in the case of SAPS as the SAPS core business commitments or working circumstances at times do not
permit sport participation. Crime fighting is the core business of the SAPS, thus it will always enjoy preference as opposed to sport, which is a support service that will take second place after the core business. Police officers are at times not released to attend SAPS sport championships because the work schedule does not permit it as they have to combat and fight crime. In the SAPS, sport is a support service that is utilised to maintain the fitness levels of employees and used as a form of destressing for police officers.

Stakeholders and/or established committees such as the SAPS Multi-Sport Committee (MSC) and SAPS sport federations, function as advisory structures and as part of the national governance structures of sport. This is taken as a clear recognition of the importance of adopting a participatory, consultative and collaborative approach to sport development by means of involvement of all the main interest groups in the organization of sport (McCree, 2009). The approach to sport by SAPS top management, however, creates some limitations and reservations. Even though the sport policy lays down specific policy goals and methods, SAPS top management often disregards the policy. When examining the convergent and resurgent character of sport policy in general as asserted by McCree, (2009), attention must be given to the following factors: the approach to its formulation, its contents (i.e. objectives), legitimising framework, the ways and means (mechanisms) and its implementation. These factors are reflected in the SAPS sport policy except when it comes to the implementation of the sport policy. Part of SAPS leadership and management do not recognise the privileges that the SAPS sport policy accord to all employees when participating in sport during working hours. Their response and actions contradict what is enshrined in the South African Police Service Standing Order (General) 203 of 2004. Employees are sometimes denied the privilege of participating in organised SAPS sport activities due to the bias of the supervisors or commanders who do not see the importance of sport in the lives of the sport participants and the SAPS as a public service.

Chain of command and lines of accountability for the organisation (SAPS) and other units or components, for example, the component where sport resorts, are more firmly drawn upwards than downwards. They are drawn to key partners such as national governing bodies of sport and their traditional stakeholders, for example, clubs, members, volunteers, coaching bodies, and associations. What emerges is a dual centre of power which manages, through a
command and control regime, to guide the ways in which implementation of sport policy is administrated as suggested by Houlihan and Green (2009). This in itself gives rise to abuse of power and inconsiderate implementation of decisions taken, thus defeating the end of the sport policy and not realizing sport as cultural capital. SAPS sport participants are denied the privilege of participating in sport activities thus being denied the opportunities of broadening, for example their time management skills, inter-personal relations and social cohesion that are brought about by participating in sport. It is an inhibiting factor in terms of participation of police officers in official sport because some will be denied the opportunity of taking part in sport citing the instructions from the powers that may be or superiors.

When developing sport policies, ideas as to who should administer or manage are attempts to address issues of jurisdiction, responsibility and authority (Sam, 2003). The SAPS top management, through sport policy, assigns responsibility to volunteers to continue delivering services, but volunteers are disallowed to perform autonomously. That becomes an inhibiting factor when it comes to sport participation. For example, though resources might continue to flow to bodies such as SAPS sport federations, Multi-Sport Committee and local organising committees from the Department of Police, it has been emphasised that any future allocations of funds are subjected to specific guidelines and requirements. In this context, SAPS top management upheld the primacy of central control over the sport system’s future direction as described by Stothart, (2000). SAPS top management is viewed in the context of demands of greater administrative control and also exerting more influence over the operations of national and provincial sport bodies. In cases such as these, as illustrated by Collins and Downey (2000), there is formalisation and standardisation of federations through funding commitments. There are formal structures, for example, the Multi- Sport Committee, Commissioner Sports Fund, and Local Organising Committees that are established to assist in the normal running of SAPS sport. These entities are used in implementing command and control and in monitoring and evaluation of the activities of sport volunteers’ committees. The inconsistent decisions that are sometimes taken by SAPS leadership, for example, not affording SAPS sport participants the opportunity to attend training sessions and coaching clinics, may inhibit sport in the SAPS.
3.2.3 Governance framework and organisational arrangements

There are regulatory frameworks that allow external individuals or groups of people to get involved in the governance of SAPS sport. There is approved policy document called Standing Order (General) 203 of 2004 in SAPS. There are other related documents or Government Acts, such as, the South African Police Service Act, 1995 (Act No.66 of 1995); South African Police Service Act, 2008; Public Finance Management Act, 1999 (Act No.1 of 1999); Fitness Industry Regulations, 2009; Occupational Health and Safety Act, 1993 (Act No. 85 of 1993); Basic Conditions of Employment Act, 1997 (Act No. 75 of 1997); and National Sport and Recreation Act, 1998 (Act No. 110 of 1998). These regulatory frameworks, standing orders, national instructions and Acts regulate all permanent serving members, for example, sport coordinators and sport scientists and volunteers within the SAPS sport environment. The governance framework and organisational arrangements of SAPS sport should create conditions to deliver high-quality interdisciplinary and solution-oriented sport in partnership with all relevant stakeholders. For SAPS to achieve this, it needs robust and flexible governance structures to provide enough administrative and management support, linking work priorities and actionable sport interventions. This could in turn lead to building capacity across the country to produce and apply results-focused sport programmes in the SAPS. Such sport programmes could contribute towards accrual of social capital and cultural capital in the South African Police Service by empowering sport participants in terms of improvement of communication skills, problem-solving skills and discipline.

The role of SAPS sport federations may seem simplistic, but it is not. SAPS sport federation executive committee members play a pivotal role in ensuring the existence of sport clubs, the hosting of national championships and international games, for example SARPCCO Games (Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Cooperation Organisation Games). They also provide individuals or participants with the opportunity of playing and making an input in policy matters (Groeneveld, 2009). Both participants and individual members of SAPS sport federation executive committees participate as volunteers, who manage clubs, coach teams, play the sport, set up pitches, and officiate during games. All these are done at the grassroots level within the SAPS sport environment where there is co-production of sport and its related activities. This is even though sport faces challenges when it comes to governance from leaders and managers who
are the sole decision makers. Across the spectrum of SAPS sport governance, it is worth noting that there is variability of both levels of awareness the federations and the department has (Groeneveld, 2009). Figure 3.2 below, provides an overview of the governance structure for the South African Police Service sport.

Figure 3.2: Schematics of the governance structure for the South African Police Service Sport (designed by the researcher)
Development of programmes, standards, policies and procedures for making inputs in standing orders to address the sport needs within the SAPS is the responsibility of the Division: Human Resource Development as custodians of sport and volunteers’ structures such as SAPS sport federations and Multi-Sport Committee. Research, implementation and enforcement of sport policies fall within the mandate of the national sport office, provincial sport offices and cluster stations as indicated in Figure 3.2. This means that; sport governance within the SAPS is collaboratively done by both participants (committee members) and internal members (sport officers).

Groeneveld (2009) maintains sport governance, however, faces the challenges of confronting the decisions made at top management and sport federations. In this case it could relate to SAPS sport volunteers and SAPS top management where the volunteers shy away from being confrontational when it comes to questioning certain decisions that are taken and implemented unilaterally. From the side of SAPS top management it could be easy to confront and unilaterally change any decisions taken by SAPS sport federations as a matter of policy and principle within the sport environment without consulting sport federations.

It appears that sport federations according to Groeneveld (2009) have the ability to be on the front line of public service delivery regarding social issues and their potential for positive social impact. During the SAPS national sport championships the provincial teams are involved in social investment or activities for designated groups or entities within the community where the events are hosted. Common examples could be orphanages, old age homes and previously disadvantaged schools that benefit from the gestures shown by SAPS provincial sport teams in the form of donations. The donations in question range from blankets, school uniforms, books, groceries, sport equipment and apparel. The SAPS forges social links and social cohesion with these organisations that are external. This gesture in turn could mean that the community and the SAPS develop an understanding or telepathy as the members of the community-based organisations and non-governmental organisations are from the communities.

SAPS sport federations use partnerships forged between private companies (sponsors) and the Department of Police to fulfill social responsibility objectives. There are policy distinctions between the role of the federations in developing, implementing and governance and the role of the government (SAPS or Department of Police). The existence of co-management between the
sport federations and SAPS management as a whole across the spectrum of sport is due to policy directives that govern the SAPS sport environment. The prescripts of supply chain management within SAPS give guidance in the way of sponsorships or in-kind donations. For example, corporate clothing and perishable products that can be dealt with at the level of the unit within the Department of Police without approval by the head of supply chain management. The unit responsible for SAPS sport could in this manner directly foster links with the corporate world through sponsorships deals. It implies that social cohesion and unity is attained by means of working together, for example, sponsors attend prize-giving functions whereby the representative can network with the high echelons of the SAPS. This working relationship also contributes towards sharing of good business practice by both the public sector (SAPS) and the private sector (sponsors).

3.2.4 Stakeholders’ inputs
The concept of public participation in policy-making is a prominent feature in various organisations, for example, in SAPS sport. Sam and Jackson (2006) maintain that public participation in policymaking is done through a number of institutional arrangements, including forums, advisory committees, provincial forums, and to a lesser extent, labour unions and professional associations. Within the SAPS sport environment public participation in policy making is evident in forums such as sport and fitness conventions (indabas) that are hosted on an annual basis. It is in these forums where members of the public or private individuals, for example, medical doctors, dieticians, teachers and local sport associations are invited to share their ideas as experts in their various fields.

There are role-players that get involved in these forums, for example, provincial and local government departments of Sport and Recreation and private companies such as Polmed, Old Mutual and Liberty Insurance. These role players play an important part in contributing towards the formulation and review of sport policy in the SAPS. Harvey (2002) asserts that with respect to sport, individuals can be said to participate regularly in policy making through membership and representation on volunteer committees. Their chances to directly influence national level sport policy are rare. This refers to SAPS sport executive committee members who are democratically elected to serve in SAPS sport federation committees. The regular participation
of these members in policymaking is seen in their involvement in the monthly, quarterly and annual meetings that are convened by various sport bodies within the SAPS sport environment. The SAPS Federations, SAPS Multi-Sport Committee and SAPS Provincial Sport Offices are important role players in the analysis and implementation of SAPS sport policy, as they tend to identify issues, draw explicit references to specific interests, introduce or legitimise new ideas, and point toward particular presumptions and solutions. With regard to SAPS National Sport Coordinators who are involved in the management or administration of sport, stakeholders inputs are critical and important because they give rise to shifts in priorities that may bring about changes to the organisational environment and management of sport (Sam & Jackson, 2006).

The contribution by the stakeholders in SAPS sport is crucial since it contributes to proper corporate governance. SAPS federations, for example, are at times requested to provide audited statements and make presentations during SAPS sports indaba as a form of accounting. Office bearers in SAPS sport federation committees are democratically elected to hold office for a stipulated time, for example 24 months after which they have to step down or be re-elected to serve. All these ensure that there is proper governance within the ranks of SAPS sport federations that are voluntary. The members of SAPS sport federation executive committees have to account or report to the SAPS sport fraternity that sits during SAPS sports indaba and fitness convention.

According to Sam and Jackson (2006) sport managers, administrators and coordinators may benefit from an awareness of policy-making processes, structures, rules, and practices in order to influence policy change. Existing structures formed by stakeholders may create opportunities for some previously marginalised groups to voice their issues and problems, whereas on the other hand they may amplify the influence of powerful groups (Sam & Jackson, 2006). The SAPS sport officers or coordinators play a significant role and influence in policy directions, as they are full-time employees whose core business or service is sport within the SAPS. The influence of the SAPS sport coordinators on policymaking is more by virtue of being privy to the situation and playing the role of facilitators in the process of policy formulation and review.
3.3 SPORT AS CULTURAL CAPITAL IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

In Chapter Two, cultural capital was defined as ways in which people act and socialise; which also includes their values, language practices, and their behaviour as well as how they dress. It was also defined as tangible and intangible knowledge that has value in communities relating to power and status of individuals. Cultural capital thus refers to the conglomerate of ideas and knowledge that people accumulate in social life.

The concept of cultural capital refers to the role different types of cultural tastes, knowledge and abilities play in relation to the process of class formations in contemporary societies (Silva & Warde, 2010). Within an SAPS sport context the choices or preferences that individual sport participants have which relate to cultural tastes and knowledge constitute cultural capital. Cultural taste and knowledge influence how an individual relates to a “class” or influence the “class” with which individuals relate. An example could be that of match officials who would commonly form their own “class” or grouping with individuals who have the same taste or preferences as them. Referees at times will relate better with members of the executive committees than with the players or participants at club events or championships. Another common prevalent class formation in SAPS is identified within participants or players who classify themselves and would be together due to the encounters that they have on the playing field. It is rare that one finds that players are in the same class with officials unless they are colleagues from the working environment in SAPS. This could be ascribed to common taste, knowledge and abilities that the groups or class have within the sport environment. For the purpose of the application of cultural capital to SAPS sport that follows, cultural capital is defined as ways in which people act and socialise; which also includes their values, language practices, and their behavior as well as how they dress.

Cultural capital has been particularly influential in sociological accounts of the ways in which the middle class distinguish themselves from the working classes through their distinctive cultural tastes, consumption, knowledge and competencies (Silva & Warde, 2010). When applied to an SAPS context it can be argued that high-ranking officers within SAPS sport federations are accorded a status higher than that of low ranking officers who are sport participants at SAPS
championships or within the SAPS sport clubs. The role that these senior officers play in the SAPS sport federations differs from that of the low ranking officers. High echelons portfolios are the ones occupied by senior officers, for example, a president of a sport federation will always have a higher rank in the SAPS context. Sport with its structured hierarchy could therefore reinforce cultural capital in terms of class distinction.

According to Markovits and Rensman (2010), cultural capital implies tastes, diverse preferences and behavior, which are important characteristics of sport club membership. This causes a classification and hierarchical disposition that exists in forms of cultural capital. Where there is class, there will always be inequality. For example, some people will be more privileged than others in certain spheres. Sport participants within the SAPS clubs and at SAPS championships show different kinds of tastes when it comes to attendance of social functions, for example, the prize-giving functions organised after championships and/or at sport clubs. Some sport participants would prefer certain genres of music or type of sporting code whilst others’ taste differs. It is during these kind of gatherings (e.g. prize-giving functions) where the groupings of certain classes of individuals are evident even though the entire group is brought together to socialise (social cohesion). At times, these diverse tastes even bring about social exclusion.

Social exclusion in the SAPS could be partly attributed to sport policies that are because of cultural capital and its role in the organisation of class differences (rank system structure) which are prevalent in the SAPS. Low ranking personnel, for example, are not allowed to share tables with high-ranking officers even if it is during sport events. It is on this wavelength that the concept of cultural capital provides a basis for understanding how social inequalities in organisations such as SAPS are reflected.

The concept of cultural capital also explains how people engage with each other socially and share resources. Silva and Warde (2010) maintain that whether the culture of an organisation is good or bad, cultural capital is created when values, traditions, beliefs and language become common currency to leverage other types of capitals such as social and economic capital. In SAPS sport it has become a tradition that when sport championships are hosted and attended by all nine provincial teams and one head office team, participants reach out to institutions such as
orphanages, shelters, disadvantaged schools or special schools and SAPS members contribute or donate items depending on the needs of a particular institution. This tradition as element of cultural capital consequently creates social cohesion between SAPS members and committees.

In the paragraphs below, the key elements of cultural capital as discussed in Chapter Two will be applied to the SAPS sport context.

3.3.1 ‘Habitus’ and ‘field’ reflected in SAPS sport

‘Habitus’ as element of cultural capital explains how individuals internalise objective successes resulting from economical and cultural backgrounds to make sense of the world. It encompasses lifestyle, values, disposition and the expectations of particular social groups. ‘Field’ also constitutes an element of cultural capital as a social space in which different forms of capital (e.g. social) are exchanged. ‘Field’ as a structured space of positions and hierarchy creates a belief within participants of the value of a specific form of capital.

According to Bourdieu (1989) “habitus” is one’s disposition influencing actions at a given time, and it can also manifest in one’s physical demeanor for example, the way one carries oneself or walks. In SAPS sport, traditions are valued and as such help in creating a “field” where participants participate harmoniously from diverse cultural backgrounds. In this regard there is shared appreciation of sport, traditions of physical activity and mutual understanding and appreciation of cultural beliefs and values. SAPS sport participants gain in terms of learning how to interact with people of different cultures when they take part in continental or overseas sporting events such as SARPCCO Games and World Police and Fire Games. They also gain personally from interrelationships that develop amongst the SAPS sport participants as they intermingle with sport participants from other countries outside the continent of Africa. As asserted by Bourdieu (1999), ‘habitus’ is the product of history. As reflected in SAPS sport, sport has a great history of being an element of identity. This, however, can be negative and exclusive as diverse ethnic groups within SAPS as an organisation sometimes use sport to create an oppressive, exclusive identity directed against others. For example, groups whose languages are seldom used when singing war songs during the games feel alienated or not accommodated. It is rare to find in, for example, football games war songs sung in Afrikaans or English. On the other
hand, SAPS sport can be, and often is, a positive and creative force that brings fairness, cooperation and cultural exchange. During SAPS championships, trials and in SAPS sport clubs, a platform for mutual understanding is created whereby SAPS members from diverse cultural backgrounds meet each other for a festival of sportsmanship. This contributes to building cultural capital by developing interpersonal relations skills, time management skills and discipline which are brought about by SAPS team schedules, rules and regulations which players have to adhere to when playing or taking part in sport club activities.

Bourdieu (1990) views the cultural capital concept of “field” as social spaces through which people exchange a variety of capital. Referees for example, develop their skills or improve on the skills in workshops to be on par with current trends of officiating. When officiating during the games, referees have to be in the position to manage time, which means they acquire skills in time management. During the games or matches, referees have personal encounters with players or participants and as such, they have to know how to deal with people of different characters and personalities. This implies that interpersonal relationship skills are honed and management skills are acquired. Within the referees’ circles there is development of social cohesion which results into unity amongst the match officials. Some of the referees are assigned the responsibilities of being match commissioners of certain games, which means in this case they acquire leadership skills.

Social spaces within the SAPS sport environment are created through various activities organised for sport participants outside normal sport activities played on the fields or courts. Common examples of tools used to create social space in SAPS sport are the gala dinner, prize-giving functions and courtesy evening functions hosted by the provincial leadership during SAPS national championships. In SAPS, sport opportunities are created for sport participants to know each other better by experiencing the sport heritage of different cultures. Sport unites SAPS employees rather than divides them as they celebrate cultural differences through sports games as social spaces. Common bonds, values and practices that is prevalent in SAPS sport clubs during trials and SAPS sport championships, knit teams together into harmonious patchworks. When SAPS provincial teams participate in championships, participants experience an atmosphere of fun, enjoyment, friendship and cooperation rather than confrontation, hostility and hard competition that is typical of many professional sports.
In accordance with Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992) “field” is a setting whereby practices take place within a network or configuration of objective relations. In SAPS sport there is sometimes a struggle for resources between groups. This struggle for resources between groups in a particular “field” or setting can be demonstrated for example, by the struggle to obtain vehicles to transport participants to SAPS championships and sports events. The dominant group in SAPS sport, for example, presidents of SAPS sport federations compete with subordinate groups or participants for transport, accommodation and supplies as resources.

3.3.2 Sport as “embodied cultural capital” in SAPS

Silva (2001) asserts that embodied cultural capital has properties that are acquired consciously and inherited passively which could be by means of social contact and traditions. In SAPS sport, embodied cultural capital is reflected through attitudes and behaviours. Consciously acquired embodied cultural capital becomes visible through the tradition and protocol of acknowledging fans and supporters at sport events by parading in front of stands. Scheduling and organising of events to suit the host preferences and hierarchal positions also provide evidence of consciously acquired embodied cultural capital. Authoritarian leadership styles due to rank and position within SAPS sport federations also reflect acquired embodied cultural capital.

Passively inherited cultural capital in SAPS sport becomes evident through behaviours influenced by cultural background. Sport fans and participants’ dress codes, styles, bodily adornment, and sport preference are examples of passively inherited cultural capital in an SAPS sport context.

The time and energy sport participants invest in training and participation could be interpreted as self-empowerment, as element of cultural capital according to Bourdieu (2001d). The fact that SAPS sport policy and structures enable participants to train and take part in sport during work time provides evidence that SAPS use sport to create embodied cultural capital that is visibly demonstrated during sport participation.

3.3.3 Sport as “objectified cultural capital” in SAPS

Sport as objectified cultural capital in SAPS is evident in different ways. SAPS sport has sport-related physical objects accumulated over a period. SAPS provincial teams and national teams have a collage of photos or framed photos that are kept as mementos or souvenirs. This implies
that sport participation as cultural capital is objectified in material objects and media writings and paintings that are transmissible in its materiality (Bourdieu, 1999). SAPS management makes provision for financial support (economic capital) so that employees can take part in sport on national level. This, however, also implies that the custodians of economic capital set producers of cultural capital or sport participants up to compete with one another. The athletes within SAPS championships are subject to competition by the way in which they are selected and trained in their respective provincial teams. The provincial team that wins the SAPS national championships trophy keeps such a trophy in the cabinet as a souvenir or memento, which the team in question can be proud of as it reflects embodied cultural capital.

SAPS sport as objectified cultural capital becomes visible through the history of sport in SAPS. It is easy to trace the history of SAPS national championship winners by checking on the engraved trophies that were presented to winners.

3.3.4 Sport as “institutionalised cultural capital” in SAPS

‘Institutionalised cultural capital’ is regarded as widely shared, high status cultural signals which include, attitudes, preferences, formal knowledge, behaviors, goods and credentials utilised for social and cultural exclusion of people. Social exclusion refers to exclusion from jobs and resources, while cultural exclusion, to exclusion from high status groups (Silva, 2001). Some participants in sport are excluded from jobs and resources, while on the other hand, there are sport participants who are barred from entering certain designated areas during sport activities as such places are reserved strictly for high echelon people.

Sport in SAPS is viewed as institutionalised cultural capital since individual participants are at times conferred with certificates for their outstanding performances in sport as officials or participants. The conferring of certificates to individuals according to Bourdieu (2001) makes it possible to compare the performance of the holders of such certificates. The status acquired by individuals within SAPS sport differs in accordance with the type of certificates conferred to participants. Certificates are conferred in descending order, for example, teams that have obtained positions three, two and one. The top three teams during SAPS national championships could be conferred with certificates that go along with different sizes of trophies and prize-money. A certificate of cultural competence, as asserted by Bourdieu (1999), confers on its holder a conventional, constant, legally guaranteed value with respect to culture. For example, an
SAPS referee or coach who attains a certain level and gains recognition through certification within the SAPS sport culture.

Coaching clinics and workshops are conducted within SAPS sport with the aim of advancement of individuals and improvement of the standard of the games. This in turn influences, for example, football matches in the way they are run by referees and players as both are well prepared. The referees in this regard are conversant with the rules of the game and struggle less to handle high tempo matches. Acquired skills such as time management and conflict management are used at matches of competing SAPS provincial teams and sport clubs.

Certificates conferred on individuals or participants who attended workshops or coaching clinics indicate that the SAPS sport environment recognises the performance of participants. This in turn instils a sense of belief in the participants for their outstanding individual efforts. When SAPS confers certificates in the form of institutional recognition on the individual, the certificate makes it possible to compare certificates holders’ performance (Bourdieu, 2001c). The material and symbolic profits that the earned certificates guarantee depends on its scarcity, investment in the form of time and effort put by an individual (Bourdieu, 1999). SAPS referees, for example, are often included in panels of referees who will be officiating in international games which translate into higher status as compared to club level officiating. The symbolic benefit guaranteed for participants is the SAPS national colours that the referee in question gets due to his or her participation as an official referee at an international sport event.

3.3.5  Sport as “intangible and tangible cultural capital” in SAPS

When SAPS employees participate in SAPS sport clubs activities, national championships and international sport events it contributes towards the development of social relationships between sport participants, head office, participants and members of the community or schools and sport participants from other countries. Through this kind of relationship there is sharing of beliefs, values, standards and inherited traditions. These relationships also provide opportunities for SAPS sport participants to increase their social horizons while familiarising themselves with life outside their common or immediate environment of SAPS. According to Brustad (2010), intangible cultural capital emanates from cultural networks and relationships, which are in support of human activity such as sport participation. Cultural networks and relationships
develop due to sport participation bring about ‘intangible’ cultural capital, for example, getting to know each other in a social space.

Tangible cultural capital exists in the form of assets that are put together or accumulated over a period. Common examples include heritage buildings or museums, art works, literature and sculptures. These examples of tangible cultural capital as asserted by Tony (2006) are movable and immovable. This manifests in SAPS through sport information that has been put together in book form. Other examples within the SAPS sport are artworks, paintings and sculptures of various sporting codes that are funded within the SAPS environment. The South African Police Service Museum as heritage building accommodates or houses some of the SAPS sport trophies and medals that have been won over time. These trophies and medals represent tangible cultural capital within the SAPS sport environment.

3.4 “POWER” AS FUNCTION OF CULTURAL CAPITAL IN SAPS SPORT
Foucault’s (1980) unique conceptualisation of power within sport environments explores how power is enacted in sport culture. It allows an analysis that focuses on sport participants as both objects and subjects of power relations. Power is viewed as productive and positive, and not only as a restrictive negative. It is a dense net of omnipresent relations, but not only as localised in centres, organisations, and institutions or as an entity that one can possess. The way leadership and management within SAPS sport delegate duties and treat sport participants indicate how power is enacted. Sport leaders and managers may tend to abuse power vested in them by being oppressive and autocratic. They force matters or decisions down on subordinates to implement even though there is no approval from such affected individuals. An example in this regard could be players required to attend morning training even though the weather is not conducive. Foucauldian sport scholars such as Denison (2007), Markula and Pringle (2006), and Smith and Maquire (2002) have alluded to the fact that sport participation may be more complex than previously suggested in literature. The views that leaders and managers have within SAPS sport may differ with the views of SAPS sport participants thus creating a hostile environment that is not conducive for participation in sport, which makes sport more complex. This could cause a disjointed group of people who are disgruntled thus missing the unity and social interaction that sport could create. SAPS sport participants may, for example, require ample time
to prepare for national championships or be involved in club league games whilst the leaders and managers hold contrary beliefs in this regard. The complex nature of sport according to the abovementioned researchers emerges when compromises between participants and management cannot be reached to the benefit of sport within the SAPS. Those who have power could use their influence to sway decisions in their favour, decisions which sometimes harm sport participation in the SAPS.

According to Labuschagne (2011), the political sociology of power in sport is undervalued as a field of study. The predominant reason for this phenomenon as asserted by Labuschagne (2011) is that the innocence of sport as a power politics tool overshadows the underlying current news and trends of political manipulation of sport. Sport has developed into a global phenomenon whereby governments are involved in its manipulation. The various goals and targets of government give rise to government involvement and manipulation of sport policy in terms of its value.

It appears that political conflicts and power that arise from SAPS sport have to do with the inconsistencies of interpreting and applying policies. SAPS National Management Forum sometimes disagrees with subordinates on how and when employees should get permission to take part in sport on duty. This issue of time-off for sport participation is enshrined in the South African Police Service Standing Order (General) 203, (2004). It is an illustration of inconsistencies in terms of decision making due to power. One part of SAPS management supports the idea of greater central authority whilst other opinions maintain the importance of management in all echelons of the sport fraternity or sector (Sam, 2005).

The South African Police Service sport structures and federations are subjected to power-political relationships. This power-political relationship confines and demarcates social action that flows deductively from the broader political context of the respective organisation or entities as described by Labuschagne (2011). Sport policies and regulatory frameworks are the doorsteps through which politics encroach into sport in a designed format of governance. Thus, the sport goals and objectives in this regard tend not to be met because of the phenomenon of power-politics relationships in sport, which is in effect political domination. Jarvie (2006) maintains that political domination is achieved by engineering consensus; by controlling the cultural forms.
and pastimes of society such as sport. Senior officers involved in sport federations tend to be domineering and manipulative because of the status due to their seniority. When compromises have to be reached at times, officers who are senior use their status and rank to sway decisions in their favour. Junior members will have to abide by the decisions taken even though it is contrary to their thinking.

Through sport, SAPS sport participants experience socio-physical interactions that give rise to learning how to understand opposing points of view, as well as coming to terms with others’ perspectives (Giulianotti, 2004). This leads to more coexistence that is peaceful. Organisation of competitive sports in the SAPS may encourage participants to seek and assert dominance, often through physical domination over others when playing sport (Giulianotti, 2004). Coakley and Donnelly (2009) assert that sport’s normative culture secures social hierarchies along lines of race, class, gender, sexuality and ability.

Sport could play a role in SAPS to teach values and principles to sport participants and could also be a life skills developmental tool which brings about teamwork, ethics, teamwork and trust. All these represent factors of how people make the most of their lives and as such ensuring that police officers play sport or participate in sport which teaches sport participants lessons to live better lives in future (Ripken, 2007).

The working definition of power in this research, according to Mills (2003), is understood as the capacity of an agent to impose his or her will over the will of the powerless, or the ability to force them to do things they do not wish to do. It is interpreted as possession, as something owned by those in power. In an SAPS sport environment an agent refers to top management and members of the SAPS sport executive committee; and the powerless refer to sport participants. The agent has power to decide on behalf of the powerless and they also have power to delegate someone to implement whatever decision is taken. This is reflected in SAPS sport environment or sport clubs. The presidents of SAPS sport federations as high-ranking officers have the power to dictate terms and apply decisions that could sometimes be viewed as unpopular by subordinates, for example, co-option of a member in the executive committee that participants do not favour.
In Foucault’s (1998) opinion, however, power is not something that can be owned, but rather something that acts and manifests itself in a certain way. It is more a strategy than a possession. Power must be analysed as something, which circulates, or as something that only functions in the form of a chain of command. SAPS sport in relation to Foucault’s assertion refers to manifestation of power in forums existing within the organisation, for example, SAPS sport indaba and annual general meetings of the sport committees whereby deliberations are bilateral. Power is wielded by those members who are in the top echelons of the SAPS in forums such as the one mentioned above.

Power is thus understood as having two key features, namely: (a) power is a system, a network of relations encompassing the whole society, rather than a relation between the oppressed and oppressor; and (b) individuals are not just the objects of power, but are the locus where the power and the resistance to it are exerted (Foucault, 1998).

Foucault’s (1998) view of power as applied to SAPS sport manifests as follows:

- **The impersonality or subjectlessness of power.** Power is not guided by the will of individual subjects: Power is based on a collective agreement within groups such as the SAPS sport executive committee. The ultimate decisions taken and implemented do not depend solely on an individual, but rest upon a collective or a group of committed members. The process of the democratic will of the people is taken into consideration when decisions are taken and implemented within SAPS sport federation. No individual could unilaterally decide to implement solutions that emanate from such an individual without a buy-in from a collective, for example, the masses or members of SAPS sport federations.

- **The relationality of power.** Power is always a case of power relations between people as opposed to a quantum possessed by people: Interrelationships that result amongst groups of SAPS sport federations when they meet during sport forums such as the sport indaba. The word “rational” means reason or computation which infers having or exercising the ability to reason. The SAPS sport federations are regarded as the ultimate decision-making bodies because of their democratic status. SAPS sport participants have democratically elected the executive committee members. The decisions that are made by
the federation and other bodies in SAPS sport, for example, Multi-Sport Committee should be based on truth and rationality.

- **The decentredness of power.** Power is not concentrated on a single individual or class: Power is shared amongst democratically elected structures of SAPS sport. The concept is almost the same as impersonality of power because it deals with a group of people rather than one person. Members of the SAPS sport federation are accorded the power to decide and implement resolutions taken in a democratically elected SAPS sport committee. There is no individual who can influence the running of SAPS sport federation affairs as the processes followed in this regard are democratic and power is equitable distributed.

- **The multi-directionality of power.** Power does not flow only from the more powerful to the less powerful, but rather comes from below, even if it is not egalitarian: SAPS sport participants have a say in the normal running of sport through involvement in the annual general meetings and other related sport forums. The approach employed is the bottom-up approach, which gives less privileged individuals the ability to have a say in the normal day-to-day running of SAPS sport.

- **The strategic nature of power has a dynamic nature of its own, it is intentional.** The annual plenary sessions held with a selected few SAPS sport participants give direction to running SAPS sport at strategic level. Consultative forums are used as platforms within SAPS sport to plan and do introspection by looking at the progress of the previous financial year. Sharing of ideas is of prime importance in this regard because it brings about accountability, monitoring and evaluation.

Sport is seen as an institution that tends to reproduce the existing social *status quo*, which means it works in favour of those people in office (Green & Houlihan, 2004). The elected members of SAPS sport clubs committees and SAPS sport federations have been mandated to take decisions that develop sport bodies as entities within the SAPS sport environment by instilling principles of corporate governance. These members have the upper hand in decision making for the entire period that they serve in the portfolios to which they have been democratically elected. Sport also reproduces current class divisions as well as understandings of race, gender, and sexuality by making current social standing seem both organic and set (Green & Houlihan, 2004).
These dividing lines within SAPS sport are also evident when analysing the composition of various sport committees. For example, members of the sport national executive committee clearly perceive themselves as distinct from the ordinary members who serve in the provincial structures because they are not accorded the same status. The SAPS sport national executive committee has higher status than committees at the lower level, for example, at provincial or local level. Certain portfolios within SAPS sport structures, for example, presidents are reserved for or occupied by males as opposed to females. This implies that current divisions in SAPS sport are on the premise that current social standing seems both organic and set.

3.5 “SOCIAL COHESION” AS FUNCTION OF CULTURAL CAPITAL IN SAPS SPORT

Social cohesion is defined as an ongoing process of developing a community of shared values, shared challenges and equal opportunities based on a sense of hope, trust and reciprocity among people (Adam & Roncevic, 2003). The process of social cohesion links to cultural capital because of the complex motives and social relations that make up society. In social cohesion there is engagement and participation of civil society or groups which leads to positive social outcomes, for example, community well-being, security, education, health and economic performance.

In SAPS sport, the coming together of sports clubs and provincial teams is seen as a microcosm of the SAPS society sharing trust and hope when competing together. On the other hand, social cohesion is defined as a set of social processes that help instil in an individual a sense of belonging to a community. SAPS sport is instrumental in achieving that. SAPS sport brings employees together through sport participation. Social cohesion in societies is presumed to be present when communities or societies are coherent, united and functional. SAPS sport as a coherent community provides an environment within which sport participants thrive and flourish.

It can be argued that SAPS sport participants as a society are held together by social cohesion with social justice being a key component. Social justice in the context of SAPS sport implies fair and proper administration of the natural law that all persons, irrespective of ethnic, gender, possessions, race, religion are to be treated equally and without prejudice. Social justice is defined as promoting a just society by challenging injustice and valuing diversity. Social justice
exists within SAPS sport as all sport participants share a common humanity and therefore have a right to equitable treatment, support for their human rights, and a fair allocation of resources, for example, finance, sport or match officials and equipment. Social justice contributes to building social cohesion within the SAPS sport environment. It does so by ensuring a sense of fairness and sound benefit by SAPS sport participants and the police service as a whole. SAPS policies and programmes can be used to move the members of the service towards the goal of social justice. As constitutional imperatives, social justice states the type of sport environment SAPS seeks to build. The existence of social justice in SAPS sport ensures that there will not be negative consequences of social cohesion, which could include substance abuse, intolerance, lack of motivation, a sense of hopelessness and the emphasis on difference. The examples of social justice in the SAPS are, the existence of equality of opportunities for all SAPS members and their participation in SAPS sport, equality of SAPS members’ rights to take part in SAPS sport, equality in distribution of resources to all SAPS sport participants, access to knowledge and provision of a safe sport environment for SAPS members to participate in sport activities.

Social cohesion is said to be measured by trust, reciprocity, and helpfulness and shared values amongst people. In the case of SAPS sport participants, they share common values and trust each other because they play and collaborate as teams (Adler & Kwon, 2002). When a society or a group has the capacity that enables it to ensure the welfare of all its members, such organisation is reflecting social cohesion (Ritzen, 2000). This could minimise disparities and avoid polarisation to the benefit of all. In most instances the custodians of SAPS sport federations manage to share resources equitably for example, sport equipment, and payment of accommodation for participants for the good governance of sport in that all the needs of individuals are taken care of. In the South African Police Service, social connections or cohesiveness and relationships are reflected in gala functions and prize-giving functions that allow sport participants to enjoy being part of sport clubs and championships and desire to stay in it for their social development. The SAPS sport environment is constituted of a group of people who come together with one purpose, which is to play sport and they are joined together despite their differences in beliefs, ranks and values, thus facilitating the creation of cultural capital.
Social cohesion is furthermore focused on ensuring that all people, for example, SAPS sport participants are given an opportunity to improve their situation and are guaranteed basic social rights in sport in terms of decent accommodation, good conditioning and satisfactory medical attention or care (Ritzen, 2000). Social cohesion could play an important role in framing sport policy discussions within the SAPS sport environment with the creation of social cohesion networks. The management of SAPS sport federations and sport offices get to know the views of diverse individuals with regard to SAPS sport through these social cohesion networks or sports clubs. Social cohesion, nevertheless, has its own negative and positive sides that could impact on cultural capital. Negative conditions for networks and cooperation within SAPS sport may be created by social cohesion that excludes certain participants, for example racial or ethnic groups, religious groups, gender groups and social classes. This could limit social cohesion (Jeannotte, 2003). The way in which SAPS sport participants see or view themselves in relation to nationality or race or identity are indicators of social cohesion. Also included in these indicators is the way or extent in which members of SAPS within sport engage in and form part of the social dialogue. Positive social cohesion in SAPS sport includes the way or extent to which there is common purpose or a shared set of values, and the extent to which sport participants in SAPS sport engage in and are part of a recognisable social dialogue. Common values, for example, respect for your elders or leadership within SAPS sport environment is prevalent.

The bonding that exists between SAPS sport participants or groups indicates social cohesion. The latter can also be regarded as the glue that binds SAPS sport participants in positive relationships. Social cohesion is reflected in social relations where SAPS employees, groups or larger aggregates share a living space and interact during sport clubs activities and SAPS championships. Social cohesion is a normative concept that suggests action towards a goal, informing people how to achieve it. In the SAPS sport environment social cohesion is manifested in meaningful interaction, social structures and processes and culture including normative belief systems and ideology. When SAPS sport participants share living and playing space, it could lead to environmental social cohesion which influence the belief systems and ideologies of teams and individuals.

According to Dasgupta and Serageldin (2002) social cohesion can be explored at all levels of social relationships ranging from interpersonal, intergroup to social relationships at macro level.
such as national and international levels. These levels of social relationships are reflected in SAPS sport. The SAPS sport environment demonstrates social cohesion bonds through shared values, shared challenges and equal opportunities which are detectable in five dimensions, namely: belonging, inclusion, participation, recognition and legitimacy. For example, provincial team members sharing the stage or podium during official SAPS sport events to acknowledge individual and team performances or a parade of SAPS provincial teams during the official opening of the games. Interpersonal and intergroup social relationships within the SAPS sport environment are evident when sport participants meet during functions such as social evening events organised by a host province. It is during these events where individuals or participants are afforded the opportunity to mingle and meet with colleagues from other areas, for example representatives of sponsorship companies and other invited role players.

Inclusion in the context of SAPS sport relates to principles of equality of access for sport and equal opportunities for all SAPS members to take part in sport. Participation in this regard implies active involvement of SAPS members in all the approved sporting events and activities. When SAPS members take part in sport, they could develop a sense of belonging and recognition which means developing an overarching identity as a group that has consensus and management of differences, promotion of pluralism. Legitimacy relates to intermediary bodies representing the society (service) and the police members, for example, SAPS sport federations. Sport participants could regard themselves legitimate through their involvement in and association with the sport federations within the SAPS sporting environment. These SAPS sport federations are constituted by members of the service; who operate in SAPS sport on a voluntary basis as executive committees.

3.6 “SOCIAL PROCESSES REPRODUCING PRIVILEGES” AS FUNCTION OF CULTURAL CAPITAL IN SAPS SPORT

Processes could be defined as a series of actions or steps taken in order to achieve a particular end or systematic series of actions directed to some end (Goodwin, 2003a). Capital is defined as the result of productive human action not immediately consumed but directly employed in the pursuit of additional goods (Goodwin, 2003b). Capital as such is acquired when an individual undergoes processes or takes a series of actions that lead to an end. To move from processes to capital, there has to be a systematic series of actions that lead to a desired end. Thus social
process is defined as a process involved in the formulation of groups of persons. Formation of
groups in SAPS sport leads to formulation of networks that could be formal or informal. Groups
in the context of this study could refer to geographical groups, for example, SAPS members who
are sport participants and are living in a specific neighbourhood; professional groups such as
members in the same occupation, local football association or voluntary organisation, for
example, local organising committee. The other groups are, social groups such as families,
church-based groups and groups of friends, and virtual groups, for example, networks formed
over the internet in their chat groups due to common interests. The common interest could be, for
example, SAPS netball players wanting to communicate and have team spirit when playing
outside their country.

Formal and informal networks within SAPS sport are central to the concept of social capital.
These networks within SAPS sport are defined as the personal relationships accumulated when
SAPS sport participants interact with each other in the workplace, neighborhoods as provincial
teams, local associations and formal and informal sport meetings. Assimilation and absorption
are, for example, social processes of absorbing one cultural group in harmony with another. This
also includes marginalisation as negative social process of becoming or being made
marginalised, or a minority group within a larger society. Social capital according to Putnam
(2001:411) “is often a valuable by-product of cultural activities whose main purpose is merely
aesthetic”. This indicates that cultural capital links with social capital because of its association
with personal interest.

When an organisation invests in cultural capital, such organisation could accrue collective
benefits making a significant contribution to social cohesion which is an element of social
capital. Social capital as a form of social and outward networks could contribute towards
improved health, lower crime rate, greater personal well-being and trust. In social capital there is
that description of the pattern and intensity of networking among people, for example SAPS
participants, with shared values arising from those networks. The interaction that exists between
the sport participants in the SAPS sport generates a greater sense of community spirit.

Social capital is measured by the existence of the following: levels of trust, membership and
networks and how much social contact individuals have in their lives. The levels of trust deals
with whether the SAPS sport participants trust each other and whether they consider their being
together and neighbourly a process or place for helping each other. Membership, for example, looks at how many clubs or social groups SAPS sport participants belong to. The network and social contact is about how often SAPS sport participants see family and friends. In SAPS sport participant groups where there are networks created, there would always be shared norms, values and understanding which relate to shared attitudes towards acceptable behaviour by groups or individuals. This acceptance is regarded as good or excellent, for example, acknowledgement by sport participants that you do not park your car in a parking spot designated for people with disabilities or giving a seat to someone who is of a rank more senior than yours. These norms are understood by most of SAPS sport participants and such norms are underpinned by certain sanctions. Common examples in this regard are fear of disapproval which might compel the SAPS sport participants to be in line or comply with the shared values and norms of SAPS sport, and thus such an individual could behave in an acceptable way.

3.6.1 Social Capital defined
Voluntary associations (SAPS sport federations) provide links between people in the broader community and SAPS, and enable SAPS sport participants to be more effective in a wide range of social activities and social processes. This infers that social capital is the connectedness between people or citizens, and to develop it, people, groups or communities need to require a high level of trust, and opportunities to meet, interact and discuss issues of common interest or concern (Eames, 2007). Networks that exist amongst SAPS sport participants are created due to the ample support (time-off and finances) and resources (human, equipment and materials) accorded to them for participation.

Putnam (1995:664) argues that social capital is about connections between individuals and refers to the “features of social life networks, norms and trust” that enable participants to get together to pursue shared objectives, for example, participation in SAPS-sanctioned sport championships and competitions with the shared objective of maintenance of physical fitness and social cohesion. Similar to this, Cox (1995:15) describes social capital as “social fabric or glue” that ties members of a given place or organisation to one another. In addition, Field (2003) maintains that the thrust of the concept is in the norms of trust and reciprocity. SAPS sport participants tend to know and trust each other well as compared to those that do not form part of their teams when participating in the SAPS sport club leagues or games and SAPS national championships. This
can be ascribed to the interaction and unity which are formed during practice sessions and championships. It can be argued that sport participants’ social interaction will always be intact due to social capital acting as the glue and providing social fabric.

Social capital is categorised into three main categories, namely bonding capital, linking capital and bridging capital. Bonding capital according to Putnam (2001) is observed in player-to-player interactions where relationships between people who are similar are formed. In this case it can refer to SAPS sport participants who are similar in terms of the work that they perform at their workplace and the objectives and ideals that they share when being involved in SAPS sport. The concept of bridging capital refers to the relationships developed with people that are different from one another. Outreach initiatives presented by SAPS sport participants to communities present examples of bridging social capital. Linking social capital, as asserted by Szreter and Woolcock (2004), are norms of respect and networks of trusting relationships between people who are interacting across explicit, formal, or institutionalised power or authority gradients in society. For example, SAPS sport participants’ interactions with local government and a health department (emergency medical services) is linking social capital. When SAPS sport participants compete in the championships vertical ties are established between SAPS members in the sport executive committees and institutions that are in power. This makes it possible for SAPS sport participants to have access to medical services at the championships or trials.

As stated by Jarvie (2003), participation in an activity, for example sport that involves similar levels of participation from other individuals, and which has stated aims and outcomes, leads to the accrual of social capital for participants. SAPS sport clubs leagues and championships stated aims and outcomes are to maintain the fitness levels of all the participants and to have or declare a winner at the end of the event. This is indicative of attaining what is prevalent in the assertion of Jarvie (2003). Smith and Westerbeek (2007) who state that sport provides an effective anchor for individuals and a fertile environment for the development of relationships within communities or organisations leading to an increase in social capital. The relationships that are formed within communities during SAPS sport club league games and championships are the results of social responsibility programmes that provincial teams engage in and lead to linking and bridging social capital. The contribution of sport to social capital is viewed in SAPS sport as
of equal importance and personal significance as other measurable outcomes, such as health benefits.

The way sport is used and organised gives rise to two contemporary perspectives in social capital, namely building or creating relationships that help to generate social capital which is an important component of psychological development for human beings (Putnam, 2001). Secondly, individual participation in sport is associated with a person’s sense of self-worth and other measures of psychosocial development. In general, sport could contribute towards participants’ psychological and physical well-being as will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

According to Adler and Kwon (2002), social capital is an elastic term that has different definitions in multiple fields. There is however, general agreement that social capital refers to the benefits people receive from social relationships. Such relationships accrue when sport clubs in SAPS play league games and SAPS provincial sport teams from all corners of the country are gathered together to compete. This, according to Putnam (2000) could be seen or conceived in negative terms, such as when non-group members are left out or excluded from having access to the same benefits as members, but it is generally perceived to be positive (Adler & Kwon, 2002). There are other members within SAPS who are left out from access and opportunity to take part in sport due to limited resources and limited space in the assembled teams. There are different results or outcomes that are related to social capital, outcomes such as career advancement, organisational success, and many other positive social outcomes such as better health and lower crime rates (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Individual participants who take part in sport within the organised and structured SAPS programmes gain immensely health-wise. On the other hand, the communities within which the tournament is hosted and league games are played gain by virtue of the visibility of police officers for the entire duration of the championships and SAPS local league games.

Social capital is defined by Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992:14) as ‘the sum of the resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or a group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition.’ The resources referred to are the supply from which benefit is produced, for example knowledge and information or could mean the assets that can be drawn on by a person or organisation in order to
function effectively, for example wealth, capital and riches. Resources could also be an action or strategy which may be adopted in adverse circumstances, for example measures, methods or courses. In SAPS sport, knowledge could be seen as a resource whereby various sport participants, for example, referees and coaches could use to the benefit of the teams competing. Proper and relevant sport specific knowledge is needed at SAPS club level and national championship level so that the objectives and goals of SAPS sport may be met.

Schuller, Baron, and Field (2000) define bridging social relationship or networks as the building of networks or connections between heterogeneous groups which are likely to be more fragile, but more likely also to foster social inclusion. In SAPS sport there are different types of police officers who develop relationships through sport as they participate in club activities and national championships. SAPS sport participants are motivated to gather together because of the similarities and perception that they have in regard to the sport played within the police service. It is perceived that if you participate in sport as an employee of SAPS you could benefit, for example physical skills (motor skills development), social skills such as team skills and intellectual skills such as public speaking and the speaking of different languages.

3.7 POLICY-MAKING AS ELEMENT OF CULTURAL CAPITAL IN SAPS SPORT

Policies are necessary to create cultural capital within the SAPS sporting environment because without policies sport would not have a defined place within the police workforce. Policies are equally important to give or provide a focal point for bringing together provincial SAPS sport teams. SAPS resources invested in sport are accounted for when policies are implemented. The SAPS sport policy ensures that structures such as SAPS sport federations and mechanisms, for example debates during SAPS sport indaba are in place to deal effectively, and on a more coordinated basis, with issues and programmes relating to SAPS sport. Creating a healthy SAPS sport environment requires collaboration between service providers and clients, which becomes possible when policies are in place. This collaboration is social interaction and social cohesion which is cultural capital. SAPS sport policies ensure equitable and sustainable use of resources without which cultural capital cannot be achieved. Sport participants cannot benefit through participation in sport if resources are not made available.

Policy in broader terms is defined as a course of action adapted and pursued by a government, a party or an institution. Policies are therefore designed to tackle and solve problems (Hill, 2009).
and are categorised into institutional policies and public policies. Public policy is an attempt on the part of government to address issues within its territory. Institutional policy is an attempt of an entity or organisation to govern and regulate its affairs efficiently and effectively, for example the SAPS sport federations. Policies according to Hill (2009) are broadly divided into:

- Distributive policies;
- Redistributive policies; and
- Regulatory policies.

Distributive policies are meant to ensure fair distribution of resources to the SAPS sport participants, more particularly to disadvantaged individuals. In accordance with redistributive policies the existing imbalances are addressed when coming to resources, for example finance and equipment that enable efficient and effective SAPS championships. Regulatory policies are designed to limit the discretion of individuals and institutions and also to avoid abuse of resources and opportunities made available by entities such as government, sport clubs, federations and associations (Hill, 2009). In an SAPS sport context, regulatory policies guide and regulate sport participation and prevent abuse of allocated resources and avail opportunities to all interested participants. The sport policy within SAPS sport is categorised as a regulatory policy because it is used to guide and regulate sport in the police which decreases the rate of abuse of resources.

According to Howlett and Ramesh (2003), the process of policy-making consists of three steps:

- Identifying the problem or issue that policy is founded on;
- The role-players in the problem which is being addressed; and
- Policy development and formulation.

Policies address problems or issues in a particular organisation. In the identification of an issue or problem, SAPS officials work hand-in-hand with the public or target group and role-player to point out areas of need which amount to social capital. Role-players are individuals or groups that are influential in designing a plan to address the problem (Anderson, 2003). In an SAPS context, these could be SAPS sport participants of sport federations directly affected by the problem at hand. Policy development and formulation are the final step where officials are
responsible for formulating a policy based on available data. Data is (collective word thus used in the singular form – ED) collected through measures or processes that are put in place, for example, the SAPS sports indaba as consultative forum, public consultation and internal consultation within the department of police. During this forum the legal services division provides legal experts to make inputs in the policy.

3.7.1 Factors contributing to the formulation of policies

Several factors mandate the formulation of SAPS’s national sport policy to develop it to its full potential. Organisational culture of SAPS as an element of cultural capital drives the management of the organisation and all important role players to fashion sport policy around the strategies and opportunities for employees’ diverse cultural background and skills to act and socialise. SAPS sport subscribes to these factors as one of the providers of sport services to its clients within the Department of Police. Factors in the SAPS context that contribute to policy formulation include:

- Police officers or SAPS staff members currently lead a more sedentary life-style which could result in an increase of preventable diseases such as cardio-vascular problems, high blood pressure and obesity. This means maintenance of physical fitness of police officers forms part of cultural capital.
- The belief that balanced physical, intellectual, social and moral growth is important to the total development of all SAPS members to function optimally in the workplace or work environment. Knowledge accumulation forms the basis on which cultural capital is realised.
- An understanding and awareness that proper provision of opportunities for SAPS members to take part in meaningful physical activity not only leads to constructive use of leisure time, but also helps to alleviate some of SAPS’s organisational problems such as intolerance, aimlessness, aggressiveness, alcohol and substance abuse.
- A conviction that properly organised SAPS sport is an ethical pursuit that in a practical way can help raise values and ethical behaviour of sport participants.
- A desire to raise the level of performance of SAPS athletes and SAPS sport organisations so as to bring credit and promote the image of the Department of Police.
Policy according to Craythorne (2003) is not a strategy, but it is an accepted or proposed course of conduct, and a strategy may contain a number of policies. It is concerned with the future, but it has to be formulated in the present while all too often the factors which influence it happened in the past. When SAPS sport policy is put in writing and made available both electronically, for example on organisational intranet and internet and in the form of hand-outs, it translates into the form of tangible cultural capital as that falls under the category of literature. All this inculcates the belief that as a police officer you have to do sport and physical activities to maintain your physical fitness level that would match the demands that go with being in a law enforcement agency. This form of cultural capital is intangible. Within SAPS sport policy or prescripts there is a set standards that police officers have to meet to be in the position to participate in sport activities, this also is one of the forms of intangible cultural capital. Once members of SAPS who participate in organised sport meet the set required standards of sport, they then develop values that are attached to participating in sport in the work environment, for example, integrity, loyalty and honesty to their teams.

Sport policy in SAPS promotes sport for the total benefit of the employees which has spin-offs bearing positive results for the organisation, for example a productive and professional workforce. Polices drafted in SAPS sport are based on the assertion of Craythorne (2003) above which forms an overarching strategy. Policy process is not linear, it does not start at one point and end at another, and instead it is cyclical, representing a continuous spiral (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2000). In the SAPS sporting environment there is that constant consultation in formulation of policy and there is also constant review of the policy to avoid becoming obsolete and outdated. In a way embodied cultural capital is accrued because SAPS sport participants are given the opportunity to demonstrate diverse tastes and preferences during the process of consultation regarding sport policy development. It is at this stage that SAPS employees’ expectations, active lifestyle and disposition are considered when police sport is crafted; this translates to ‘habitus’ which is an element of cultural capital.

Parsons (1995) maintains that a policy is an attempt to define and structure a rational basis for action or inaction. The custodians of sport within the Department of Police ensure that what is enshrined in the policy is followed to the letter which means an action. None-implementation of the policy prescripts means that there is inaction from the side of the service provider being the
custodians of sport. Monitoring and evaluation in SAPS form part of the systems that are put in place to ensure that there is no inaction when it comes to execution or implementation of the policy which is of benefit to the target audience and the implementer.

The committees and structures such as multisport committee and sport federations that are established are a form of field which is an element of cultural capital. These structures that have been put in place are formed as stated by SAPS sport policy and as such structural social spaces and opportunities where employees can socialise, are created. This is social cohesion which is a cultural capital element which gives access and opportunities for social gatherings, and opportunities for committees that are platforms for SAPS sport participants to work together.

3.7.2 Focus point in sport policymaking

Sport agencies whilst promoting sport and physical activity, deliver policy and practices in an incomplete way that largely ignore the need for a concurrent overall sport policy for sport safety (Timpka, et al., 2008). Participation in sport in the SAPS at times lacks professional impetus when it comes to the medical needs of the athletes because of lack of interest and/or being ill-informed in this regard. The medics available in the SAPS at times see their involvement in sport activities during the championships as ad hoc and as such request much from the SAPS sport teams in terms of first-aid equipment and any other material of interest that will enable first aiders to function optimally. SAPS sport policy is clear on the issue of medical care and/or safety of the SAPS sport participants during the championships, that is why in some of the SAPS championships like athletics, rugby and soccer, there is a private doctor or service provider who render services to the athletes at the expense of the medical aid.

The provision of medical attention for sport participants during SAPS sport championships as a sport policy issue contributes to intangible cultural capital. It is intangible cultural capital because this kind of service could instil the sense of self-belief and self-confidence to those sport participants taking part in the events in question. The presence of medical staff at the sport fields has a positive impact on the players as they play because of the assurance of anticipated medical attention or treatment. The participants have confidence that if one is injured there could always be professional medical attention for the participant in question.
SAPS sport policy has one of its focal points as welfare provision, this on its own helps in empowering health and providing affordable local leisure facilities and activities (Powell, 2003). Provisioning of sport activities according to sport policy within the SAPS addresses the physical wellness of the employees and the maintenance of the fitness as fitness is the inherent requirement of the police officer’s job. It is ‘habitus’ because SAPS employees’ expectations are met to promote active lifestyle and disposition within the working environment.

The directive as per SAPS sport policy is that all members of the service have to take part in sport if work circumstances permit. This is indicative of the point that SAPS as an employer, gives employees permission and resources to acquire cultural capital which will be of benefit in accrual of social factors, such as community pride, identity, crime prevention and social networks. The organisational indicators in this regard are that SAPS sport participants have perceptions of what is socially desirable and realisation of organisational values. The participants in SAPS sport bond amongst themselves and they also link with the clients being the communities during the sport championships, which is bonding and linking cultural capital.

SAPS has as a sport policy matter put systems in place that afford the participants the opportunity to access resources as enablers for effective and efficient participation in employee sport. It is an element of social cohesion because opportunities and access for social gatherings are given to SAPS sport participants through organisational sport. During the sport club trials, coaching clinics and championships, SAPS sport participants interact and communicate with each other socially which leads to effective policing and services. This process is social cohesion as it is in the form of a social gathering for SAPS sport participants.

The sport participants develop communication skills, listening skills and interpersonal relation skills that could be translated into policing situations. Leadership skills could be acquired by captains of teams as they are overseeing the proceedings during matches and also serve as spokespersons for the team. Social investment is the ultimate goal in this regard as the SAPS sport participants acquire skills and knowledge due to their active participation in communities and sport committees.


3.8 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

The aim of Chapter Three was to explain in detail and discuss sport as cultural capital in the police service or law enforcement agencies; sport, power and politics; and sport policymaking. The contribution of sport in the police cultural capital and the ability to form cultural capital within the law enforcement or police service is evident in the literature reviewed in Chapter Two. Cultural capital is seen as an attributes of class forming the foundation for social selection in life and also indicating class position within a certain given period in society. In general, cultural capital represents the way people act and socialise which also includes values, behaviour, language practices and type of dress. This is a form of investment which is a product of society’s dominant class and it is reproduced through generations. As people participate in social life, they gain ideas and knowledge from which they draw, for example, rules of etiquette such as to speak eloquently and write effectively. Tastes, behaviour and preferences which are core characteristics of a certain class are formed by cultural capital.

Sport organised in the law enforcement agencies is solely meant for making the force combat ready and also for the maintenance of fitness levels of the officers to cope with the demands of the day-to-day rigors of their work. This generates cultural capital through the social interaction that is formed when members or sport participants meet at the sport trials and championships. It is also during SAPS championships and trials where there is transference of best practices such as management of time and the ability to address meetings. This amounts to acquiring skills that translate into cultural capital at its best.

In pursuance of the goals of sport participation, the accrual of cultural capital is indirectly realised because sport in SAPS helps to develop the skills of all participating members, for example time management, leadership skills, listening skills and problem-solving skills. It is also through sport that SAPS members are in the position to improve the police service’s relationship with communities, to cooperate with communities, all spheres of government and other role players like businesses and non-government organisations. This restores confidence and trust in the SAPS while instilling a sense of pride in police officials about the nature of policing. Participating in sport within the SAPS environment creates a living heritage which refers to cultural knowledge, expressions and practices of different individuals and communities passed from one generation to another. Sport as cultural capital in the South African Police Service
allows police officers, communities and different groups to keep their history alive and provides a sense of identity.

Chapter Four that follows, deals with the research methodology and research design, the research approach, type of research, research instrument, research universum, research population, research sample, and sampling method used in the study. Data collection, analysis techniques and interpretation procedures have been used to ensure that the objectives of this study are met. Ethical aspects related to this study are also discussed.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter Four, the research approach, type of research, research instrument, research universum, research population, research sample, and sampling method are clarified in detail. The data collection, analysis techniques and interpretation procedures that were used to ensure that the objectives of this study are met are also discussed in the paragraphs below. Ethical aspects related to the research are also explored.

Wisker (2008) maintains that methodology is the rationale or reason and the philosophical assumption underlying a particular study rather than a collection of methods, through which the methodology leads to and informs the methods. The research approach gives an indication of the type of research that the researcher used. This also entails the instruments that were used to collect and collate the data from the target population and its size.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Burns and Grove (2003:195), research design is defined as “a blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings.” It refers to the structure of an inquiry; a logical matter rather than a logistical one. Research design helps the researcher to have minimal chances of drawing incorrect inferences from collected data and it also helps to ensure that collected data enables the researcher to answer the research question convincingly. It is through appropriate research design that the researcher will be in the position to get reliable information about the study’s key features. In research design, the researcher ensures that the nature of the study is described in detail and analysis is thoroughly done. The structure and plan of the study is done and outlined indicating the mechanisms and strategies that the researcher uses. A qualitative methodological approach was used in this study because it is considered a highly effective and efficient approach to probe the subjects. The research approach, research population, sampling method and research sample are discussed in the paragraphs below.
4.2.1 Research approach
The study was conducted within a qualitative descriptive paradigm which entails the process of studying the nature and meanings of phenomenon of sport as cultural capital in SAPS focusing on the way things appear to respondents through experience. According to Creswell (2009), qualitative procedures demonstrate a different approach to scholarly inquiry and employ a variety of philosophical assumptions, inquiry strategies, and data collection methods, analysis and interpretation. This is emphasised by Edwards and Skinner (2009) when they describe qualitative research as a means to find out what happens, how it happens, and why it happens.

In a qualitative approach there is the potential of supplementing and reorienting understanding of sport as cultural capital in the law enforcement agency. According to Page and Meyer (2003), a qualitative descriptive study sets out to describe a phenomenon (sport as cultural capital) or control of any elements, for example social capital and other forms of capital involved in the phenomenon or event under study. On the other hand, Burns and Grove (2003:12) define a qualitative study as “a systematic subjective approach that researchers use to describe life experiences and situations to give them meaning”. According to Halloway and Wheeler (2002:30) qualitative research is “a form of social enquiry focusing on how people interpret and make sense of their experiences and the world in which they live.” The qualitative approach in this study helps to develop additional insight regarding sport as cultural capital in the South African Police Service and it is also useful where not much is known about the subject of interest like in the law enforcement agency such as South African Police Service (Page & Meyer, 2003). The researcher focused on the experiences from the respondents’ perspective, experiences within SAPS sport and their feelings with emphasis on the understanding of sport in the law enforcement agencies. The researcher’s rationale in using the qualitative approach was to explore and give a clear description of SAPS sport participants’ opinions on sport as cultural capital in SAPS.

4.2.2 Research type
This research is qualitative research, which means it explored the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human issue such as sport as cultural capital within SAPS (Creswell, 2009). It focused specifically on the understanding of the social phenomenon, which is sport as cultural
capital, and the ways in which people make sense and extract meaning from the experience of participation in sport. As Patton (2002) notes, qualitative research is neither unilinear nor straightforward, but is iterative. It uses the skill of ‘tacking’, going back and forth between data collection, analysis and findings. This implies that during the semi-structured interviews there was probing or follow-up questions to the interviewees. It infers that the work is always grounded on data; and the strategies are more open-ended and flexible.

A qualitative investigation was deemed appropriate to determine how sport can impact on SAPS as an organisation that has to deliver service to communities. This means that sport will be looked at as cultural capital in the police service and its role in the organisation and how it impacts on service delivery within the communities that the South African Police Service takes care of by ensuring that they are safe and feel safe. A qualitative approach is appropriate for this study because the researcher knows the respondents that are going to be interviewed, and these respondents are individuals who are knowledgeable in regard to SAPS sport.

4.2.3 Research problem and research question
The problem that this study wishes to address centres around why sport as mechanism to build cultural capital within the South African Police Service is not given the proper attention it deserves and its indirect implications to service delivery to the citizens of South Africa. SAPS sport should be recognised as activities that provide opportunities and settings of social interaction, sharing common interests and enhancing a sense of community or belonging. It also brings about social networks, norms and values and understanding that facilitate cooperation within or among groups. Sport has tremendous value, but because of the priorities of the organisation (SAPS) such as crime combating and fighting, fewer efforts are put in the organisation and management of sport.

This then leads to the question that needs to be answered to undertake the proposed research:

Is the potential of sport as cultural capital perceived and realised in the South African Police Service?
4.2.4 Research aim and objectives
The primary aim of the study is to explore and describe if the potential of sport as cultural capital is realised in the South African Police Service.

In order to achieve the stated primary aim, the following secondary objectives are:

- To establish benchmarks or appropriate practices for sport to be used optimally as cultural capital;
- To assess the degree to which the police rank system affects the SAPS employees’ participation in sport, as players, volunteers and members of sports clubs and spectators;
- To ascertain the contribution that sport can make to human resource capacity building, particularly through volunteers being involved in decision-making and management in the SAPS;
- To determine the extent in which sport can provide opportunities for social engagement which can create awareness of differences and break down barriers for individuals and groups within the SAPS;
- To explore how sport can be used as an engagement mechanism or tool, to build relationships with hard to reach individuals or groups; and
- To provide guidelines for sport in the SAPS to develop cultural capital.

4.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
According to Polit and Hungler (2004:233) research methodology refers to “the ways of obtaining, organising and analysing data.” Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004:36), state that research methodology is “a coherent group of methods that complement one another and that have the ability to fit, to deliver data and findings that will benefit the researcher purpose.” Research methodology refers to the science of studying how research is to be done or carried out. Essentially, it is the procedures by which researchers go about their work of describing, explaining and predicting phenomena (Henning et al., 2004). Research methodology is also defined as the study of methods by which knowledge is gained. The researcher must be familiar with suitable methods for the stated research problem, the order of accuracy of the results of the method, and the efficiency of the method. The research methodology in this study included the research instrument, sampling and data collection, data analysis and interpretation to be discussed in the following paragraphs.
4.3.1 Research instrument
The term instrument as maintained by Page and Meyer (2003) refers to anything used to elect measures of the research variables. This means a tool that is used to extract information from the respondents that have different characteristics. A variable may change from group to group, person to person, or even with one person over time. The tool may be an instrument such as a schedule of questions developed for a survey, a standardised test, or an interview format to be followed. The researcher used words as opposed to numbers as it is a qualitative research. In compiling the list of questions that were used to gather data from the respondents, the researcher used open-ended questions (Creswell, 2009). The research instrument in this study is a research questions schedule guiding semi-structured face-to-face interviews. The semi-structured interview questions schedule comprised the following set of questions:

- **First set of questions**: questions related to demographic information of respondents. These questions were meant for getting information relating to groupings which means class hierarchy, exclusion and social cohesion as elements of cultural capital. This also included the employees’ recognition through certificates, merit awards and qualifications which are institutionalised cultural capital.

- **Second set of questions**: questions related to the respondent’s involvement in SAPS sport. The understanding of organisational structure within SAPS sport environment was established by the researcher, this indicated the opportunities for diverse cultural background and skills to act and socialise. The respondents could also indicate their tastes and preferences, intangible organisational values, beliefs, traditions and standards which are embodied cultural capital and objectified cultural capital.

- **Third set of questions**: questions related to the respondent (self) and others. Questions asked were related to how the respondents get the opportunities to work together in committees, groups and task teams, how they get access to social gatherings, which are a form of social cohesion. This also indicated the structural social spaces and opportunities where SAPS sport participants can socialise, this is field as an element of cultural capital.

- **Fourth set of questions**: questions related to the respondent’s understanding and dealing with the sport participants’ special needs. The respondents could indicate their perceptions of what is socially desirable and how they realise values, which indicate the diverse norms and values as elements of cultural capital. The questions were intended to
extract information whereby the respondents could indicate that there are policies and practices that exclude individuals or groups based on tastes, values, physical and cognitive abilities, which are ‘exclusion’ as an element of cultural capital.

The abovementioned set of questions relate to sport as cultural capital by virtue of probing the respondents about their involvement in SAPS sport and also their understanding and dealing with each other’s needs as sport participants. The set of questions relates to sport as cultural capital because the respondents’ understanding was probed to establish whether sport helps in ensuring that there are social networks, norms, values and understanding that facilitate co-operation. The questions also explored further as to whether the respondents see sport as the mechanism of providing social interaction and whether it can also be used as a vehicle of social interaction locally and internationally. This is social cohesion and field in that there are opportunities for social gatherings, structural social spaces where SAPS sport participants can socialise.

The questions relate to the set objectives because they help to establish appropriate practices within SAPS sport whilst assessing the degree to which the military rank system affects employees’ participation in sport. This is class hierarchy as an element of cultural capital. The respondents are probed on what contributions SAPS sport can make towards human resource capacity building and the extent on which opportunities are provided by sport for social engagement. The above made explicit field and social cohesion as elements of cultural capital because that is structural social space, opportunities where employees can socialise, access for social gatherings and working together as groups, committees and task teams.

Semi-structured face-to-face interviews were structured according to the question to explore the phenomenon of sport as cultural capital in SAPS. Qualitative interviews were used as the main instrument of data collection, and in conjunction with document analysis, for example journals, government reports and acts and books. Literature that was reviewed in Chapter Two of this study was used to compile the objectives. All questions in the schedule relate to five objectives of the study. These questions were derived from the literature that was reviewed and as such there is relationship between the questions and the objectives of the study. The researcher critically analysed literature that deals with sport in the law enforcement agencies and
organisations that provide sport for the employees. The reviewed literature was on sport as cultural capital in the law enforcement agencies. The researcher utilised open-ended questions using semi-structured, face-to-face interviews.

The interviews incorporated questions on the following aspects: demographic and background information of respondents, sport and recreation involvement of the respondents, sport and recreation facilities used and their location, level of involvement in sport, current relationships with sports bodies. The questions relate to objectives that deal with sport benchmarking, the degree to which power affects sport in the SAPS, human capacity building, opportunities for social engagement, sport as tool to build relationships and framework designing to develop sport as cultural capital (secondary objectives 1 to 6).

In conducting this research, probing questions were posed to the respondents to extract information that helped to establish the benchmarks or appropriate practices for sport to be used optimally as cultural capital. This showed the strategies and opportunities for diverse cultural backgrounds.

Secondly, the police rank system was assessed to examine how it affects SAPS employees’ participation in sport, as players, volunteers and members of sports clubs and assupporters. The question was posed in such a way that it probed whether low ranking officers do have a final say in sport-related issues especially in their political oversight organs such as federations. It is class hierarchy and exclusion as elements of cultural capital because of the job titles and individual tastes and preferences. Sport in essence can contribute immensely to the development of human resources by capacitating people through decision-making, engagement in forums of sport and training interventions for administrators and coaching clinics for referees and umpires. The element of cultural capital visible in this regard is organisational culture because of the creation of opportunities for diverse cultural backgrounds and skills to act and socialise.

Thirdly, care was taken that questions, which were asked, were posed in such a way that they determine the extent in which sport can provide opportunities for social engagement, which creates awareness of differences and breaks down barriers for individuals and groups. This is
social cohesion as an element of cultural capital. The fourth objective gave rise to questions that
looked at how sport can be used as an engagement tool or mechanism to build relationships with
hard to reach individuals or groups like top management of the SAPS. The respondents could
indicate how they perceive what is socially desirable and values that they realise which relates to
diverse norms and values as cultural capital element.

The last question solicited information from the interviewees to help the researcher to design a
framework for sport in the SAPS to develop cultural capital. The objectives-based questions
were of such a nature that it was evident as to how do they relate to the essence of cultural
capital. The types of questions probed the extent or period and portfolio of individuals and their
participation in sport, the importance of participation in sport which entailed benefits such as
social interaction and empowerment interventions, systems and structures in place to monitor
and support participation in sport. The understanding of policy, power, and how resources
provisioning is done and support structures indicated the prevalent of class hierarchy, embodied
cultural capital and ‘habitus’. Lastly, the frequency at which individuals participate in sport at
social, regional and international level was probed. It helped the researcher to gather information
from respondents involved in sport within the SAPS which demonstrated diverse tastes and
preferences, employees expectations and active lifestyle, access and opportunities for social
gatherings (social cohesion) and indicated the extent in which sport is perceived as cultural
capital.

To minimise the measurement error of the interview questions, the questions were tested on an
appropriate group before the actual study. These pilot results were used to fine-tune the
instrument or tool to be used in the interviews. The literature study was on government reports
on sport and policies, magazines, articles, media reports, newspapers, journals, books and
information readily available and accessible in the public domain.

4.3.2 Sampling
According to Polit, Beck and Hungler (2001:234), a sample is defined as “a proportion of a
population.” The researcher chose the sample from National Head Office sport coordinators,
Provincial sport coordinators, SAPS sport federation committee members and SAPS sport
participants employed in the service across the Republic of South Africa. The sample was drawn from all nine provinces, namely: Eastern Cape, Free State, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Northern Cape, North West and Western Cape. Head office divisions served as the tenth province amongst the nine geographically demarcated provinces.

4.3.2.1 Research universum
Research universum is a population which is the complete set of elements or entities under study (investigation) or an aggregate or totality of all objects, subjects or respondents that conform to a set of specifications (Richards, 2005). The research universum for this study is the South African Police Service personnel appointed in terms of the SAPS Act and Public Service Act based in all the nine (09) provinces and participating in all the 22 (twenty two) approved funded sporting codes championships. This includes police officers and personnel who are voluntarily doing management and administration in the SAPS federations, police officers, and personnel who have been democratically elected in accordance with the constitutions of the SAPS sport federations.

4.3.2.2. Research population
Research population as defined by Burns and Grove (2003:234) refers to all the elements that meet the criteria for inclusion in a study, which means a total number of units from which data can be collected. The research population is also described as generally a large collection of individuals or objects that is the focus of a scientific study (Burns & Grove, 2003). The research population of this particular study consisted of ten (10) Provincial Sports Offices based in the Nine (09) geographical boundaries of provinces in the Republic of South Africa, the tenth entity being Head office (divisions of SAPS) which has the status of a province when it comes to participation in SAPS sanctioned championships or sport events. This also included the executive committee members of SAPS Sports Federations of all 22 approved funded sporting codes and their participants. The establishment of all the target offices (respondents) as the population of study was verified. The verification was done in the form of checking on the establishment of each office to ascertain if the respondents really worked at or are stationed at the office in question and to determine whether respondents are members of the SAPS federations who have been democratically elected by their respective federations.
The sport federations’ executive committee members are currently holding office or have portfolios within the structures or federations. There were three levels of the population, which included the provincial sport offices; SAPS sport federations and participants in the 22 funded approved sporting codes. Each level was highlighted and a purposive sample in each of the levels was taken in terms of the existing ranks, gender and race. Not all ranks within SAPS were represented in the sport federations due to the system of democratic election used to elect office bearers. This also applied to the sport offices in the provinces as some ranks are too high to be assigned the unit of the provincial sport offices’ structure.

The levels were categorised in such a way that they depict all the sport participants in SAPS, which are members who are voluntarily doing the administration of sport as elected office bearers, members who are employed in the sport environment to do administration and management of sport at national and provincial level. The last level is that of members who take part in SAPS sporting events at provincial, national and international level, these are sport participants only. These participants qualify to be included in the provincial teams and national teams by virtue of good performance in the fields of play or in their specific sporting codes.

The levels are as depicted in Table 4.1 below, which should be read in conjunction with Table 4.2, depicting the demographic status of the population, the ranks, race and gender and the total number of the research population.
SAMPLE LEVELS

Table 4.1: Levels of part of the research population as the sample (design by the researcher)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL ONE: Provincial and Head Office Sport Offices</th>
<th>NORTH WEST</th>
<th>NORTHERN CAPE</th>
<th>EASTERN CAPE</th>
<th>WESTERN CAPE</th>
<th>FREE STATE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LIMPOPO</td>
<td>MPUMALANGA</td>
<td>GAUTENG</td>
<td>KWAZULU-NATAL</td>
<td>HEAD OFFICE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEVEL TWO: SAPS-approved funded sporting codes</td>
<td>1 BISLEY</td>
<td>6 ROAD CYCLING</td>
<td>11 SOCCER (F)</td>
<td>16 MOUNTAIN BIKE</td>
<td>21 SQUASH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 ATHLETICS</td>
<td>7 BADMINTON</td>
<td>12 SOCCER (M)</td>
<td>17 COMBAT RIFLE</td>
<td>22 NETBALL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 TENNIS</td>
<td>8 RUGBY</td>
<td>13 VOLLEYBALL</td>
<td>18 CRICKET</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 CHESS</td>
<td>9 BODY BUILDING</td>
<td>14 MARTIAL ARTS</td>
<td>19 GOLF</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 TUG-OF-WAR</td>
<td>10 PISTOL SHOOTING</td>
<td>15 MARATHON</td>
<td>20 PRACTICAL PISTOL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEVEL THREE: SAPS Employee Participants in the SAPS Championships</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants within SAPS Championships:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appointed in terms of Police Act and Public Service Act</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL (32)</td>
<td>LEVEL ONE: 5 M &amp; 5 F; LEVELS TWO AND THREE: 12 M &amp; 10 F</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.2: Demographic representation of part of the population as the sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Race / Gender</th>
<th>Total No</th>
<th>Act</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lt General</td>
<td>A / M (1)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>PA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maj General</td>
<td>A / M (1)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>PA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brigadier</td>
<td>W / M (5), A / M (2), A / F (1)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>PA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colonel</td>
<td>W / M (11), A / M (7), W / F (3), I / M (1), C / M (2), C / F (1)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>PA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lt Colonel</td>
<td>A / M (14), W / M (41), W / F (11), I / M (2), A / F (2), C / M (3), C / F (2)</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>PA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major</td>
<td>W / F (1)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>PA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Captain</td>
<td>A / M (12), W / M (33), W / F (3), C / M (8), C / F (1), I / F (1)</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>PA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lt</td>
<td>W / M (1), A / M (1), A / F (1)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>PA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W/O</td>
<td>W / M (33), W / F (5), A / M (8), C / M (4), C / F (2), I / M (2),</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>PA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sergeant</td>
<td>W / M (1)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>PA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constable</td>
<td>A / M (3), A / F (1), W / M (1), C / M (1)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>PA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAC</td>
<td>W / F (2), A / M (5), C / F (2)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>PSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC</td>
<td>C / M (1), I / M (1), A / M (3), A / F (2)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>PSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPO</td>
<td>A / M (2), A / F (1)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>PSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PO</td>
<td>A / F (1), W / M (1)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>PSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FSA</td>
<td>A / M (1)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>PSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F/MAN</td>
<td>A / M (1)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>PSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>MALE</strong></td>
<td>213</td>
<td>233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>FAMALE</strong></td>
<td>43</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>I</strong></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>C</strong></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>W</strong></td>
<td>152</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>A</strong></td>
<td>70</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>PA</strong></td>
<td>256</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>PSA</strong></td>
<td>256</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
KEY
A - African; C - Coloured; I - Indian; W - White; PA - Police Act; and PSA - Public Service Act; M - Male; F - Female

Appointment of personnel within the Department of Police is based on two acts, namely the Public Service Act and Police Service Act. The Public Service Act personnel are members who cannot perform police duties, but can only do support functions within the Department. The members who are appointed under the Police Act are personnel who can perform both support and police function depending on their placement within the Department. All operational or functional police members’ core function is that of policing and the non-operational (functional) members perform support functions. Both groups are allowed to take part in sport within the working environment.

4.3.2.3. Sampling method
The researcher used non-probability purposive sampling where the researcher consciously selected particular elements or subjects for addition in the study to ensure respondents had certain characteristics pertinent to the study. Respondents were selected based on the knowledge of a research population, the purpose of the study and the subjects were selected because of having the same characteristics. The common characteristics that respondents have are that they employed in SAPS as a law enforcement agency, which allows or permits them to participate in sport and the take part in sport as amateurs for the benefit of the organisation. Respondents were chosen for their likelihood to offer willing, knowledgeably and informative insight into the topic (Gretton, 2009). The researcher selected SAPS sport participants, sport managers and administrators to participate in the study because they are a distinctive unit.

Purposive sampling was chosen because the respondents were selected based on their experience and knowledge of the phenomenon under study, (sport as cultural capital in the South African Police Service). In purposive sampling, generalisation of results is limited to the population under study. As such the results of this study are only valid within the SAPS sport context. The sample comprised of both females and males within the three levels as indicated in Table 4.2 above. Race and rank structure were not manipulated to cover the entire SAPS establishment.
because it is controlled by the sport system of the South African Police Service, through
democratic elections for office bearers.

4.3.2.4. Research sample

According to Cooper and Schindler (2003), a sample is a part of the population carefully selected
to represent that population under study. A purposive sampling procedure was used as the
researcher had access to names in the research population and could access the people (or other
elements) directly (Creswell, 2009). Purposive sampling is a valid way of sampling in qualitative
research. In purposive sampling the researcher determines what and how many respondents to
select and who to interview (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). It was envisaged that ten per cent
(10%) (N=28) of the total number of the target population (N=288) would form the purposive
research sample of the study. Ten per cent represents a valid sample size within a qualitative
research context (Cooper & Scindler, 2003). The researcher took one respondent from all three
levels, which were, one from SAPS federations’ executive committee, one from provincial sport
office and one participant from 22 approved funded sporting codes (refer to Table 4.3 below).

To fulfil the requirements of validity and reliability, a sample size of 28 respondents as 10% (ten
per cent) of the total number of the population of N=288 people was aimed at being used. The
researcher did not, however, limit himself to 10% and added respondents until a saturation point
was reached. The number of respondents in this case ended up being 32. The added number of
four respondents brought another dimension to the study; these were members of the national
sport office who were added as sport coordinators. These members brought different views to the
rest of the respondents because they are the ones who are organising SAPS sport and doing
office administration to deliver sport services. The researcher viewed the national sport
coordinators as service providers and also as people who are privy to what is going on behind
closed doors from the initial stages of the sport activities or events to their finalisation. To cover
the demographics of the respondents the researcher included information on gender, marital
status, education level, military rank, age and period of employment in the service.

The table below indicates how the respondents were spread over the research population number
in terms of gender.

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The total number of population was obtained from all the three levels as depicted in Table 4.1, the national and provincial sport coordinators, and national sport participants added together with Table 4.2 which is only the SAPS sport federations’ executive committee members.

### Table 4.3: Distribution of the research sample in terms of gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POPULATION</th>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>SAMPLE SIZE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.2 EXECUTIVE COMMITTEES</td>
<td>Males</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Females</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLE 4.1 LEVEL ONE (COORDINATORS)</td>
<td>Males</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Females</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLE 4.1 LEVELS TWO &amp; THREE (SPORT PARTICIPANTS)</td>
<td>Males</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Females</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 4.3.3 Data collection

An interactive procedure in the form of semi-structured face-to-face interviews was used for data collection. The semi-structured face-to-face interviews conducted by the researcher were 32 in total. The additional number of four respondents to the research population (N=28) added the information that relates to management and administration of SAPS sport at head office level as compared to provincial sport offices. The different dimension they brought was the information of being service providers as the head office members are the ones doing the management and administration of SAPS sport. Page and Meyer (2008) maintain that interaction procedures require interaction between respondents and the researcher in order for data to be collected. The procedure also introduced the human social-communication element to the researcher (Page & Meyer, 2003). There was social interaction between the researcher and the respondents. During the semi-structured face-to-face interviews the researcher and the respondents interactively engaged in question and answer methods which were not rigid as there were follow-up questions from both the researcher and respondents. The researcher asked probing questions to clarify answers from respondents.
A pilot study was done before the formal data collection in the form of semi-structured face-to-face interviews whereby two respondents were subjected to questions that were compiled in the questions schedule (Creswell, 2009). This helped to identify mistakes and flaws within the data gathering method. Field notes were taken in both instances to have information readily available. The results of the pilot study were not discarded, but were filed, archived but not included in the research results.

The actual data collection required the researcher’s personal visit and face-to-face interviewing of 32 respondents in the SAPS sport environment. The interview were conducted in English because almost all the respondents were literate and could understand English language. The researcher secured appointments with all the respondents to interview them in a quiet place void of disturbances. The set up was prepared in such a way that there were no distractions and noise as the researcher used a voice recorder during the interviews. Telephone calls were made and/or the researcher to secure the appointments used word of mouth. The questions posed were related to the objectives of the study. Questions were asked from the questions schedule to explore particular aspects of sport as cultural capital, social capital and respondents’ participation in law enforcement sport. The researcher also ensured that questions asked were those that were included in the schedule, but only relevant probing questions were posed based on the respondents’ answers.

The researcher had a maximum of four main topics (headings) constituting a schedule of questions that were obtained or extracted from the literature reviewed. The topics of the questions covered, demographic information, respondents’ involvement in SAPS sport, respondents’ relations with others (social interaction) and the respondents’ understanding and dealing with SAPS sport participants’ special needs. Each of these main topics comprised of questions related to cultural capital, social capital and the respondents’ sport participation within law enforcement.

The questions were structured in such a way that they probed the respondents on issues related to cultural capital, social capital and how sport participation can bring about cultural and social
capital into the work environment. The questions were structured in such a way that they solicited information related to organisational structure and how the SAPS sport participants show diverse norms and values, class hierarchy and social cohesion. The respondents were questioned in a way that they would indicate their expectations whilst showing their active lifestyle and disposition. The issues of sport structures and understanding of sport policies and practices were touched on, these imply that ‘field’ and ‘exclusion’ as elements of cultural capital were probed. In some of the questions asked, there was an indication of soliciting information relating to the respondents’ diverse tastes and preferences which are embodied cultural capital and the recognition that the respondents as sport participants get when participating in SAPS sport, this also is institutional cultural capital. When the researcher asked questions relating to rank system or structures in SAPS sport, this probed the understanding of the respondents on class hierarchy and ‘exclusion’ as elements of cultural capital.

The semi-structured face-to-face interviews were audio-taped by the researcher with the informed consent of the respondents. The researcher made field notes during the interviews which helped to note things that could not be spotted from the recordings. The researcher also made use of a literature study on cultural capital, employee sport and sport in law enforcement agencies as method of data collection in this study.

The semi-structured, face-to-face interviews gave the respondents the freedom to respond in their own way, enabling the researcher to follow up on anticipated and unanticipated areas in the interviews. Probing questions were asked in some instances whereas in others there was no need to ask follow-up questions. The interviewer interacted with respondents during the process as this was a semi-structured face-to-face process. Notes were taken by the researcher in support of the information recorded on the audio-tape recorder.

4.3.4 Data analysis and interpretation
Cooper and Schindler (2003) maintain that data analysis involves collecting open-ended data based on asking general questions and developing an analysis from the information supplied by participants. Data analysis was done through content analysis, which links with Atlas ti by means of coding and identification of themes. Content analysis according to Sandelowski (2000)
is appropriate in qualitative studies. The content analysis was done in accordance with the objectives of the study and themes were identified with specific issues within. The following themes were identified: 1) behavior of sport participants, 2) management support, 3) cliques in sport, and 4) participants’ needs. Field notes were typed by the researcher who sorted and arranged data. The raw data obtained or gathered was edited to detect errors and omissions, and the researcher corrected them where possible and certified that maximum data quality standards have been achieved (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). The audio information and field notes information were compared to detect if there were any errors and omissions. After the completion of interviews with the respondents, and their experiences were described, the transcripts were further captured into a coding table. Common themes and codes were identified. The researcher separated irrelevant information from relevant information. The relevant information was broken into phrases or sentences, which reflect a single, specific thought. The phrases or sentences were further grouped into categories and subthemes that reflect the various aspects of meanings. Conclusions were then drawn from this interrogation of codes, themes and findings presented according to meanings identified. The researcher explored the data and came up with a list of possible barriers to the use of sport as cultural capital, which are bureaucratic red tape, work priorities, crime fighting, crime detection, crime combating, and policy misinterpretation.

The researcher used coding which involved assigning numbers to respondents and to answers to group the response into manageable classes or categories (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). The respondents were not identified by their names but rather by the numbers assigned to each respondent. Coding assisted the researcher to condense replies to a few categories having or containing the critical information needed for analysis (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). The results are in the form of words as the research is qualitative. The researcher used the Atlas ti software qualitative research as analysis tool.

4.4 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY
The study was done in the South African Police Service (SAPS) throughout the Republic of South Africa. It focuses only on SAPS employees who participate in organised sports within the SAPS. The respondents are SAPS employees who are actively involved in SAPS sports as participants, administrators and management of sport either on full-time basis (sport
coordinators) or *ad hoc* basis (SAPS sport federation members). Results can therefore not be generalised to contexts outside the SAPS.

### 4.5 ETHICAL ASPECTS RELATED TO THE STUDY

The researcher was guided by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill’s (2000) working definition of ‘ethics’ that describes the rules or standards for governing relations between people. Ethical aspects, according to Leedy and Ormrod’s (2001) affirmation, fall into one of four categories, namely: 1) right of privacy; 2) informed consent; 3) honesty with professional colleagues; and 4) protection from harm. This study was done in the most sensitive and critical department within the South African Government and as such, there was a need for approval to be granted by Management of the Department of Police (SAPS) to conduct the study. Permission to conduct the study was requested from the South African Police Service (Department of Police) which was granted and the purpose and nature of the study was explained in writing. Each participant before data collection signed the informed consent form. All participants were informed of their right not to take part in the study without giving any reasons. All or any information obtained or solicited in this research from the respondents will be kept in confidence and is reported on collectively and anonymously.

Ethical approval has been obtained from the Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Humanities, University of Pretoria.

### 4.6 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the researcher clarified the research design and methodology of the study.

Chapter Five presents the findings, results analysis, discussions and interpretation.
CHAPTER FIVE

ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION
This chapter presents the analysis and interpretation of data collected and the findings of the study. The 32 respondents represented SAPS sporting codes they are participating in and the sport offices where they are working at national and provincial level. Research questions were posed during semi-structured, face-to-face interviews conducted by the researcher at venues agreed upon with respondents who are SAPS employees. Chapter Four provided a detailed description of the research methodology of this study.

5.2 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS
Tables 5.1 to 5.5 show the demographic information of 32 respondents who took part in the study’s semi-structured, face-to-face interviews. Respondents are SAPS members who participate in organised SAPS sport activities which include trials, coaching clinics, sport club activities, SAPS national championships and national teams’ participations in regional and international games. The demographic profile of the respondents includes age, marital status, and years of work experience, rank of respondents in SAPS and level of education.

5.2.1 Age
Table 5.1: Age profile of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to table 5.1 the sample comprised of 13% of participants within the age range of 21-30, 19% of participants within the age range of 31-40, 52% of participants within the age range of 41-50 and 16% of participants within the age range of 51-60. The age of the respondents in this case was not expected to influence respondents’ participation in SAPS sport activities.

The age range of 41-50 (52%) has the highest number of respondents which suggests that there is no age restriction when it comes to participation in SAPS sport, while the age range of 21-30 (13%), 31-40 (19%) and 51-60 (16%) have the lowest number of respondents. It seems as if youth and people nearing pension are not well represented in SAPS sport participation as the age ranges of 21-30 and 51-60 are the lowest in number or have fewer respondents than others.

The particular age profile of respondents could be linked to embodied cultural capital as the age of the respondents reflects work that one does for oneself, an effort that presupposes personal cost and investment of time (Bourdieu, 2001d). It is over time that a person accumulates cultural capital in the form of culture and cultivation (Chapter Two, Section 2.3.2.1, page 27). From Table 5.1 it is deducted that respondents in the age group 41-50 (52%) probably contributed more to embodied cultural capital in SAPS sport. At the same time, it seems as if respondents in the age group 21-30 (13%) are the lowest contributors to embodied cultural capital based with regard to their low involvement with SAPS sport.

5.2.2 Marital Status

Table 5.2: Marital status of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaged</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>32</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.2 indicates that the sample was made up of 22% single participants, 69% married participants, 3% of participants who are engaged, 3% of participants who are separated and the other 3% of participants are widowed. The respondents in this study represented a diverse sample in relation to their marital status. Sport participation in the lives of police officers is not dependent on the marital status of individual athletes, as the distribution of respondents’ marital status in Table 5.2 indicates that participation is across the spectrum. The benefits of participating in sport, for example team spirit, respect for others, time management skills and ability to cope with winning or not winning (Chapter One, Section 1.2.2, page 4) do not depend on the marital status of participants, but can be accumulated by anybody. This could imply that cultural capital accumulation is not influenced by the social status of individuals or sport participants.

A family set-up where there are married-couple fits the definition of social cohesion as asserted by Jeannotte (2003) whereby society is a process where different groups, individuals or institutions pull together. Family well-being and strong communities underpin social cohesion. These elements cannot exist without families, which in most cases are formed by married couples (Chapter 2, Section 2.3, page 23). When SAPS is seen as a microcosm of a community through interaction and social cohesion that exist within the sport environment, it is evident that stable family set-ups could play an important role in the lives of SAPS sport participants.

SAPS sport participants who come from a family set-up participate in sport and the unity that is accrued within their families could be precipitated down to the SAPS sport set-up. This is regarded as bonding social capital as Putnam (2001) states that it refers to close ties between kin or informal networks of strong family ties, neighbours and close friends who produce resources that help individuals to get along (Chapter 2, Section 2.5.1, page 33). The togetherness of sport clubs and/or SAPS provincial teams suggests an accumulation of bonding cultural capital. At the same time, the proximity with which these SAPS teams or clubs work with or relate to communities could indicate social cohesion.
5.2.3 Years of work experience

Table 5.3: Years of work experience of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of experience</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.3 indicates that 68% of respondents, have 1-10 years work experience, 19% have 11-20 years of work experience and 13% of respondents have 21-30 years work experience.

SAPS sport participation, according to the sample of this study, is the highest amongst the least experienced police officers. The longer a police officer works in SAPS, the lower the level of participation in sport. This could be attributed to responsibilities that go with the rank occupied by a person in the police. Sport participants who take part in SAPS employee sport are depicted as those who have recently joined the police service, which implies cultural capital is accrued amongst new entrants in the police work environment as compared to those athletes or sport participants who have been longer in the service.

The years of SAPS sport participants’ experience help to understand the way in which cultural capital is connected to class and hierarchy (Tzanakis, 2011), (Chapter 2, Section 2.3, page 21). Some employees within SAPS sport are more privileged than others, for example, the way protocol dictates seating arrangements at SAPS sport activities. On the other hand, there are signs of bridging social capital that exists as the way in which sport participants interact is not hierarchical as SAPS sport participants focus on similarities or common goals (Chapter 2, Section 2.5.1, page 33). All provincial sport teams attend SAPS national championships with one common goal because of the accumulated bridging social capital, namely to win the tournament as members of provincial team.
### 5.2.4 Ranks

**Table 5.4: Rank profile of respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brigadier</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colonels</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lieutenant Colonels</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Captains</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lieutenant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant Officers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constables</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admin Clerks (PSA)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>32</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 5.4, 3% of the senior management level is at the rank of brigadier, 9% of middle management level holds the rank of colonel, 32% of senior officers level is on the lieutenant colonel rank, 3% majors, 19% captains, 3% lieutenants, all at junior management level, 9% on the rank of warrant officers, 13% on the rank of constables and the remaining 9% on the rank of administration clerks.

The data gathered cut across all levels of police ranks and public service ranks as indicated in Table 5.4 above. This could be indicative that participation in SAPS sport is not influenced by the designation or rank of individuals. It is argued that the form of capital that is accrued in this regard is linking social capital which gives rise to social relationships. These social relationships are hierarchical in nature where there are frequent interactions but not homogeneity (Chapter Two, Section 2.5.1, page 33). Linking social capital links SAPS sport participants or teams/clubs to those further up or lower down the social ladder (Putnam, 2001). These members are of different social strata but are co-workers who frequently interact with one another. All members of SAPS appointed under the SA Police Service Act and Public Service Act are granted equal opportunities to take part in all SAPS-sanctioned sport and recreation activities. The rank
structure system does not have a negative bearing on how sport is conducted, administered and managed within the SAPS.

5.2.5 Education levels

Table 5.5: Education levels of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Matriculation Certificate</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Certificate</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced/Higher Diploma</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>32</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 5.5 only 6% of respondents have a matriculation certificate, 9% have higher certificates, 79% have advanced/higher diploma and 6% have postgraduate qualifications. It is argued that Table 5.5 reflects an appreciable spread of qualifications that could imply that there is institutionalised cultural capital reflected by institutional recognition of academic credentials or qualifications (Chapter Two, Section 2.3.2.3, Page 27).

5.3 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

After respondents’ interviews data was transcribed and the descriptions of the respondents’ experiences completed, transcripts were further captured into a coding table whereby common themes and codes were identified. The information that was deemed irrelevant to the goal of the study was separated from relevant information. The relevant information was then broken down into phrases or sentences, reflecting a single, specific thought. Phrases or sentences were further grouped into categories and sub-themes that reflect the various aspects or meanings. Conclusions were subsequently drawn from the interrogation of codes. The discussions in the paragraphs below are presented according to the objectives of the study:

**Objective 1:** To establish benchmarks or appropriate practices for sport to be used optimally as cultural capital;
Objective 2: To assess the degree to which rank system affects the SAPS employees’ participation in sport, as players, volunteers and members of sports clubs and spectators;

Objective 3: To ascertain the contributions that sport can make to human resource capacity building, particularly through volunteers being involved in decision-making and management in the SAPS;

Objective 4: To determine the extent in which sport can provide opportunities for social engagement that can create awareness of differences and break down barriers for individuals and groups within the SAPS;

Objective 5: To explore the ways that sport can be used as an engagement mechanism or tool to build relationships with hard to reach individuals or groups; and

Objective 6: To provide guidelines for sport in the SAPS to develop cultural capital.

Respondents have been assigned codes from participant 1 to participant 32.

5.3.1 Objective One: Benchmarks or appropriate practices for sport to be used optimally as cultural capital

A benchmark is defined as a standard or point of reference against which things may be compared or something that can be used as a way to judge the quality of similar things (Meriam-Webster, 2002). The process of benchmarking in this study is focused on establishing points of reference for developing and maintaining cultural capital in the SAPS through sport. These benchmarks are used to identify gaps in the SAPS sport environment to develop cultural capital. Benchmarks reflecting the presence of cultural capital in organisations have already been established in Chapter Two, pages 38 to 41. The next step was to assess SAPS sport reality against the stated benchmarks. It is important to note that this assessment is only done in an SAPS sport context as the demarcated area of study. Tables 5.6 and 5.7, which were designed by the researcher, reflect the results of this assessment. Quotes that emerged from analysing semi-structured interviews of respondents are given to substantiate SAPS sport reality supplemented by the researcher’s corporate knowledge.
Table 5.6: Assessing SAPS sport reality against cultural capital benchmarks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELEMENTS OF CULTURAL CAPITAL</th>
<th>GENERIC ORGANISATIONAL INDICATORS</th>
<th>SAPS SPORT REALITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language practices</td>
<td>Inclusive/exclusive language</td>
<td><strong>Under achieved</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>policies.</td>
<td>There is no policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>that regulates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>language issues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational culture</td>
<td>Strategies and opportunities</td>
<td><strong>Achieved</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>for diverse cultural backgrounds</td>
<td>“I have also seen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and skills to act and socialise.</td>
<td>and admiration for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>fellow colleagues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diverse norms and values</td>
<td>Perceptions of what is socially</td>
<td><strong>Achieved</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>desirable and realisation of</td>
<td>“It is good, you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>values such as brotherhood,</td>
<td>get little issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>freedom and happiness, peace,</td>
<td>but you will get</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>obedience, honesty and beauty.</td>
<td>that anywhere, but</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embodied cultural capital</td>
<td>Opportunities to demonstrate</td>
<td><strong>Under achieved</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>diverse tastes and preferences.</td>
<td>Lack of proper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class hierarchy</td>
<td>Processes, structures and</td>
<td><strong>Achieved</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>policies to indicate hierarchy:</td>
<td>“I see it more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>organograms, job titles.</td>
<td>interesting and I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectified cultural capital</td>
<td>Tangible art works, artefacts,</td>
<td><strong>Under achieved</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>buildings, literature, and</td>
<td>The organisational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>historical records. Intangible</td>
<td>structure of sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>organisational values, beliefs,</td>
<td>is fragmented, for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>traditions, standards</td>
<td>example museums,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELEMENTS OF CULTURAL CAPITAL</th>
<th>GENERIC ORGANISATIONAL INDICATORS</th>
<th>SAPS SPORT REALITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Institutional cultural capital</td>
<td>Employee recognition through certificates, merit awards and qualifications.</td>
<td>Achieved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Habitus</td>
<td>Employee expectations, active lifestyles and disposition.</td>
<td>Achieved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field</td>
<td>Structural social spaces and opportunities where employees can socialise.</td>
<td>Achieved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exclusion</td>
<td>Policies and practices that exclude individuals or groups based on language, tastes, preferences, values, and qualifications, physical and cognitive abilities.</td>
<td>Achieved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social cohesion</td>
<td>Access and opportunities for social gatherings. Opportunities to work together in committees, groups or task teams.</td>
<td>Achieved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“I wish that I can still be part of sport and teach other people what I have learnt through the years.” (Participant 17)

“You need to be fit. That includes mentally and physically. You need to be a team player” (Participant 21)

“Management allows people to take part in sport, and assist with resources.” (Participant 15)

“They do not want to accommodate everyone in the federations because they want to keep their own spaces.” (Participant 7)

“We usually make friends and connect with each other. We also teach other things that others do not know.” (Participant 4)
Table 5.7: Assessing SAPS sport reality against social capital benchmarks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELEMENTS OF SOCIAL CAPITAL</th>
<th>GENERIC ORGANISATIONAL INDICATORS</th>
<th>SAPS SPORT REALITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social networks</td>
<td>Society or groups of individuals and teams function effectively. Sports and cultural clubs provide links between people in the community.</td>
<td>Achieved “Some of the competitions we play with the community clubs which assist in creating understanding.” (Participant 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bonding social capital</td>
<td>Close ties between kin or informal networks of close friends. Produced resources that help individuals to get along. Relationships are characterised by frequency, hierarchy, heterogeneity and homogeneity. Defined roles and sharing common identity.</td>
<td>Achieved “Inter-departmental championships allow us to interact with other departments and other player outside the organisation, which is the perfect place to do networking.” (Participant 7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bridging social capital</td>
<td>Relationships of people who are different. More distant ties with same people e.g. close friends and colleagues. Group similarities and perceptions. The belief that people are without definite productive purpose. Process of individuals giving helping hand to one another or interaction on personal capacity.</td>
<td>Achieved “There are diversified societies within South Africa, we have different nationalities. But in the police we call ourselves police officers. In sport we come together without paying attention to race.” (Participant 1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.7 Assessing SAPS sport reality against social capital benchmarks (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELEMENTS OF SOCIAL CAPITAL</th>
<th>GENERIC ORGANISATIONAL INDICATORS</th>
<th>SAPS SPORT REALITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Linking social capital</td>
<td>Linking people or groups to those further up or lower down the social ladder. Social relationships in hierarchical format in formal organisations. Relationships are between co-workers who have frequent interaction instead of homogeneity among individuals and roles are well defined.</td>
<td>Achieved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“It involves the community, like the development clinics and it closes the gap between the police and communities.”</td>
<td>(Participant 14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-dimensional</td>
<td>Existence of dimensions such as relationships, trust reciprocity and action for common purpose.</td>
<td>Achieved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Sometimes we invite members of the community and they are really unified in sport. They will support SAPS sport in all respects.”</td>
<td>(Participant 28)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governmental operations and systems</td>
<td>Increased community cooperative actions whereby local problems are solved. Linkages amongst people are strengthened by increased social capital and as such diffuse innovations. Quantity and qualitative information that flows between groups are improved and this reduces costs of transactions.</td>
<td>Achieved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“It creates a platform whereby members share their social activities with each other from different parts of the provinces or different parts of society when they come to engage in sport activities.”</td>
<td>(Participant 2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.7 Assessing SAPS sport reality against social capital benchmarks (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELEMENTS OF SOCIAL CAPITAL</th>
<th>GENERIC ORGANISATIONAL INDICATORS</th>
<th>SAPS SPORT REALITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Social investment          | Individuals have a sense of belonging due to their confidence in social investment. Skills and knowledge are acquired by individuals as they play a more active role in communities. | Achieved  
“Most of the parents appreciate our roles in which I have played in moulding the future of their children and they consider me as an example.” (Participant 32) |
| Social relation/ Social bonds | Resources based on group membership, relationships, networks of influence and support. | Achieved  
“Meeting with different people and have to learn to respect each other.” (Participant 19). |
| Intangible social resources | Social relationships that a person can draw upon to facilitate action and to achieve goals. There is investment in a set of symbols and meanings reproduced by a dominant class of society and passed down or reproduced through generations. | Achieved  
“At times you may find some other challenges depending on where you are. We do have opportunities of going out and take part in sport.” (Participant 9) |
| Actual or potential resources | Link to possession of durable network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual acquaintance or membership in a group. Each member is provided with the backing of the collective capital entitling them to credit. | Achieved  
“Sport brings together the communities, unites people and breaks all the barriers amongst people regardless of age, gender and race.” (Participant 4) |

From Tables 5.6 to 5.7, it became evident that the contribution of SAPS sport to developing cultural capital is realised regarding the following benchmarks: organisational culture, diverse
norms and values, habitus, institutional cultural capital, class hierarchy, field, exclusion, social cohesion, social networks, bonding social capital, bridging social capital, linking social capital, multi-dimensional, governmental operations and systems, social investment, social relations/social bonds, intangible social resources, and actual or potential resources, but under-realised in the benchmarks of language practices, embodied cultural capital, objectified and cultural capital. These gaps will be addressed in the proposed guidelines for SAPS sport to develop cultural capital (Objective 6).

5.3.2 Objective Two: The degree to which police rank system affects the SAPS employees’ participation in sport, as players, volunteers and members of sports clubs and spectators

The following questions in the semi-structured interviews relate to objective two to assess the degree to which police rank system affects SAPS employees’ participation in sport, as players, volunteers and members of sports clubs and spectators:

- the thoughts of the respondents about SAPS sport participation before their involvement in sport;
- the respondents’ experience as to how SAPS sport differs with other external sport;
- the feeling of the respondents after their involvement in sport and any changes that took place;
- sport participants’ involvement in sporting codes;
- the behaviour of SAPS members towards sport participants;
- the behaviour of SAPS sport participants towards one another;
- views on the support by SAPS management;
- perception on whether SAPS sport clubs are cliquey and not welcoming or not cliquey and welcoming; and
- Views or perceptions of external sport fraternity towards SAPS sport participants.

These questions relate to Objective Two as they probe the respondents’ views on how police rank affects the way sport is run and managed in SAPS. The questions also explore the way the rank system affects participation of the respondents in SAPS sport activities compared to sport outside the South African Police Service.
Participants’ perceptions before involvement in SAPS sports

The respondents were asked to state what their perceptions were before they got involved in SAPS sport. There are varying views from respondents in regard to SAPS sport as some respondents never thought that sport in SAPS is only meant for those people who are interested. On the other hand some never had the thought that SAPS officers participate in sport. Their various responses were recorded as follow:

**Participant 1** thought that sport participation in the SAPS was only for people who were interested. He stated that:

“I never thought that there were sports within the SAPS.”

He further stated that:

“I never knew that they have high people you know, that are participating at high international level up until I was introduced to the SAPS.”

**Participant 19** stated that:

“I never thought that there was sport in the police service because in most cases you will see fat police officials, so you will ask yourself if he is training or if there is any sports in the police. They don’t exercise.”

Differences between sport experience within and outside SAPS

When respondents were probed in terms of their experience in SAPS sport participation internally as compared to external sport, there were varying views. Respondents saw SAPS sport as a family affair as compared to external sport that has a lot of interference from members. Responses were recorded as indicated below:

The results revealed that **Participant 28** stated that:

“SAPS is more a family, private clubs have more politics, in SAPS we stand together because we are a service we feel more linked together. A little bit but you know what brigadier speaking frankly now my troubles with politics are with my white provinces, Eastern Cape and Western Cape. Not the other provinces, because they are involved in the private sector they think they know best.”
• Perceptions before and after changes in SAPS sports

The changes above refer to how management and administration of SAPS sport federations affairs were conducted after the introduction of the SAPS National Sport Indaba. This sport indaba is a forum whereby all SAPS sport stakeholders are brought together under one roof to do performance evaluations and map out the way forward about sport activities. The respondents thought that sport in the SAPS had moved from the worst to better since the changes that were brought about in SAPS sport. It is maintained by some respondents that SAPS sport is run in a more democratic way and has done away with groupings.

**Participant 1** mentioned that:

“Currently sports it’s more open and more people are accepted, especially with the formation of SARPCCO. There have been a number of people who are now engaging in sports because of the fact that they will go to SARPCCO countries and represent South African Police Service. The changes in SAPS sports have also been realised by the members who are in lower ranks.”

SARPCCO is an acronym for an organisation of police chiefs within the SADC region; it stands for Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Corporation Organisation. There are twelve member countries that have affiliated to this organisation which deals with cross-border policing issues or matters. All these member countries participate in games that are hosted on a rotational basis every second year.

**Participant 15** stated that:

“I think that groups have vanished. It’s more democratic now; it’s more diverse in sport. It’s more open to everybody. That is one of the changes that took place. The management in sport has also changed. It’s easier these days to become part of the group or to participate.”

The themes that emerged from this particular question are the following: professionalism, rank-orientated sport, socialising and a sense of belonging and intimacy as appearing in Table 5.13. This could negatively or positively affect the way SAPS sport participants get involved in organised sport within the law enforcement agency. The way SAPS sport participants perceived sport in SAPS and how they thought of police sport before and after their involvement in employees’ sport brought about a logical understanding of law enforcement sport. Table 5.13
shows the themes and supporting quotations from respondents on this sub-question related to Objective Two.

- **Participants’ involvement in sporting codes as coordinators, executive committee members/participants**

The participants were asked about the duration of their involvement in their current sporting code and if they have been on the executive committee. The first participant who is in SAPS top management has been involved for a period of more than two years and has started as an ordinary member before becoming part of the committee. Out of all four Constables who participated in this study, the first participant interviewed has been in athletics, soccer and the service for four years. Another two participants were also involved for four years and only one Constable was involved for one year. Those who are in Colonel ranks have been involved in their sporting codes for 27 years, 18 and ten years whilst only one has been in the executive for eight years and a Major and Lieutenant for almost nine years. From the three Public Service Act members, one participant has been involved in two sporting codes for six years while the others involved for 14 and three years respectively. Of the three Warrant Officers interviewed, **Participant 1** has been involved for seven years, **Participant 2** for 15 years and **Participant 3** for 15 years. Of the six Captains, **Participant 1** has been involved for 13 years, **Participant 2** for 24 years, **Participant 3** for 35 years, **Participant 4** for three years, **Participant 5** for 23 years and **Participant 6** for three years.

**Table 5.8: Involvement in sporting codes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEARS RANGE</th>
<th>SAPS POLICE ACT</th>
<th>PUBLIC SERVICE ACT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01-20</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The involvement of the respondents in SAPS sport activities shed light that the longer the individuals participate in sport, the greater the realisation of the benefits of sport. For example,
SAPS sport participants are taking sport seriously because of the health, fitness and knowledge benefits that they get when playing sport (Lauder, et al., 2011). These benefits are indicative of the return on investment that the employer, in this case SAPS, receives when members or the personnel are actively involved in sport. Common examples of benefit for the employer are a healthy workforce that does not often book off sick, efficient and effective service delivery because of personnel that are not stressed and a work force whose morale is high due to their high physical fitness levels and activeness (Chapter Three, Section 3.2.1.1, page 48). Cultural capital implies behaviour and classification, and where there is class, there would always be inequality. The sport participants of SAPS have classifications that could be due to their relationships in accordance with years of experience in certain sporting codes. This would also lead to more privileges of some participants than others (Chapter Three, Section 3.3, page 61). When groups are formed within SAPS sport environment this could lead to social networks or social capital that help SAPS teams or groups of SAPS sport participants to function effectively.

- **The behaviour of SAPS members in sport towards participants and behaviour of the SAPS sports participants towards each other**

The question in this regard probed the kind of behaviour of SAPS members in sport towards those members who participate within organisational sport, whether negative or positive. It also probed whether the behaviour of SAPS sports participants towards each other is professional or not. Some of the respondents stated that the behaviour is negative; however, there were those who said that the behaviour is positive. There are those respondents who gave the view that there is professionalism within SAPS sport environment.

*Participant 10* stated that:

“*Sometimes the behaviour is not good because in SAPS sports especially in administration if you are a leader, people tend to see themselves in your shoes. The envy you and they start to orchestrate issues to unseat you and that actually unsettles sports in SAPS.*”
Participant 13 stated that:

“They are disciplined and they know how to behave toward me as an officer. They have respect, discipline and a good attitude.”

Participant 26 also experienced that:

“Their behaviour is very positive towards me, they are helpful always”. They really respect him for where he came from and what he has achieved. He furthermore stated that: “A lot of the stuff that I speak about is about the experience that I gain. So a lot of the things that I try to instill in them are of what fitness can do for them.”

When the participants were asked to share their experiences regarding the behaviour of SAPS sports participants towards each other, the following responses were recorded:

Participant 1 stated that:

“The only problem is that when one participates with them you always have to ensure that this particular respect is withheld due to the fact that they are in a paramilitary environment.

Participant 21 stated that:

“Friendship, sense of belonging, building relationships, networking, things that would have never taken place if they did not take part in that sport, they would never have met each other in that way and circumstance as they are taking part in sport.”

Negative behaviour, moulding and mentoring, respect and team sport spirit came out as clear themes in this regard. The way SAPS members who do not participate in sport behave towards sport participants is indicative of the views that such members have towards sport. This also emphasises the importance with which participation in SAPS sport is viewed and how members see the benefits and return on investment with regard to organised sport. This could either be negative or positive depending on one’s taste and preference with regard to sport participation.

The above paragraph gives an explanation regarding the behaviour of members within SAPS who do not take part in sport, the way they behave towards SAPS sport participants. It is followed by Table 5.9 and its explanation on how SAPS sport participants behave towards each
other as participants in various kinds of sporting codes in SAPS. The researcher wanted to explore whether there are commonalities regarding the behaviour of both groups in relation to sport participation in the work environment.

Table 5.9: Behaviour of SAPS members towards SAPS sport participants & behaviour of SAPS sport participants towards each other

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEMES</th>
<th>QUOTES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Negative behaviour</td>
<td>“Besides respect and discipline, some of them are negative. Some of them just use this opportunity to get out of the office.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moulding and mentoring</td>
<td>“Most of them really appreciate the role in which I have played in moulding the future of their children and consider me as an example for their children to say this is how sports can help you to grow up and become better.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect</td>
<td>“It’s good, I have never had a negative experience there’s good cohesion in the athletes group there’s respect and for you as an athlete and you can see the way they address one another definitely”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team spirit</td>
<td>“Some take others for granted. But all in all, team spirit will eventually be there. At the beginning we tend to judge one another because we don’t know one another.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There seems to be respect and discipline amongst SAPS members who participate in sport, but contrary to that, there is also negative behaviour because of the notion that some of the sport participants use the opportunity of sport to get out of the working environment. In contrast to the negative vibe or behaviour experienced in the circles of SAPS sport, there is still good behaviour and sport participants are appreciated. Diverse norms and values exist in the SAPS sport teams as groups of individuals.

Sport participants in SAPS have their own perceptions as to what is socially desirable and realisation of values, which is referred to as ‘habitus’. Sport participants learn best by what they see in life (Chapter Two, Section 2.3.1, page 23). The applause is because of the mentorship role that SAPS sport participants are seen to be playing. Participating in sport in SAPS is also viewed
as a tool that helps individuals to grow and become better. The ‘habitus’ of SAPS sport participants differs because as people have chances and experiences that differ. Thus, SAPS members and sport participants, just like other people, are free to act and choose what to do, which in the end drives them to make choices reflecting their behaviour (Chapter Two, Section 2.3.1, page 24). According to Bourdieu (2001d) individuals react to particular events, which are novel, they are bound to do so because of behaviour.

SAPS sport participants are not viewed as trouble makers by those who do not take part in sport, but they are actually looked upon as excellent examples of police officers from whom people can learn. This is a form of behaviour that is shown or displayed by SAPS sport participants in relation to participation in sport. For example, a healthy lifestyle is a good example that could be copied by sport participants.

SAPS sport participants interact with one another when taking part in the national championships, club trials or coaching clinics that influences behaviour of the SAPS sports participants towards each other. The way SAPS sport participants treat each other and see each other contributes immensely towards accrual of cultural, bonding and bridging social capital.

Participation in organisational sport in organisations such as SAPS or law enforcement agencies is viewed as having a positive impact on participants as it is evident through the professional way in which athletes treat one another. Professional mannerisms of sport participants build good social cohesion and respect. SAPS as a paramilitary organisation promotes discipline, respect and protocol in all their dealings, which is also evident in the sport environment; it is shown by the way athletes address one another. Lifestyles of SAPS sport participants could be referred to as ‘habitus’ where a particular social group has certain expectations (Bourdieu, 2002a). In this regard sport participants within SAPS learn best by what they see in life and how to expect life, but individuals’ ‘habitus’ differs due to a variety of chances and experiences in life (Chapter Two, section 2.3.1, page 25).

Team spirit is the order of the day for all provincial teams to fare well in the championships. This team spirit, which is sometimes evident in provincial teams, brings about unity, which benefits the organisation or police department. A united workforce would be in the position to confront crime situations in a manner that does not compromise service delivery. Sport in SAPS has a
huge role to play in enabling sport participants to bond amongst themselves and also with clients. SAPS employees would then know each other very well as socialisation takes place. Exclusion of other players or participants from organisational activities or processes could not thrive in this situation as members are working together as a united front.

- **Support that SAPS management offers to ensure that employees participate maximally in sport activities**

Some of the respondents stated that there is great support from SAPS management to ensure that employees participate in sport activities. However, there were respondents who noted a lack of support from SAPS management to ensure that employees participate maximally in sport activities.

*Participant 2* viewed that:

“The management is doing its best by allocating and ensuring that they are providing more sporting competition for them within their provinces and now there is also money that is being given for them you know when they participate, when they go out. That for a person is a motivational factor for a person, to each person that is participating in sport.”

*Participant 11* stated that:

“When coming to that one, it’s not all the commanders that are encouraging people to go on sports. Some of them they become so difficult especially when coming to time off for participating. The transport we also find it very difficult when coming to some of managers and commanders. Some understand we have to go for sports and it will give you a clear mind at the end of the day. We experience a lot of pressure in our offices. Going for sports does help you to destress.”

*Participant 16* stated that:

“There is a positive support but on the other hand I must say there is also the negative part that there is commanders that don’t support sport. They don’t love sport. So they don’t support their members doing sport. That has a negative influence in the member’s personal life, in his work environment, and also to his family as well. Yes unfortunately there are commanders that don’t support sport.”
Great support and lack of understanding within the SAPS emerged as themes in this regard. SAPS management has to give sport participants ample support to enable them to participate fully in organised employee sport. The support in accordance with the respondents’ views can either be positive or negative which could have an impact on SAPS sport participation.

Table 5.10: Views on the support that SAPS management offers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME/S</th>
<th>QUOTES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Great support</td>
<td>“They give us the opportunity to go and play. It doesn’t matter which province, what time, which month. It helps because we don’t pay for anything we get things free.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of understanding</td>
<td>“On a local level the understanding is not there as to why you are doing sport. That is unfortunately in SAPS a problem. You don’t get proper support from local environment.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In any endeavour that organisations or individuals want to engage in, there has to be formal support in any form, for example finance, material, human resources and physical resources. SAPS like any other law enforcement agency has its protocol processes and organisational structures manned by personnel who hold offices in high echelons and lower levels to lead, manage and follow. The support needed by sport participants ranges from time-off to resources that enable members to participate in sport and recreational activities without hindrances. Respondents assert that SAPS management gives support to SAPS sport participants who in turn accumulate benefits, for example, fitness, skills such as time management, problems solving, communication and interrelationship. This can be referred to as ‘field’ which according to Bourdieu (1996) is the relation that exists between the distribution of capital and different ‘habitus’; the outcome of practice as well as a classifier of practice (Chapter Two, Section 2.3.1, page 25).

According to Schuller (2000) social capital improves governmental operations and systems that are in place and also leads to increased community cooperative action whereby local common problems are solved (Chapter Two, Section 2.5.1, page 33). In this regard reference could be made to SAPS management’s operations and systems when it comes to sport participation within the working environment. When SAPS management gives support to sport participants, it
implies that there would be increased community involvement through sport. This in turn helps in solving common problems in communities, for example, fighting drug abuse and lawlessness.

In contrast to the assertion that there is support given to sport participants, the views of other respondents are that there is no understanding and support on local level as to why police officers take part in sport. There seems to be a lack of proper support at local level, which defeats the aim of accumulating cultural and social capital within the work environment. ‘Field’ as a concept of cultural capital in this context can be viewed as an arena of battle or struggle. SAPS as an institution or agent utilises it to serve and overturn the existing capital distribution (Jeannotte, 2003). It is also a battlefield wherein there is a dispute about identity and hierarchy, for example, SAPS management that needs to take total control of sport without acknowledging SAPS sport federations operating as voluntary structures that have elected office bearers. This supports the respondents who view SAPS management’s support as lacking when it comes to sport-related issues, for example releasing members to participate in sport and providing members with the necessary equipment and facilities.

- **Perceptions on whether SAPS sport clubs are cliquey and not welcoming to newcomers**

A question was posed to respondents whether there are any sport clubs that don’t have cliques and are welcoming to newcomers in SAPS as opposed to those sporting clubs that have cliques and are not welcoming to newcomers.

The following responses were recorded:

*Participant 8* stated:

“Some of them are, but as I said there’s still lots of work that needs to be done. It’s about changing mind-sets and once that is done everybody will embrace because yes people are still holding on to their sporting code, delving in the past not wanting to move forward. But I think in time things will change with perseverance.”
Participant 2 stated:

“Those clubs that are currently there, they are welcoming. It is a voluntary participation for the members so they are there. What I can say is that they don’t have a strategy of inviting new members in the correct manner they just there. You know there is a club for SAPS but they are not doing their job to attract more members in the SAPS.”

Participant 12 stated:

“No, the ones that I know are accommodating everybody even if they are away from Bloemfontein as long as they are affiliated; it’s a private club so it’s each and every member.”

Participant 2 stated that:

“To answer that, having been in my province where I come from, I would have to say volleyball.”

Participant 3 stated that:

“The way they do their things and also I can say shooting it’s one of the codes that we don’t care about it. I’m answering this question because of I see the very same people being called for forever, each year, year in year out. You can go to squash you can go to any of those sports that are not recognised competitive sports.”

Two themes emerged from this question, namely dominance and accommodation. According to respondents there are some sport clubs within SAPS sport environment that are cliquey and are not welcoming to newcomers whilst others are not cliquey and are welcoming. The cliquey and not-cliquey sport clubs in the police have an impact on participation of employees in sport activities, which could be either to the detriment of SAPS sport or to the benefit of SAPS sport.
Table 5.11: Perceptions on clique/ not clique and not welcoming/ welcoming sport clubs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME/S</th>
<th>QUOTES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dominance</td>
<td><em>I think you know what if you look at rugby I still feel rugby is white dominated, if you look at management of rugby in police, it is still.”</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodative</td>
<td>“No, the ones that I know are accommodating everybody even if they are away from Bloemfontein as long as they are affiliated; it’s a private club so it’s each and every member.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sport is an institutionalised competency within SAPS, which does not form part of the core function of the department. The core function of SAPS is to fight, combat, detect and prevent crime. Sport participation in a law enforcement agency such as SAPS can be immune from infiltration of individual politics that bring about cliques and unwelcoming behaviour of sport clubs members towards newcomers. SAPS sport participants who are members of sport clubs assert that some sport clubs are cliquey and not welcoming, while others are not cliquey and are welcoming to new members.

This could subscribe to the way SAPS executive committees function as the political oversight of the sport federations. This indicates the elements of exclusion such as barriers for example movement, social distancing, unhealthy environment; marginalisation such as silencing, barriers to participation and institutional dependency; discrimination, for example sexism, racism and restrictions on eligibility; disadvantage which entails fear of differences, intolerance and gender stereotyping (Chapter Three, Section 3.3.1, page 63). The abovementioned elements of exclusion are visible within SAPS sporting codes that the respondents have declared or pronounced to be cliquey and not welcoming to newcomers.

The less the goals and aims of participation in sport are known and understood by individuals and athletes within certain sporting codes, the higher the chance of such sport clubs being cliquey and not welcoming to new affiliates. Power politics plays an important role in sport clubs
that are cliquey and not welcoming because in this case the culprits are protecting their comfort zones and alienate others through exclusion from existing privileges in sport clubs.

There are, however, sport clubs that are not cliquey and are welcoming. Such clubs practice and support the notion of collectiveness. The said clubs understand the benefits of participating in sport within institutionalised sport structures. Such sporting codes within SAPS sport environment show internal social networks (Chapter Two, Section 2.5, page 32). Social networks help society or groups of individuals such as SAPS sport teams to function effectively (Hoye & Nicholson, 2009). SAPS sport teams and federations provide links between sport participants and the communities. This enables them to be effective in the core business of SAPS, politics and a wide range of social activities, for example, distribution of food parcels to orphanages (Robinson & Williams, 2001). Sport as a social service in the SAPS, sets the stage for enduring engagement amongst the internal sporting fraternity (Groeneveld, 2009). It’s during sport’s social activities that social space is created within the SAPS sport environment. These social spaces are created by means of various activities outside the normal sport playing time or activities, for example, the gala dinners organised to acknowledge sport participants’ achievements.

The existing constitutions of SAPS federations, SAPS national instructions, policies and standing orders general give a clear directive of the mandate that is given to sport entities and sport administrators, managers and participants. SAPS sport federations are afforded the opportunity in relation to how to offer sport services to their clients. Sport clubs that support and welcome any athletes that are labelled as newcomers actualise cultural and social capital accumulation and accrual.

- **Perceptions of how participants, officials and management in other contexts (such as schools and mainstream coaching groups) see/view and behave towards SAPS employees who take part in SAPS sports**

*Participant 14* stated:

“I can say that during the development clinics, the trials they normally cooperate and they show respect and they see that the police are also just human beings and because they see that some of them even believe that it is where their child can belong because they respect the police.”
Themes that emerged from this question as indicated in Table 5.12 are understanding and partnership and surprise due to the way external sport people perceive or view SAPS members who take part in organised sport activities. These perceptions and views vary because of the access and knowledge people have about SAPS sport activities. External sport people view SAPS sport participants as partners in sport and mentors to the upcoming or young sport people who are looking up to police officials in sport. This is because SAPS sport activities are hosted within communities and on facilities of municipalities and private entities.

**Table 5.12: Perceptions of mainstream participants, officials and management**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME/S</th>
<th>QUOTES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Understanding and partnership</td>
<td>“They see us as partners; they assist us in what we are doing. We also play a big role like in the school system because some of us are going out to schools being there as police officials but also coaching the kids in the schools so I think there’s a good understanding and relationship”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surprised</td>
<td>“They are happy and surprised about how can these police men and women partake in this disciplined code”.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Members of the community, especially those who actively participate in sport as participants, coaches, administrators and managers and those who belong to mainstream sport federations, have different perceptions regarding SAPS sport participants. Differences are brought about by how close such members are to SAPS sport participants and sport activities. Perception, according to Biernat (2005), it is defined as the process though which organisms interpret and organise sensation to produce meaningful experience of the world. The perceptions that members of communities have about SAPS sport participants therefore differ due to individual interpretations. Situations might be of the same nature, but the way two or more individuals view or see such situations could be different.

Members of communities see SAPS sport participants as mentors to their children as they have contact with the children through sport. On the other hand, some members of the community see SAPS sport participants as a disciplined workforce, but they are surprised when they see them taking part in sport. This resembles social cohesion as defined by Ritzen (2000) which is the
capacity of a society or organisation to ensure the welfare of all its members whilst minimising disparities. Social cohesion occurs when SAPS members, SAPS sport participants and members of communities are brought together by a pulling force for a common goal, which is beneficial to both the communities and the SAPS. The pulling force in this regard is sport that helps to meet the objectives of the SAPS namely to detect and fight crime in communities (Chapter Two, Section 2.4.2, page 31). The perceptions of respondents as to how members of communities view them could be because of tastes, diverse differences and behaviour that cause classification and hierarchical disposition that exist in the form of cultural capital.

Table 5.13: Rank system affecting the SAPS employees’ participation in sport

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<th>THEME/S</th>
<th>QUOTES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professionalism</td>
<td>“SAPS sport is becoming more professional. The changes in SAPS sports have also been realised by the members who are in lower ranks.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rank orientated sport</td>
<td>“The difference in the police it’s more about who plays that sport because the organisation is rank orientated and based on the power of people based on ranks and compared to community it’s about merit, only good players without rank or background will have more opportunity to play than those who are not well gifted”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socialising</td>
<td>“My thoughts were if the people were playing sports they were just enjoying themselves, for taking part and socialising with communities as well.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of belonging and intimacy</td>
<td>“Being outside SAPS sports is not exciting, but doing sport in your working environment means you go beyond the call and becomes a part of a family, you have a sense of belonging and it becomes more intimate in your engagements because you are more passionate about the people you work with.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The nature of SAPS business is based on the rank system that gives the service the impetus of a paramilitary approach. SAPS cannot divorce itself from the paramilitary command and control
system or approach without which discipline would be at its lowest ebb or non-existent. Sport participation in SAPS cannot be seen without the influence that the rank system brings with it and the way sport participants relate to each other during SAPS sport activities or events.

The respondents’ perceptions about the influence of rank system in sport differ. The researches regard this as ‘habitus’ because it is an infinitive capacity for generating products, for example ideas of thought, perceptions, expressions and actions limited by historically and socially situated conditions of its products, tastes, class and education (Bourdieu, 2001c). Each respondent had their views as to how the SAPS rank system affects their participation in sport, which is based on perception. Nevertheless, ‘habitus’ goes beyond mere perception whilst having an influence on motivation, desire and choice (Chapter Three, Section 2.3.1, page 24).

One of the respondents asserted that SAPS sport even though played at amateur level has turned professional. The changes in SAPS sport according to this respondent are realised by lower rank police members, which indicates that the rank system does not have any negative impact on SAPS sport participation. Contrary to the assertion above, one respondent indicated that the difference in this regard in the police it is more about who plays certain sports because the organisation is rank orientated. The power of people within SAPS sport is based on ranks compared to the community, which is based on merit or performance of individuals or athletes. The respondent stated that only good players without rank or background will have more opportunity to play than those who are not well gifted. This implies that cultural capital is interpreted into class, hierarchy and struggle. The group or class that is more privileged than others has more capital; this is an area of inequality (Chapter Two, Section 2.3, page 21).

According to data obtained from the respondents, playing sport in the SAPS is just for the participants to enjoy themselves and socialise with communities as well. It is also maintained by one of the respondents that doing sport in SAPS working environment means to go beyond the call of duty and become a part of a family regardless of rank. The SAPS sport participants have a sense of belonging and engagements become more intimate because one is more passionate about people with whom one works. The participants are linked to those groups or people further or lower down the social ladder by linking social capital. Voluntary organisation such as SAPS sport federations are connected to formal networks such as SAPS top management by linking social capital (Chapter Two, Section 2.5.1, page 33).
5.3.3 Objective Three: The contribution that sport can make to human resource capacity building through volunteers’ involvement in decision-making and management in SAPS sport

Five questions were asked during the semi-structured face-to-face interviews to determine the contribution of SAPS sport to human resource capacity building. These questions include:

- the reasons why the participants take part in sport;
- participants’ perceptions on the most important aspects of SAPS Sport;
- the future for SAPS members involved in sport;
- the importance of sport to help instil a sense of discipline and time-consciousness in the workplace; and
- SAPS Sport participation and service delivery.

The discussions of results in the paragraphs to follow are presented according to the five questions listed above. All of these results are explored by giving themes with relevant quotations from the respondents and interpretation thereof.

- **Participants’ reasons for participating in SAPS sport activities in the last 12 months**

An analysis of responses revealed a number of themes as to why respondents participate in sport. Some respondents indicated that sport participation is meant for improvement of health and fitness and while some maintained that sport, participation is for networking while others simply love sport.

From the analysis of responses on reasons for participation in sport, the following themes emerged: fitness and skills development, interaction and socialisation, passion for sport, healthy living, discipline and improvement on service delivery. Quotes providing evidence of these themes are presented in Table 5.14.
Table 5.14: Contribution that sport can make to human resource capacity building

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME/S</th>
<th>QUOTES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fitness and skills</td>
<td>“My reason was to make sure I stay fit. I believe it improved my skills, if I’m fit I can go through the day without struggling and suffering and my shooting skills are up to date they are actually angry at us because they cannot count our scores because we are just shooting one hole”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction and socialise</td>
<td>“It was provincial game that we did participate and also every year we arrange games as well as marathons as well as aerobics. The main reason is to socialise with people and interact with people and relieve stress”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passion for sport</td>
<td>“I participate in athletics. I’m an athletics administrator. I’m a qualified ASA official. I have a passion for sporting events where people can showcase their talent.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthy living</td>
<td>“A culture of healthy living for members and their families. Some of the players can get benefits of being selected to play for the country’s team and teams around SAPS in professional and semi-professional set up”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discipline</td>
<td>“Yes. My experience of sports is that everything that we do in sports is based on time. As I indicated earlier discipline is also a very important part of sports. You have times that you do your practice. You have to be on time in order to respect the colleagues as well as the coaches and managers. So that is an important part of it and can be translated into the work place”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvement of service delivery</td>
<td>“People who participate are stress free and they won’t be sick so much and be available at work and when they are available at work there will be service delivery. Those who are not participating are likely to succumb to things they would not normally be and may be with sickness and will not be at work”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are reasons and motives why individuals or SAPS athletes take part in SAPS sport regardless of the level on which such activities are organised, for example, amateur or professional level. One of the reasons cited by the research respondents is to improve health and fitness levels. This could enable respondents to improve on work skills, for example, shooting skills thus the member would be in the position to go through the day without struggling and suffering in the execution of police duties.

SAPS sport participants are expected to be combat-ready and physically healthy to execute their duties which is to serve and protect communities (Chapter Three, section 3.2.1, page 47). While sharpening the skills during participation in SAPS sport, one of the respondents cites one of the reasons for participating in sport, is to socialise with people and networks and interact with one another which in turn relieve stress. Sport enables SAPS sport participants to achieve a state of relaxation away from demanding police duties (Young, et al., 2011). As a result, sport enables police members to be physically ready due to their physical fitness and mental alertness enhanced through participation in sport.

The passion for taking part in SAPS sporting events has been cited as a reason to be involved in sport where people can showcase their talent and socialise. SAPS sport as a social service prepares the stage for enduring engagement amongst the internal sporting fraternity and it also helps police members to network in an informal sports set up. This could translate into establishment of a coherent workforce that is united by one common goal. (Chapter Three, Section 3.2.1.1, page 48).

Respondents in the research indicate that sport helps in instilling discipline in participants and helps them acquire time management skills. On the other hand, sport participation in SAPS has a positive influence on the delivery of service in the working environment. SAPS sport participants take part in sport activities with the aim of obtaining national colours, a feat regarded as prestigious by individual athletes. The way sport participants conduct themselves on and off the field of play is influenced by participation in sport by the way athletes acquire interpersonal relations skills and good behaviour. As a possible spin-off of participating in sport for human resource development is that service delivery becomes efficient and effective in the work place.
Sport activities could contribute immensely to human capacity building if applied and practiced correctly in a manner that could lead to a return on investment. Proper and adequate resources should be provided and used efficiently and effectively to yield increased results in sport participation. Reference made to results does not mean games results, but benefits that individual athletes or participants would gain through their participation in sport activities. One respondent when asked about the contribution of sport on human capacity building, stated that participation in sport activities help inculcate the sport culture of healthy living with members and their families. Some other benefits that individuals or players can gain are the benefits of being selected to play for a national team and teams in the professional and semi-professional clubs. These participants or players could acquire additional skills such as interpersonal relationships, communication skills, time management skills and leadership skills as some will be assigned duties as team captains and managers (Chapter Three, Section 3.2.1, page 47).

According to one of the respondents, sport is based on time, and time it is a very important part of sports, for example, players have times that they attend practice sessions. Thus, the players have to be on time in order to respect colleagues as well as coaches and managers. This translates into time management skills in their working environment (Chapter Three, Section 3.2.1, page 48). Sport can also help in the work place by improving the service delivery. It could be argued that people who participate in sport are in general more stress free and would seldom be ill and be available for work. When personnel are available at work there will be proper and efficient service delivery. Those who are not participating in sport could more easily succumb to illness such as lifestyle diseases flu and other opportunistic diseases and as such, they will not be as productive in a working environment.

- Participants’ perceptions on the most important aspects of SAPS Sport

Respondents indicated that health and fitness are the most important aspect in sport, followed by self-discipline, team building and service delivery improvement. In their responses, respondents commented as follows:
Participant 15 stated:

“For me, the most important aspects are that you need to be competitive. You need to be fit. That includes mentally and physically. You need to be a team player. You yourself need to be a leader. Everyone in the team must be a leader. It doesn’t only come from the captain or the manager. It comes from all the participants.”

Participant 31 stated that:

“The aspects of sports in SAPS are that of keeping the personnel healthy and fit hence there is a saying healthy body compliments a healthy mind, so the more the members are healthy and fit they will be productive in their working environment.”

All participants from lower SAPS ranks interviewed stated that it instils discipline in the members and it also helps them to cope with their daily demands of work. In addition, it is an opportunity for them to realise their potential through sports participation.

Participant 28 stated that:

“More competitions, it must come from both side’s players and management. Discipline to practice, time-off from work to practice. Transport because most people struggle to get to practices.”

Participant 29 stated:

“As I have mentioned the discipline, I engage with this sporting code I’ve gained a lot of discipline and I will remain like this.”

Participant 20 said that:

“You know the most important aspect is unity. There is a united front and networking as well. When people meet at championships that’s where you network. You meet other colleagues from other provinces, it’s a united front.”
Participant 27 stated that:

“Okay. The aspects that are very much important are for us to get interaction with some other members from other provinces because when we participate like for instance its either we participate with SANDF or the Department of Correctional Services we interact and then that makes the camaraderie easy in terms of getting to work together as the services.”

All respondents interviewed mentioned teamwork, discipline, leadership qualities and fitness as important elements in sport that also benefit the organisation as a whole when they are back at office.

Emerging themes in this regard are health, fitness, self-discipline and tactical strategy. These could also be what sport participants within SAPS perceive in terms of accrued benefits and contributions that sport provides. Perceptions on what constitutes important aspects in SAPS sport differ. It is influenced by types of sporting codes some individuals participate in and the frequency with which certain sporting codes are practised. Table 5.14 reflects the themes and supporting quotes.

**Table 5.15: Participants’ perceptions on most important aspects of SAPS Sport**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME/S</th>
<th>QUOTES</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Health and fitness</td>
<td>“The aspects of sports in SAPS are that of keeping the personnel healthy and fit hence there is a saying healthy body compliments a healthy mind, so the more the members are healthy and fit they will be productive in their working environment.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self discipline</td>
<td>“As I have mentioned the discipline, I engage with this sporting code, I’ve gained a lot of discipline and I will remain like this.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tactical strategy</td>
<td>“When you play as a group you need a strategy of tactical awareness, to conquer opposition, it’s important as working in a shift with other officials you need a tactical strategy to approach criminals”.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Self-discipline has been mentioned as a most important aspect in SAPS sport as involvement and engagement in SAPS-approved/-funded sporting codes made them more disciplined. Many of the sporting codes are governed by rules, regulations, and time schedules with which all participants have to abide. This requires high levels of discipline to thrive in the sport environment where
order is the mantra of the day. SAPS members acquire skills through participation in sport, for example, discipline and time management in the work place; and proper conduct on and off the field of play. The translation of these skills in the work environment improves service delivery that would be effective and efficient.

Some respondents perceived participation in SAPS sport makes one to gain in terms of health and fitness, which in turn influence positively on service delivery in the SAPS working environment. On the other hand, there are those who believe that participating in sport helps in team building which boosts the morale of police officers when it comes to their work. The notion that taking part in organised sport in SAPS instills a sense of discipline in police officers also emerged. This according to the researcher helps in building a kind of policing cadre or force that is suitable to perform policing duties.

- **The future for SAPS members involved in sport**

Respondents were asked as to what the future holds for them as members of SAPS sports.

*Participant 2* stated that:

“The future currently is shaping and growing. Within five years we will see people obtaining springbok colours. Now SAPS sport is engaging with outside sport, Department of Sport. SAPS sport people are involved in outside sports and we are now seeing a brighter future for SAPS sports that is coming. You know that there are hindrances. But we are seeing a greater and brighter future in the future to come.”

*Participant 32* said that:

“The future could be bright. It looks brighter because SAPS unlike in the past is not just operating in isolation but to an extent to take athletes to other higher competition and the rest so onto that on its own will bring extra exposure and open other avenues to those athletes that are sharper than the rest. The future is very bright like I was saying. We gear towards professionalism in police. I’ve only been here three years, so coming in the next few years it should be brighter.”
The themes of leadership role and achieving organisational goals and objectives by SAPS sport participants emerged as indicated in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16: Future of SAPS members involved in sport

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME/S</th>
<th>QUOTES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achieving organisational goals and objectives</td>
<td>“Well, I see a great future to achieve goals and objectives in this organisation if we can go on a road show giving time and a commitment to recruiting more members to participate in sport in this organisation.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership role</td>
<td>‘The future that I have seen is to become the chairman; I have learned a lot to manage the team and resolve the conflicts. The dream to become, eish, I don’t know how to say it, because you dream to become somebody maybe someone in the community or division in the police to lead people in a certain working environment or I will say that.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SAPS sport participants want to achieve certain set objectives, for example, winning championships or becoming a member of sport governing structures. Some members would want to see themselves progress in the field of play or courts by being selected in the SAPS national team so as to represent the country during international competitions. All these accolades as maintained by Fukuda-Parr (2010) do not depend only on knowledge, skills, training and education, but also on the behavior, habits, energy, physical and mental health of an individual (Chapter Two, Section 2.2, page 19). This is supported by Markovits and Rensman (2010) as they assert that cultural capital has tastes, preferences and behaviours (Chapter Two, Section 2.3, page 21). It implies that individual tastes, preferences and behaviour play an important role in determining the route SAPS sport participants take when pursuing their sport aspirations, that link to embodied cultural capital.
The importance of sport to help instill a sense of discipline and time-consciousness in the workplace

Respondents were asked whether sport helps to instill a sense of discipline and time-consciousness in the workplace. The following responses were recorded:

**Participant 1** stated:

“Yes. My experience of sport is that everything that we do in sport is based on time. As I indicated earlier, discipline is also a very important part of sport. You have times that you do your practice. You have to be on time in order to respect the colleagues as well as the coaches and managers. So that is an important part of it and can be translated into the work place.”

**Participant 32** said:

“When we go for sporting events it’s like we are still on duty and number one is discipline and respect. If they say in netball we start at nine) you can’t only come at nine . Warm up and everything must be done way before that’s where time consciousness comes that’s why I say each and every code has its own code of conduct but police conduct is above all of that.”

Complying with rules, morality and ethics are the themes that emerged and are presented in Table 5.17. Respondents indicated that sport is important in the SAPS in that it helps to instil discipline and improve on time management skills so that members could be time conscious when it comes to service delivery. Sport participation prepares police officers to always follow set regulations and rules and have proper time management skills. This can be translated into professional behaviour in the work environment. A police force that is professional would be in a position to deliver on the political mandate that is presented in the country’s constitution.
Table 5.17: Importance of sport to help instill a sense of discipline and time-consciousness in the workplace

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME/S</th>
<th>QUOTES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Complying with rules</td>
<td>“In terms of time management you need to be on time to be able to start and finish the match on time so it will impact the workplace because it’s about complying with the rules.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morality</td>
<td>“Yes, because I believe it brings morality sport has rules and people have to play by those rules. In terms of time management you need to be on time to be able to start and finish the match on time so it will impact the workplace because it’s about complying with the rules.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics</td>
<td>“Each and every player has to follow that and it goes with the professionalism we have to instil so therefore we follow the ethics within the police, the work ethics that we have like code of conduct of police is still part of the sport environment.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When SAPS sport participants take part in organised SAPS sport activities they display professionalism and skills acquired, for example, time management and adhere to set rules and regulations of sporting codes. These are regarded as intangible cultural capital as Ulibarri (2000) states that values, beliefs, inherited traditions and standards constitute intangible cultural capital (Chapter Two, Sub-section 2.3.2.4, page 28). Practising and adhering to set standards indicates that an individual has acquired intangible cultural capital which goes with values and beliefs. According to Bourdieu (2001c) this reflects cultural capital as it is a long lasting disposition of the mind and body such as knowledge, competencies and self-image representations.

- **SAPS sport participation and service delivery**

Respondents were asked to describe how sport helps in service delivery by SAPS members. The following perceptions were shared:

**Participant 7** mentioned that:

“For my understanding sports is medicine, fitness is medicine. People who participate relieve medical conditions they have and people decline the numbers who book off sick, who are absent from work, members who come to work and not feeling well, and work load is decreased from improper input. So sport has a positive impact in terms of work production.”
Three themes that emerged in this regard are commitment and serving communities, medical conditions and information gathering. This particular question investigated the effect that participation has on delivery of service in SAPS, whether it affects service delivery negatively or positively. The perceptions respondents had are solely based on the premise that sport creates a healthy body that houses a healthy mind, which justifies the importance of taking part in sport. Once police members have healthy bodies and minds, this will affect service delivery in a positive way, for example, decreased absenteeism due to sicknesses or ill health. Quotes supporting the themes are presented in Table 5.18.

Table 5.18: Sport participation and service delivery

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME/S</th>
<th>QUOTES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commitment and serving community</td>
<td>“If you look at members within the sporting environment, you will find they are very committed. They are not the members booking off sick, they are members who have a healthy mind. Within them they have skills that allow them to go out into the community and serve that community with respect, professionalism and dignity and with honour.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical conditions</td>
<td>“When you are involved in sports it makes you, you are fit; healthy you don’t book off sick so if you don’t book off sick you are of service to the community outside. We will be able to put out the amount of members that we need there to combat crime outside as well as inside in the CSC. The manpower will be there to address various deployments you become productive.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information gathering</td>
<td>“Where I am coming from, from the certain environment I can assist maybe the community or I can assist my colleagues during sports like no this thing we have to handle it like this due to the environment I am coming from. Sometimes you will find someone is a detective and needs information regarding the detective that someone has got and then you can help with the information that you have got.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participation in sport affects service delivery positively within the SAPS work environment as maintained by respondents of this study. It is supported by the assertion of Ritzen (2000) who argues that sport within organisations could have health benefits that translate into indirect economic benefits because members will not absent themselves due to illness or sick leave (Chapter Three, Section 3.1, page 42). This infers that members who are always present at work and healthy could deliver effective and efficient service to clients and members of communities they serve with commitment and professionalism.
The contribution of sport towards service is immense because according to Mokaya, *et al.*, (2012) sport ensures that employees are totally committed to organisations and their programmes. This in turn ensures improved organisational efficiency and profitability, which in essence imply proper professional service delivery for communities and clients. Taking part in sport promotes a sense of commitment in serving communities. On the other hand, it could help SAPS in information gathering as sport activities bring police officers closer to communities. The closer police officers are to communities, the more chance of getting information. Skills acquired by members, for example time management, interpersonal relations and communication skills come in handy in relation to service delivery. These skills when applied at the members’ work situation, affect service delivery positively.

5.3.4 Objective Four: The extent in which sport can provide opportunities for social engagement which can create awareness of differences and break down barriers for individuals and groups within SAPS

Objective Four was explored through 6 questions:

- perspective on SAPS sport and social connections;
- importance of sport as a way of keeping in touch with colleagues, friends and neighbours;
- importance of sport in promoting a sense of belonging and togetherness in the working environment;
- sport used as a vehicle of social interaction in the SAPS and in the international arena; and
- the impact that social disadvantages have on participation in SAPS sport.

The above questions of Objective Four are explored in the paragraphs below and supported by quotations from the respondents.

- **Perspectives on SAPS sport and social connections**

Respondents indicated that sport could be used as a tool for social connection whereby colleagues meet and share ideas with one another. Social connection is strengthened through sport as it brings people together regardless of individuals’ levels or rank. SAPS members interact on equal footing when taking part in sport activities during sport practices and tournaments.
Participant 4 stated that:

“Usually they make friends and connect with each other. They also teach each other things that others don’t know. Like how they live wherever they are coming from what are they doing?”

Participant 5 indicated that:

“Sports makes players to meet new people and share ideas, it’s not the issue of always you meet the people that you live with in your environment you come to places and meet other people and interact and share ideas.”

Participant 15 said:

“Yes, I think SAPS sport just strengthens social connection, brings people from different levels to the same level, and brings people together. You can be on a different level but sport puts us on the same level.”

• The importance of sport as a way of keeping in touch with colleagues, friends and neighbors

Participants were asked whether they think sport is an important way of keeping in touch with colleagues, friends and neighbours. All of the participants interviewed agreed that indeed sport improves networking with colleagues, friends and neighbours. It is through sport that SAPS sport participants could freely meet each other, friends and supervisors who attend the sporting tournament events and other activities of sport interest.

Participant 1 indicated that:

“It enables SAPS members to meet people from different worlds, from different nationalities, also of different personalities. People engage and tend to know how to deal with people from different facets of life.”

Participant 7 stated that:

“Yes, in the work place there are always human dynamics and when you have a colleague and you work together you lay in the same team your relationship becomes better you understand
each other better, like how ambitious we need to be to win, that can be taken to the work environment.”

Participant 28 stated that:

“Most of the children that come out of the relationships that were formed when members have met at the sporting codes or at the different venues so I think it’s very much valuable.”

- The importance of sport in promoting a sense of belonging and togetherness in the working environment

Participants were asked whether they think sport is an important way of promoting a sense of belonging and togetherness in the working environment. It emerged that according to the participants sport brings togetherness where there is respect and working together as a team. The relationships that are built during the championships make SAPS sport participants understand each other better with one common goal, which is emerging as champions at the end of the tournament.

Participant 6 said:

“Definitely once again with certainty I can tell you the togetherness is what it’s all about when you go to a championship there can be only one winner but when you get onto the court the togetherness of your team and the act that we respect one another and know that we are there in a championship and there will be only one winner teams have respect for others you go in there and in togetherness and the comradeship of all the volleyball players its brilliant.”

Participant 7 stated that:

“Yes, in the work place there are always human dynamics and when you have a colleague and you work together you lay in the same team your relationship becomes better you understand each other better, like how ambitious we need to be to win, that can be taken to the work environment.”
• Sport can be used as a vehicle of social interaction in the SAPS and in the international arena

Participants were asked whether sport can be used as a vehicle for social interaction within SAPS and in the international arena. Social interaction is formed due to sport, and this helps in building friendships and enables low ranking officers to have access and meet high-ranking officers. SAPS athletes are exposed to best practices from outside the country as they are interacting with international law enforcement agencies employees from outside the borders of South Africa. Some of SAPS sport participants could be trained to serve with pride as officials in the sport fraternity as they have been empowered through coaching clinics and workshops hosted by SAPS federations.

Participant 1 stated that:

“Sport is a social interaction in anyway. Whenever one engages in sports friendships are formed. And it can also be used to bring together people who never thought that in a particular point in time that they would be together. Yes the highest people in the organisation and also for you to meet other people from other countries. To say wow, we never thought that we could meet the commissioner, the national commissioner of Namibia. When we went to Namibia we were able to meet him in person welcoming us as South Africans. Those are some things that one never thought could happen but through sports you are able to achieve that.”

Participant 10 stated that:

“There are initiatives whereby we have international games. We go and exchange good practices. Remember we are SAFA affiliates so we really need to contribute positively to the development of the country in terms of soccer. The managers and coaches can also come from SAPS. They can serve them and then assist the country going forward.”

• The impact of social disadvantages on participation in SAPS sport

The participants did not experience social disadvantage within the sport fraternity in SAPS as according to their views all members are treated equally without discrimination. However, it is evident that some members in the police are disadvantaged when it comes to affordability of sport equipment; this could be because of their being on a lower rank. It is asserted by some
members that some sport participants are excluded in SAPS sport activities because of their inability to afford buying expensive sport equipment.

**Participant 11** stated:

“Sometimes people might see, if they see me as an Admin Clerk they either might take it as if I might not be fit enough to take a position or lead a team. Also there are some good or great athletes who are on the lower level and feel as if they do not fit enough to be recognised in a way.”

**Participant 22** stated that:

“That is definitely a problem, I think most sports you need money to take part our sport is expensive to start off specially the equipment so that is a disadvantage to a lot of members especially when you are trying to bring in a lot of new members like constables and sergeants and that is where we need to build and that is expensive. So the impact is we are excluding them now because they can’t afford the equipment.”

Social connections, keeping in touch with people, belonging and togetherness, social interaction and being unfit to lead are themes identified in this regard. The respondents in this study indicated that participation in SAPS sport activities brings about social engagement or connections because members meet each other during these events. This means that even though there is authorisation given to sport participants to be involved in employee sport on official basis, it is still social engagement.

The participants socialise and get to know one another well as they converge centrally being from various places all over the nine provinces. When sport participants engage one another on social basis, they interact informally without the barrier of work protocol, for example the rank system of the law enforcement agencies. The social engagements do not imply that professionalism and respect are not maintained in the sport arena or during sport events.
Table 5.19: Provision of social engagement through sport

<table>
<thead>
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<th>THEME/S</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social connections</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>places and meet other people and interact and share ideas.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keeping in touch with people</td>
<td>“It enables SAPS members to meet people from different worlds, from</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>different nationalities, also of different personalities. People engage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and tend to know how to deal with people from different facets of life.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belonging and togetherness</td>
<td>“Yes, it’s very important for an individual to belong. A sense of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>belonging gives you motivation, being appreciated by other people, It’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>an indication that now you are working together.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social interaction</td>
<td>“Sports are a social interaction in anyway. And it can also be used to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bring together people who never thought that in a particular point in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>time that they would be together. And also for you to meet other people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>from other countries.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfit to lead</td>
<td>“If they see me as an Admin Clerk they either might take it I might not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>be fit enough to take a position or lead a team. And also feeling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>unfit to take position of leadership.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sport plays an important role in human beings’ lives, for example social engagement and social connections with each other, skills development and fitness maintenance. It is through sport that players can meet new people and share ideas, and could also go to places and meet other people and interact and share ideas; this is the form of social cohesion. Social cohesion is when members are brought together by a pulling force for a common goal (Chapter Two section 2.4.2, page 32). One of the respondents indicated that sport enables SAPS members to meet people from different worlds, from different nationalities, also of different personalities. SAPS sport participants engage and through sport they can learn how to deal with people from different facets of life.

According to a respondent of this study, it’s very important for an individual to belong. If SAPS athletes belong to something, for example a provincial sport team, a sense of belonging gives
them motivation, and a feeling of being appreciated by others. It’ s an indication that that there is cooperation and working together. Sport is viewed as a social interaction phenomenon and it can be used to bring together people who never thought that in a particular point in time that they would be together (Chapter Two, Section 2.5, page 32). SAPS athletes are in the position to intermingle with high echelon SAPS leaders whom they never would have had a chance to meet in the normal work situation. It implies that sport can be a unifier and a tunnel through which hard to reach people are made accessible in a relaxed environment.

Sport participants in SAPS manage to make social connections and keep in touch with friends through sport involvement; this brings about a sense of belonging and togetherness amongst police officers. It could also help to cement the moral social fibre of the police community as co-workers who are brought together by one common goal being to participate in organised sport.

5.3.5 Objective Five: How sport can be used as an engagement mechanism or tool to build relationships with hard to reach individuals or groups

Questions posed under Objective Five:

- SAPS ranks and membership of SAPS sport clubs;

- Participants’ use of sports and recreation facilities around the area of employment as a club member; and

- SAPS sport’s role to ensure that there are social networks, norms values and understanding that facilitate co-operation within various groups.

In the paragraphs below the researcher explores each of the above questions as appearing under Objective Five.

- **SAPS ranks and membership of SAPS sport clubs**

From the 32 respondents, only five did not take part in sport and therefore did not belong to a SAPS sport club. This could imply that these respondents do not accrue any cultural capital benefits that are there because of actual participation in sport within the working environment.
Respondents’ use of sports and recreation facilities around the area of employment as a club member

Respondents were asked whether they make use of sport and recreation facilities around their area of employment as club members where they can play sport and meet socially. It is perceived that at sport facilities people labeled ‘hard to reach’ are accessible through sport. Formal and informal relationships are established on the playing fields and courts whereby individuals meet with the sole purpose of participating in sport and recreation activities.

Participant 1 said,

“Yes, we do use some facilities that we have at our colleges which are here in Pretoria. We also use our squash court there. So we are using those facilities.”

Participants 24 and 25 made use of sport and recreation facilities, while Participant 26 did not use recreation facilities around the area of employment.

Participant 27 stated that:

“It is a little bit difficult because you have to request permission and then you need to be authorised for you to be able to go and train there. If you do not have the authority then you are not welcome at those specific facilities or venues.”

It could mean in terms of cultural capital, that ‘hard to reach’ people are involved in social cohesion by means of sport. Sport creates access for sport participants to personally benefit and influence service delivery at their work place through the acquired skills such as time management and communication.

SAPS sport helps in ensuring that there are social networks, norms values and understanding that facilitate co-operation within various groups

Respondents were asked whether SAPS sport helps in forming social networks, norms, values and understanding to facilitate co-operation within various groups. Respondents perceived that social networks, norms and values are established due to participating in sport. This facilitates co-operation and networking amongst various groups in the SAPS sport fraternity. Some of the responses recorded are noted below:
Participant 7 said:

“I believe so. Members network at championships; some are referred to agents to private clubs and networking to somebody scouting at championships to get quality members in their own private clubs.”

Themes that emerged in relation to Question Three under Objective Five (5) are volunteering, sport facilities usage, social networks, understanding and cooperation. It is through participation in sport activities that individuals or police officers could be in the position to interact with colleagues and other people. Personal relationships are built or established because of the interactions that have been formed because of sport, thus sport could be regarded as an excellent tool to build relationships.

Table 5.20: Sport as an engagement tool (building relationships)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME/S</th>
<th>QUOTES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volunteering</td>
<td>“Membership of club is voluntarily.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilisation of sport facilities</td>
<td>“Yes, we do use some facilities that we have at our colleges which are here in Pretoria. We also use our squash court there. So we are using those facilities.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“It is a little bit difficult because you have to request permission and then you need to be authorised for you to be able to go and train there. If you do not have the authority then you are not welcome at those specific facilities or venues”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social networks, understanding and cooperation</td>
<td>“Most definitely, if you look at championships that take place, the inter-departmental championships, this allows us to interact with other departments. Other role players are outside the organisations and that’s the perfect place to do networking in order to form a common goal through that interactions between other departments and role players.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Relationships that are built during sport activities transcend work boundaries and do away with red tape created by the rank or protocol system in law enforcement agencies like SAPS. This
does not mean that SAPS or police protocol is disregarded in the sport environment within the law enforcement agencies. It infers that the approach on the field of play and around the sport administration table tends to be one of sportsmanship when conducting the business of the day whereby relationships are built (Chapter Two, Section 2.5, page 32).

Memberships of SAPS clubs are done voluntarily and it enables members to be in a position to establish relationships outside the work situation, which often tends to be hostile due to being paramilitary. According to one of the respondents sport can be used as an engagement tool, for example sport participants have to request permission to use sport facilities at the workplace, one need to be authorised to go and train there. If sport participants do not have the authority, they are not welcome at specific facilities or venues. This is seen as a form of engagement between SAPS sport participants and leadership and management. During SAPS championships and inter-departmental championships, there is interaction of SAPS sport participants with other public service members and other role players outside the SAPS, which implies that social cohesion and bonding cultural capital are formed. These are the perfect places to do networking in order to form a common goal through those interactions between other departments and role players (Chapter Two Section 2.4.2, page 32).

Sport activities need facilities wherein or whereon participants could compete against one another. It is on these facilities and during sport activities that participants who are club members get opportunities to establish social networks that follow certain norms and values of the sporting codes in question, which could be referred to as cultural capital. This interaction gives rise to an understanding and cooperation of members who share similar ideals, values and norms. SAPS sport participants have to subscribe to certain norms and values of societal groups such as sport clubs, provincial and national teams if such groups need to thrive in their respective environments. Such sport participants would tend to be disciplined because they adhere to rules and regulations set for their competition or tournaments. Sport as a microcosm of the community or society plays an integral part in uniting communities and people sharing goals.

5.3.6 Objective Six: Designing a framework for sport in the SAPS to develop cultural capital
A framework is defined as a broad overview, outline, or skeleton of interlinked items which supports a particular approach to a specific objective, and serves as guide that can be modified as
required by adding or deleting items (Meriam-Webster, 2002). It could also refer to a structure that can hold or support a theory of a research study. The framework provides functionalities/solutions to the particular problem area. Its main function is to help in solving domain specific problems. In essence, a framework may include classes and functions within a given area of operations. Based on the researcher’s findings and interpretations of the study objectives, guidelines are designed and provided. This framework merges the findings and the benchmarks in Chapter Two into a framework that is presented in Chapter Six under recommendations.

5.4 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the profile of the respondents, results and findings pertaining to Objectives One to Five.

Findings suggest that SAPS sport contribution towards the development of cultural capital is realised based on the cultural capital benchmarks, for organisational culture, diverse norms and values, class hierarchy, social cohesion and social networks. It seems that SAPS organisational or employee sport has a positive impact on the work performance of SAPS employees. SAPS sport participants who play sport together have a high level of social bonding amongst themselves and also with the members of the community where the sporting events take place. It is through SAPS sport participation and interactions that members can socialise and strengthen their relationship ties with the communities and other public service departments.

South African Police Service sport, even though is played on amateur level, has turned professional in terms of administration, management and events organising. This creates an enabling environment for sport activities where SAPS members are afforded the opportunity to freely participate. Sport is played for enjoyment and socialising with the community, which in turn creates a sense of belonging for the participants resulting in intimate engagement. It implies that groups are formed that result in social networks and social capital that facilitates proper functioning of teams or groups of sport participants. On the other hand, participating in SAPS sport is also viewed as a tool that helps individuals to grow and become better. Sport enables sport participants to bond amongst themselves and with members of the communities and SAPS clients. It is through SAPS sport federations that links are formed between communities and
SAPS sport participants, which in turn enable police officers to be effective in delivering on their mandates.

SAPS sport clubs are viewed differently within the sport environment, namely sport clubs that are not welcoming to new members due to being cliquey and those that are not cliquey and are also welcoming. This could be ascribed to power politics that exists in within the sport clubs. Club members act in this manner because they protect their comfort zones by excluding others in the existing privileges in sport clubs.

SAPS sport participants are viewed by members of the communities as mentors to their children in relation to sport activities or participation. The perceptions that community members have on SAPS sport participants could be due to types of tastes, diverse differences and preferences that each members have. This forms classifications and hierarchical dispositions that are in the form of cultural capital.

Findings suggest that sport assists participants to relax from the daunting tasks of the police work that they are faced with on daily basis. This contributes to physical and mental readiness of those police officers who are sport participants. The culture of healthy living is developed in members who seriously participate in sport, which also transfers to families of SAPS members. Police members who actively participate in sport would always be present at work and deliver an effective and efficient service. Sport contributes members’ commitment towards the organisation and existing programmes. Sport is viewed as a social interaction phenomenon that could be used to bring together people who never thought that they would be together.

Employee sport within the SAPS if professionally run, managed, administered and organised could contribute immensely towards the level of police officers’ commitment to their work or profession. SAPS athletes or sport participants develop skills such as leadership, problem solving, interpersonal relations and communication skills because of the existing interaction that is there through sport. SAPS sport participation in the work environment boosts employee productivity because their physiological, physical and psychological needs are met. It has also become evident to the researcher that the rate of absenteeism, medical costs and sick leave in SAPS where members are sport participants are reduced because of the excellent spin-offs of participating in sport. SAPS employees who are healthy due to sport and exercise and being
always present at work can clock in more working hours, which improve on service delivery and organisational efficiency.

Jordt (2016) maintains that police departments across South Africa realise the importance of physical fitness, and how it affects the performance and safety of the police. No matter the police officer’s height, age or gender, good muscular strength will have an impact on the ability to apprehend an agitated suspect, sprint up a set of stairs, or burst through a locked door. Physical fitness and abilities are a necessity for all police officers to execute their daily duties of policing. So, sport as a tool and form of physical fitness maintenance if used optimally within the SAPS would help realise the goals and objectives of the organisation. Sport plays an important role in promoting nation building, social cohesion and healthy life. In playing or participating in sport, police officers can learn important life lessons, sport teaches individuals or police officers about hard work, dedication and relying on each other.

The researcher will address Objective Six in Chapter 6.
CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. INTRODUCTION

Sport in the South African Police Service is viewed as a secondary function as it does not form part of the core function of the police, which is combating, fighting and preventing crime in communities. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (2006: 124), Chapter 11, Section 205 (3) states that, “the objects of the police service are to prevent, combat and investigate crime, to maintain republic order, to protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, and to uphold and enforce the law.” It is the constitutional mandate of SAPS to ensure that all citizens of South Africa and people living in it are and feel safe, but this needs a mentally, spiritually and psychologically healthy, physically fit, well trained, educated and developed police service. The police force has to move with the latest trends and technological inventions around the world to avoid being out-witted or outclassed by criminals. Participation in sport activities could be one of the tools that SAPS can use profitably to prepare the workforce to acquire cultural and social capital and be combat ready as a law enforcement agency.

The primary aim of the study was to explore and describe how sport as cultural capital is perceived and realised in the South African Police Service. The following secondary objectives were stated in Chapter One:

- To establish benchmarks or appropriate practices for sport to be optimally perceived as cultural capital;
- To assess the degree to which police rank system affects the SAPS employees’ participation in sport, as players, volunteers and members of sports clubs and spectators;
- To ascertain the contribution that sport can make to human resource capacity building, particularly through volunteers being involved in decision-making and management in the SAPS;
- To determine the extent in which sport can provide opportunities for social engagement which can create awareness of differences and break down barriers for individuals and groups within the SAPS;
To explore as to how sport can be used as an engagement mechanism or tool to build relationships with hard to reach individuals or groups; and

To provide guidelines for sport in the SAPS to develop cultural capital.

6.2 CONCLUSION

From the findings of the study, it is concluded that sport contributes to cultural capital by building capacity of human resources. Police officers who participate in sport are always combat ready, physically healthy and fit to cope with the demands of their day-to-day duties. There are other skills that police officers acquire when taking part in sport, for example interpersonal relations, communication skills, leaderships skills and self-discipline. Sport participants tend to be productive in the workplace due to their healthy health status, the more they are remaining healthy, more productive they become. It is also evident in the results that participation in sport within work environment inculcates in participants a culture of healthy living.

Social connection and engagement in the work place is brought about individual participation in sport as participants meet new faces and share different ideas. This on its own accrues social cohesion within the police officers, which also yields positive production in terms of the police work.

Conclusions are drawn from the study results based on the following five objectives that the researcher has explained below:

6.2.1. Objective One: Benchmarks or appropriate practices for sport to be optimally perceived as cultural capital

It is evident as it appears in Chapter Five, that the contribution of SAPS sport to developing cultural capital is realised regarding the following benchmarks: organisational culture, diverse norms and values, habitus, institutional cultural capital, class hierarchy, field, exclusion, social cohesion, social networks, bonding social capital, bridging social capital, linking social capital, multi-dimensional, governmental operations and systems, social investment, social relation/social bonds, intangible social resources, and actual or potential resources, but under-realised in the benchmarks of language practices, embodied cultural capital, objectified and cultural capital.
6.2.2. **Objective Two: Degree to which police rank system affects the SAPS employees’ participation in sport, as players, volunteers and members of sports clubs and spectators**

The South African Police Service organises sport for the entire police service and makes provision in the budget to fund and pay for sport activities that are sanctioned by the division responsible for sport. All regular members in SAPS take part in sport on equal footing even though certain opportunities are reserved for high-ranking officers. The provision of sport in SAPS is also extended to trainees who are not yet permanent members of the service, but attend training in a basic police development-learning programme. In pursuit of the ideal situation of making police officers fit and maintaining their physical fitness level, the SAPS supports the notion of providing sport for all members. This practice ensures that employee sport is properly institutionalised and the programmes offered would be accessible to all members of the service regardless of rank.

6.2.3. **Objective Three: Contribution that sport can make to human resource capacity building, particularly through volunteers being involved in decision-making and management in the SAPS**

Young, *et al.*, (2011), states as it appears in Chapter Three, Section 3.2.1, page 46 of this study, that sport within the armed forces prepares the army to be combat ready and physically healthy to do their duties which is to serve and protect the communities. Sport in the law enforcement agencies is focused on promoting and maintaining military efficiency and morale of personnel and it is through sport that police members achieve a state of relaxation away from their daunting duties. Sport ensures that the law enforcement agencies achieve physical fitness, mental alertness and qualities of military-readiness.

The findings of the study indicated that participation in SAPS sport according to some respondents helps to inculcate a culture of healthy living for SAPS members and have a positive influence on the work environment due to skills acquired by sport participants. The police officers who take part in sport acquire skills such as interpersonal relations, team building skills, self-discipline and networking and communication skills. On the other hand, a police force that takes part in sport could always be combat ready and physically healthy and fit to execute daily duties.
6.2.4. Objective Four: Extent in which sport can provide opportunities for social engagement which can create awareness of differences and break down barriers for individuals and groups within the SAPS

Provision of sport in the South African Police Service as a social service sets the stage for enduring engagement amongst internal sporting fraternity (Groeneveld, 2009). Police officers can socialise on the platform of sport whereby they share best practices on combating and fighting crime. The participants meet and socialise in the form of sport activities and they meet with members of the communities on a social basis. All sport participants in the SAPS gain mental and physical fitness, which are inherent job requirement in the police. According to Mokaya, et al., (2012) sport contributes immensely towards high levels of employees’ commitment to organisations and their goals.

6.2.5. Objective Five: Sport as engagement mechanism or tool to build relationships with hard to reach individuals or groups

SAPS police officers could be in the position to interact with colleagues and other people by means of sport activities and it enables personal relationships to be built or established. The interactions that have been formed because of sport could be regarded as an excellent tool to be used in building relationships. According to one of the respondents sport can be used as an engagement tool, for example sport participants have to request permission to use sport facilities at workplace, one need to be authorised for one to be able to go and train there. If sport participants do not have the authority then they are not welcome at those specific facilities or venues. This is a form of engagement of the SAPS sport participants with leadership and management within SAPS.

During SAPS championships and the inter-departmental championships, there is interaction of SAPS sport participants with other public service members, and other role players outside SAPS. These are the perfect places to do networking in order to form a common goal through those interactions between other departments and role players (Chapter Two Section 2.4.2, page 31). It is during sport activities that participants who are club members are exposed to establishing social networks that follow certain norms and values of the sporting codes in question.
The interaction that gets established due to participation is sport gives rise to understanding and cooperation of members who share same ideals, values and norms. SAPS port participants have to subscribe to certain norms and values of the societal groups such as sports clubs, provincial and national teams if such groups need to thrive in their respective environments.

According to the findings of this study, the approach with which some of the top managers handle sport in SAPS clearly indicates that accrual of cultural and social capital is not fully recognised and perceived. The importance of sport and its benefit to the work force is recognised and perceived even though there is lack of support that is shown by some of the SAPS management in relation to sport matters.

There was an indication in this study that SAPS top management does not aware of and perceive the importance of members’ participation in employee sport as some of the SAPS sport participants or respondents asserted that there is no support from SAPS management. They gave the following reasons as an indication of lack of support, 1) refusal by management to release members to take part in sport, 2) reluctance to provide resources, 3) no permission granted for time-off to attend practice sessions and trials, and 4) no provision of resources and facilities.

6.3. ANSWERING THE RESEARCH QUESTION

The following research question was posed for this study:

Is the potential of sport as cultural capital perceived and realised in the South African Police Service?

From the conclusion drawn in 6.2, it can be stated that the potential of sport as cultural capital in the SAPS is not been fully realised and perceived. There are elements of sport as cultural capital and gaps where there is under achievement. The following paragraphs serve as evidence that the potential of sport as cultural capital in SAPS is not fully realised.

Some respondents asserted that sport participation could contribute to human resource development or capacity building if practised or organised appropriately. They maintained that a police force that takes part in sport could always be combat ready and physically healthy and fit.
to execute their duties. Police officers who take part in sport acquire skills such as interpersonal relations, team building, self-discipline, networking and communication. The job production of police officers who participate in sport is higher than those who are physically inactive. Health and fitness have been cited by some of the respondents as the most important aspects of sport in SAPS because the healthier SAPS members are, the more productive would they be in the workplace, this could be regarded as habitus. On the other hand, the respondents have mentioned self-discipline as one of the most important aspects of SAPS sport. The way SAPS sport federations are governed and their championships are organised help to instil a sense of discipline in SAPS sport participants. Participation in SAPS sport according to some respondents helps to inculcate the culture of healthy living for SAPS members and their next of kin. Skills such as time management, communication skills and leadership skills are acquired through participation in SAPS sport because individuals are given certain roles to play in their respective teams, for example as team captains and managers.

Sport participation in the work environment brings about social engagement and social connection whereby SAPS members meet new people and share ideas; this in turn forms social cohesion. It is through sport that SAPS members can meet with their counter parts from outside the borders of South Africa whereby members learn how to deal with people from different cultural backgrounds. Sport participants manage to meet those police top managers who are hard to reach and as such they can intermingle on social basis and build relationships that transcend the work boundaries and work protocol.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations in the paragraphs below are based on the SAPS sport environment and are in line with the six objectives of the study. According to the researcher, these recommendations are appropriate for SAPS as a law enforcement agency as its employees get involved in sport and recreation activities within the working environment. Organisation, management and administration of sport within SAPS should be approached in a professional way to yield results pertaining to service delivery.
6.4.1 Objective One

Police officers should be given opportunities to be involved in sport and recreation activities within the working environment as they are working in stressful environments whilst benchmarking from other law enforcement agencies. (Contributions of sport to human resource capacity building, Section 5.3. Table 5.14, page 138);

6.4.2 Objective Two

SAPS should ensure that proper resources are provided for and made easily accessible to enable employees to participate in sport regardless of ranks. (Views on the support that SAPS management offers, Section 5, Table 5.10, page 129);

6.4.3 Objective Three

All police personnel should be exposed to opportunities that are there because of participation in sport in the work environment (Participants’ perception on most important aspects of SAPS sport, Section 5, Table 5.15, page 142. Provision of social engagement through sport, Section 5, Table 5.19, page 153. Building relationships through sport (sport as an engagement tool), Table 5.20, page 156);

6.4.4 Objective Four

SAPS top management should give full support to all members who are interested in participating in sport because of the benefits that are accrued when taking part in sport. (Views on the support that SAPS management offers, Section 5, Table 5.10, page 129); and

6.4.5 Objective Five

Proper sport structures should be put in place at all levels of SAPS sphere of operations. (Perceptions on cliquey and not welcoming clubs, Section 5, Table 5.11, page 132. Perceptions of mainstream participants, officials and management, Section 5, Table 5.12, page 134).

6.4.6 Objective Six

The paragraphs below give details of benchmarks and the guidelines within which SAPS sport participation operates. These have been derived from the respondents’ interview information and reviewed literature pertaining to law enforcement agencies such as South African Defence Force and Department of Correctional Services sport or employee sport in other institutions, for
example universities and corporate entities such as Telkom and Denel. It details sport participation in the SAPS, other institutions, for example South African National Defence Force and the sport activities and interventions.

6.4.6.1 Sport participation in the South African Police Service: Guidelines to achieve cultural capital

This study undertaken by the researcher within SAPS sport has brought to light the operations of sport in SAPS, and the way sport is run and managed. Based on the findings and recommendations of this study, the researcher has developed guidelines that indicate the existing gaps that were not achieved about sport as cultural capital and achieved recognisable elements of cultural and social capital when assessing SAPS sport reality (Chapter Five, Tables 5.6 to 5.7). Figures 6.1 to 6.2 (designed by the researcher) below provide details of an adapted SAPS sport elements reality and indicate elements and gaps of cultural capital that are achieved and not achieved through sport.

Figure 6.1 Elements of cultural and social capital not achieved in SAPS sport
Figure 6. 2 Elements of cultural and social capital achieved in SAPS sport
Table 6.1 and the paragraphs below give an indication on where gaps are in relation to sport as cultural capital in SAPS and how these gaps could be addressed. Gaps are categorised according to three of the recognisable elements of cultural and social capital when assessing SAPS sport reality against cultural and social capital benchmarks.
Table 6.1 Guidelines proposed to sustain cultural capital elements and gaps regarding the benchmarks (Chapter Five): Development (designed by the researcher)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELEMENTS OF CULTURAL CAPITAL</th>
<th>GUIDELINES HOW TO SUSTAIN AND DEVELOP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language culture</td>
<td>There have to be inclusive/exclusive language policies development and formulation, crafting and introduction of policies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embodied cultural capital</td>
<td>Create opportunities to demonstrate diverse tastes and preferences. There should also be proper marketing strategy and its implementation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectified cultural capital</td>
<td>Create awareness about tangible art work, artefacts, buildings, literature, and historical records. Orientation programmes should be done to inculcate appreciation of intangible organisational values, beliefs, traditions and standards. A unit has to be established that will incorporate sport, recreation, arts and culture clustered together.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.1 indicates the gaps within SAPS sport that have been identified by the researcher when exploring the benchmarks from sources and when doing literature study. The gaps that were identified are inclusive/exclusive language policies, opportunities to demonstrate diverse tastes and preferences, tangible art works: artefacts, buildings, literature and historical records, intangible organisational values, beliefs, traditions and standards. The researcher scrutinised the responses of all the participants of this study and could not come across any information that touches the abovementioned organisational indicators.

There was no evidence from the respondents’ information to show that SAPS sport participants are aware of any language services policies in existence, museums services, arts and historical records of sport. All these could be attributed to a lack of systems and structures within SAPS that would market and publicise these services or ignorance on the part of the respondents as they are only focused on sport. Another reason, however, could be that the focus and interest of
SAPS sport participants is not diversified due to poor service or lack of effective and efficient services from these units. Lastly, it could be that language services, museums and libraries are misplaced within the structure of SAPS, resulting in inadequate exposure to sport participants and other interested members.

Employee sport within law enforcement agencies, for example SAPS, is not just seen as a tool to attain mental, emotional and physical wellness within the organisation’s wellness programme, but could be used as a tool to attain cultural capital. The workforce’s benefits when participating in sport give rise to economic and social capital (Chapters Two and Three), for example, the decrease of the rate of absenteeism, reduction of utilisation of medical aid and meaningful contribution of employees towards service delivery.

There have to be amendments made to the SAPS sport structure to accommodate arts and culture which constitutes services dealing with language, museums, and libraries. This will align the organisational structure of SAPS sport with other public services as approved by Department of Public Service and Administration.

Table 6.2 below indicates the guidelines that the researcher has proposed to address the elements of cultural capital that have been achieved. It also shows the guidelines on how to sustain and develop the elements of cultural capital, which are achieved through sport in the South African Police Service.
Table 6.2 Guidelines proposed to sustain elements of cultural capital achieved regarding the benchmarks (Chapter Five) (designed by the researcher)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELEMENTS OF CULTURAL CAPITAL</th>
<th>GUIDELINES HOW TO SUSTAIN AND DEVELOP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisational culture</td>
<td>SAPS sport clubs and federations should align their strategies to that of the police.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diverse norms and values</td>
<td>Perceptions of what is socially desirable and realisation of values such as brotherhood, freedom and happiness, peace, obedience, honesty and beauty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class hierarchy</td>
<td>Maximise the utilisation of forums available in the SAPS sport environment so that the existing structures and policies can be functional.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectified cultural capital</td>
<td>Conduct proper workshops to promote and maintain existing programmes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional cultural capital</td>
<td>Credit must be given to performing individuals through employee recognition by giving certificates, merit awards and qualifications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Habitus</td>
<td>Organise interventions that address the employee expectations, active lifestyles and disposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field</td>
<td>Provide and maintain the structural social spaces and opportunities where employees can socialise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exclusion</td>
<td>Policies should be reviewed continuously to sustain the programmes and interventions targeted for the sport participants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social cohesion</td>
<td>Ensure that there is access and opportunity for social gatherings. Opportunities to work together in committees, groups or task teams to be created.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6. 3 Guidelines proposed to sustain elements of social capital achieved (Chapter Five)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELEMENTS OF SOCIAL CAPITAL</th>
<th>GUIDELINES HOW TO SUSTAIN AND DEVELOP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social networks</td>
<td>Sports and cultural clubs should be monitored and be given the support needed to provide links between people in the community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bonding social capital</td>
<td>Resources to be provided to assist the existing clubs and federations to offer sustainable projects and programmes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bridging social capital</td>
<td>There have to be training interventions and coaching clinics for proper development of the participants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linking social capital</td>
<td>Formal gatherings and meetings have to be convened with all role players to expose sport participants to coworkers in the sporting environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-dimensional</td>
<td>Relationships and trust reciprocity and action for common purposes should be instilled by means of multi-faceted activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governmental operations and systems</td>
<td>Linkages amongst people should be strengthened by increased social capital and as such diffuse innovations. The quantity and quality of information that flows between groups must be improved by debates in forums.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social investment</td>
<td>SAPS should organise sport activities that promote social investment. Coaching clinics should have sustainable impetus to ensure that skills and knowledge are acquired by individuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social relation/ Social bonds</td>
<td>There have to be continuous resources provisioning for group membership to relationships, networks of influence and support.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual or potential resources</td>
<td>SAPS sport federation should be supported to make durable networks of more or less institutionalised relationships.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intangible social resources</td>
<td>SAPS sport should promote social relationships through sport activities. Proper provisioning of resources should be a priority to enable investment in a set of symbols</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES/ RESEARCH

This study has raised concerns that could be addressed by instituting further formal research in the SAPS or other law enforcement agencies.

6.5.1 Recommendations

The following are general recommendations proposed by the researcher regarding further studies.

- A similar study could be undertaken in other law enforcement agencies, for example Department of Correctional Services and South African National Defense Force, public service departments and local governments offering employee sport to compare the studies;

- Formal research could be undertaken to determine the views that law enforcement agencies have towards participation in sport in the working environment;

- A study could be done to determine as to which sport activities can be offered for employees in the work environment to accrue cultural capital;

- Further research could be conducted to determine how structured (institutionalised) employees sport could be used more effectively and efficiently to improve on service delivery;

- Applied research could be done to determine why some commanders in SAPS could not allow employees or police officers under their command to participate in sport even though sport is institutionalised at national level; and

- Research could be conducted to determine the benefits that law enforcement agencies get when the employees participate in regional and international games.

6.6 STUDY CONCLUSION

The aim of the study was to determine if sport participation in SAPS context contributes to the development of cultural capital. From the results it was concluded that sport participation in
SAPS does meet some of the benchmarks set for developing cultural capital but others still need to be developed. The guidelines for facilitating cultural capital through sport in SAPS was proposed that could maintain benchmarks already achieved while at the same time addressing existing gaps.
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APPENDIX A: RESEARCH QUESTIONS SCHEDULE

RESEARCH QUESTIONS SCHEDULE

SPORT AS CULTURAL CAPITAL IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

By

LETSEBE HENDRIK MOHLAMONYANE

D.PHIL (Human Movement Sciences)
OPTION: Sport Management

DEPARTMENT: SPORT AND LEISURE STUDIES

FACULTY of HUMANITIES
UNIVERSITIY of PRETORIA
APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

Sport as cultural capital in the South African Police Service

The aim of the survey is to explore and analyze how sport as cultural capital is realized in the South African Police Service. Your participation is essential in gathering data relating to sport as cultural capital in the SAPS. You are kindly requested to participate in the interview as truthfully and thoroughly as possible. The information will be utilized only for record and academic purposes. Your identity is thus protected, as the intention is to conduct academic research.

I am now going to ask you about some things that you may have done during sport time in your leisure time or for entertainment.

1. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Gender: Male\ Female.
2. What is your age in complete years?
3. What is your highest level of education?
4. Referring to the place of employment at the place you are working, how long have you been working?
5. What is your rank in the SAPS?
6. Are you married\ single or divorced?

2. INVOLVEMENT IN SAPS SPORT

- Can you describe your experience of serving or participating in SAPS sports?
• Before you became involved with SAPS sports, what were your thoughts about sports participation in the SAPS?

• What did you feel like about your involvement in SAPS Sports? What has changed, if at all during your time with SAPS sports?

• Can you describe your experience of playing, coaching, managing, administering or officiating in SAPS sports?

• What if at all, is the difference in terms of your experience in SAPS sports with your sports experiences elsewhere?

• What effect do you think SAPS sports have on the employees and their next of kin who are involved in sports?

• Can you share with me your views on the support that SAPS management is offering in seeing to it that employees participate maximally in sport activities?

• Referring to the sporting code that you are currently involved in, for how long have you been involved and/or have you been in the executive committee?

• What are the most important aspects of SAPS Sport according to your views or understanding?

• What’s your perspective / view on SAPS Sport and social connections?

• Do you think that Sport is an important way of keeping in touch with colleagues, friends and neighbors?

• Do you think that Sport is important in promoting a sense of belonging and togetherness in the working environment?

• Are sporting clubs in the SAPS cliquey and not welcoming to newcomers?

• What Sporting clubs in the SAPS have cliques and are not welcoming to newcomers?
• Can Sport help to instill the sense of discipline and time-consciousness in the workplace?

• What help does Sport participation within SAPS bring in terms of service delivery?

• Which sporting code in the SAPS you can regard as the most expensive code and why?

• In the last 12(twelfth) months did you participate in any sport activity and what was the reason for your participation?

3. SELF AND OTHERS

• What do you think about the participants who attend SAPS sports events?

• What is your feeling about the participants who attend SAPS sports events?

• What do you think it means for employees of SAPS to be involved in sport?

• What does the future hold for you as a coach? What change, if at all, will this bring into your participation in SAPS sport?

• What is the behavior of SAPS members in sport towards you like?

• What is the behavior of the parents of SAPS sports participants towards you like?

• What is the behavior of the SAPS sports participants towards each other like?

• What do you think participants, officials and management in other context (e.g. school and mainstream coaching groups) see (view) and behave towards SAPS employees who take part in SAPS sports?

• What is your reason of participating in SAPS sport activities?

• Are there any benefits that you get as an SAPS employee when you take part in SAPS sport? If there are any, please give those benefits.
- Would you say that sport can be used as a vehicle of social interaction in the SAPS and in the international arena?
- Does Sport in the SAPS provide conducive and friendly environment and settings of social interaction, sharing common understandings and enhancing a sense of community?
- Does SAPS Sport help in ensuring that there are social networks, norms values and understanding that facilitate co-operation within various groups?
- What is the impact of social disadvantage on participation in sport within the SAPS like?
- Are you currently a member of any SAPS sport club?
- (If yes please answer the two questions preceded by this one, and if no, go to the last two questions after the two).
- Are you as a club member making use of sports and recreation facilities around your area of employment?
- What fees are you paying per month or per annum at this sports club?
- Are the sports and recreation facilities around your area of employment where you normally pay a certain fee belonging to SAPS?
- Is the maintenance of the sports and recreation facilities around your area of employment where you normally pay a certain fee of normal standard?

4. UNDERSTANDING AND DEALING WITH THE SPORTS PARTICIPANTS’ SPECIAL NEEDS.

- What (do you understand) are the needs of the participants in SAPS sports?
Prompt: What does low self esteem, anxiety, unfit and obesity mean to you?
- What is the response to these needs like?

Prompt: do you have particular ways of managing behavior problems, lack of confidence, withdrawal? Any practice methods?
- What does the future hold for the sports participants in the SAPS?

- Is SAPS sport accommodative when it comes to employees leaving with disabilities?
- In your opinion, is SAPS sport participation addressing the sport needs of people leaving with disabilities (employees who are keen sport persons)?

THE END
APPENDIX B: CONSENT FORM

CONSENT FORM: APPENDIX B

SPORT AS CULTURAL CAPITAL IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

By

LETSEBE HENDRIK MOHLAMONYANE

D.PHIL (Human Movement Sciences)
OPTION: Sport Management

DEPARTMENT: SPORT & LEISURE STUDIES

FACULTY of HUMANITIES
UNIVERSITIY of PRETORIA
APPENDIX B: CONSENT FORM

RESEARCHER: LH MOHLAMONYANE
0827666703@vodacom.co.za

CONSENT FORM FOR: A STUDY OF SPORT AS CULTURAL CAPITAL IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE.

PLEASE MAKE SURE THAT YOU HAVE READ THE ACCOMPANYING STUDY INFORMATION SHEET AND HAD THE OPPORTUNITY TO ASK ANY QUESTIONS THAT YOU MIGHT HAVE ABOUT THIS RESEARCH.

PLEASE READ POINTS 1 TO 3 CAREFULLY AND WRITE YOUR INITIALS IN THE SPACE NEXT TO EACH TO SHOW YOU HAVE UNDERSTOOD THEM.

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the accompanying information sheet and have had the opportunity to ask any questions about the study.

INITIALS

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason.

INITIALS

3. I understand that my words can be used at any report and that my identity will not be revealed.

INITIALS

4. I agree to take part in the study

NAME OF INTERVIEWEE (Block capitals)
SIGNATURE
DATE

NAME OF RESEARCHER (Block Capitals)
SIGNATURE
DATE
APPENDIX C: CONSENT FORM

CONSENT FORM: APPENDIX C

SPORT AS CULTURAL CAPITAL IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

By

LETSEBE HENDRIK MOHLAMONYANE

D.PHIL (Human Movement Sciences) OPTION: Sport Management

DEPARTMENT: SPORT & LEISURE STUDIES

FACULTY of HUMANITIES
UNIVERSITIY of PRETORIA

1
APPENDIX C: CONSENT FORM

I consent to take part in the study entitled: Sport as cultural capital in the South African Police Service. I acknowledge that I have read the attached information sheet that describes the aims and purpose of this study. I confirm that I have heard the study, so far as it affects me, has been fully explained to my satisfaction by the researcher, Letsike Hendrik Mohlamonane. My consent to be interviewed for the purpose of this study by LH Mohlamonane is freely given.

Although I understand that the purpose of this study is to better explore and analyse sport as cultural capital in the South African Police Service, it has been explained to me that my involvement in the study may not be of any benefit to me or my community. I understand that I can request that my name not be connected with any information that I provide and that, if I do not wish to be identified, Mr. LH Mohlamonane will create a pseudonym for me.

- I do □ do not (circle one) wish to be interviewed.

I understand that my participation is completely voluntary and that:

- I am free to withdraw the information that I provide at any time during the information gathering stage of the study;
- I do □ do not (circle one) have to give reasons for withdrawing the information that I provide; and
- I am under no obligation during the interview to divulge information or to discuss issues if I do not wish to do so.

I understand that I can request to check the transcript of the interview before it is used if I wish.

- I do □ do not (circle one) wish to check the transcript of the interview.

I understand that I will be provided with information about the results of the study if I wish.

- I do □ do not (circle one) wish to be provided with information about the results of the study.

If you answered in the affirmative to either of the above questions, please provide your contact details:

ADDRESS: ____________________________
TEL: ___________________________ FAX: __________ CELL: ___________________________
E-mail Address: ___________________________
SIGNATURE: ____________________________
APPENDIX D: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET: APPENDIX D

SPORT AS CULTURAL CAPITAL IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

By

LETSEBE HENDRIK MOHLAMONYANE

D.PHIL (Human Movement Sciences)
OPTION: Sport Management

DEPT: BIOKINETICS, SPORT & LEISURE SCIENCES

FACULTY of HUMANITIES
UNIVERSITIY of PRETORIA
APPENDIX D: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

My name is Letsebe Hendrik Mohlamonyane. I am undertaking research as part of PhD in the entire SAPS (Department of Police) at the University of Pretoria. My study looks at how sport is realized as cultural capital in the South African Police Service. I am hoping to interview employees in all the nine (09) provinces and at SAPS Head Office who are currently participating in SAPS sport. The results of my study may help improve sport for all SAPS employees in the Republic of South Africa, although I can not guarantee that you will receive any direct benefit from participating.

This study is completely confidential. So nothing that you say will be reported in a way that will identify you, unless you prefer to be identified, no personal or identifying information about you will be used. I will use an invented name to attach to your interview notes or tape-recorded information.

I will organize a time and place for the interview that is convenient for you. The meeting may take more than an hour and will be more like a conversation than an interview. I would like to record our conversation if that is alright with you. If you do not wish to be identified, your real name will not be connected with the recording. If you wish to check a copy of my transcript before I use it in my study, please indicate this on the attached consent form.

If you decide to participate in the study, you are free to change your mind and withdraw at any time before the study has been completed. Also, you do not have to answer any questions or discuss any issue that you do not wish to discuss. You are free to withdraw your interview material up until the time that I have finalized or finished all the interviews. You do not have to give me any reason if you decide to withdraw from the study or if you don’t want to answer particular questions.

Your participation or non-participation in this study will in no way affect your work standing at the Department of Police (SAPS).

If you would like to have some more information about the findings of my research, please indicate this on the consent form.

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you want any more information about the study. If you have concerns that you do not want to discuss with me directly, please contact my supervisor, Prof. A Goslin.
APPENDIX E: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

OFFICE OF THE HEAD BASIC POLICE DEVELOPMENT
DIVISION: HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT
PRIVATE BAG X 177
PRETORIA
0001

APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH WITHIN THE SAPS SPORT ENVIRONMENT AND SAPS FEDERATIONS: PHD- BRIGADIER LH MOHLAMONYANE

1. I am a current registered Phd (Human Movement Sciences) degree student at the University of Pretoria and am at the point in my study where I need to obtain permission to conduct field work. This involves semi-structured interviews within the SAPS sports environment (Provincial and National Offices and all SAPS funded sporting codes federations).

2. It is against this background that I hereby make an application to get permission to conduct the above-mentioned research in the SAPS.

3. The research is academic and deals with sport in the area of study, being SAPS.

4. Hope you will find this in order.

[Signature]

SECTION HEAD: SPORT AND RECREATION MANAGEMENT
LH MOHLAMONYANE

DATE: 20/07/2009
APPENDIX F: RESEARCH REQUEST

14/10/2009 11:32 0123343651 BASIC1_TRAINING_PROV PAGE 01/02

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A. The Divisional Commissioner
   HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

B. All Provincial Commissioners

RE: RESEARCH REQUEST: SPORT AS CULTURAL CAPITAL IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE; PHD IN SPORTS MANAGEMENT; UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA; RESEARCHER: BRIG LH MOHLAMONYANE

A-B 1. The research request of Brigadier LH Mohlamonyane, pertaining to the above mentioned topic, refers.

2. The aim of the study is to explore and analyse how sport is realized as cultural capital in the South African Police Service (see attached proposal).

3. Approval for the study was already granted by then Divisional Commissioner:

4. The population will consist of ten provincial sports offices (including Head Office) located in the nine provinces of the Republic of South Africa. The researcher will conduct semi-structured interviews within the SAPS sports environments ( Provincial and National Offices and all SAPS funded sporting codes federations).

5. An undertaking should also be obtained from the researcher prior to the commencement of the research that:
   5.1 the research will be at his exclusive cost;
   5.2 he will conduct the research without any disruption of the duties of members of the Service and where it is necessary for the research goals, research procedures or research instruments to disrupt the duties of a member, prior arrangements must be made in good time with the commander of such member;
RE: RESEARCH REQUEST: SPORT AS CULTURAL CAPITAL IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE; PHD IN SPORTS MANAGEMENT; UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA; RESEARCHER: BRIG LM MOHLAMONYANE

5.3 the researcher should bear in mind that participation in the interviews must be on a voluntary basis;

5.4 the information will at all times be treated as strictly confidential;

5.5 he will donate an annotated copy of the research work to the Service.

With kind regards,

[Signature]

MAJOR GENERAL
HEAD: STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT
M MENZIMA

Date: 20.4/10/03
APPENDIX G: RESEARCH REQUEST

14/10/2009 11:29 0123456789

The Head
STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

RESEARCH REQUEST: SPORT AS CULTURAL CAPITAL IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE: PHD IN SPORTS MANAGEMENT: UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA: RESEARCHER BRIGADIER LH MOHLAMONYANE

1. Your 3/34/2 request received from your office with same heading dated 2014/10/03 has reference.

2. Provisional permission is granted for the research to be undertaken which will then be ratified once this office receives the completed and signed Undertaking document attached herewith.

3. It is trusted that you will find this to be in order.

Regards,

MAJOR GENERAL

ACTING DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER: HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

Date: 14/10/29
APPENDIX H: LETTER OF RESEARCH APPROVAL

14/10/2009 11:25 0123343651

Our Ref: 11384884
14 May 2014

Mr LH Mohlamonyane
PO Box 1027
MONTANA
0184

Dear Mr Mohlamonyane

TITLE REGISTRATION: FIELD OF STUDY – DPHIL HUMAN MOVEMENT SCIENCE
option SPORT AND RECREATION MANAGEMENT

I have pleasure in informing you that the following has been approved:

TITLE: Sport as cultural capital in the South African Police Service

SUPERVISOR: Prof AE Goslin

PLEASE TAKE NOTE OF THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION AS WELL AS THE ATTACHED REQUIREMENTS.

1. PERIOD:
   (a) You must be enrolled as a student for at least one academic year before submission of your thesis.
   (b) Your enrolment as a student must be renewed annually before 31 March, until you have complied with all the requirements for the degree. You will only be liable to have supervision if you provide a proof of registration to your supervisor.

2. NOTIFICATION BEFORE SUBMISSION:
   You are required to notify me at least three months in advance of your intention to submit your thesis for examination.

3. APPROVAL FOR SUBMISSION:
   On completion of your thesis enough copies for each examiner as well as the prescribed examination enrolment form which includes a statement by your promoter that he/she approves the submission of your thesis, as well as a statement signed by you, must be submitted to Student Administration.

4. DATE OF EXAMINATION:
   If your doctoral examination is to take place after the submission of your thesis, please inform me of the date of the examination.

Yours sincerely

for DEAN: FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

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APPENDIX I: LETTER FROM THE EDITOR

Joan Hettema
250 Troye St
Muckleneuk
Pretoria 0002

Date: 28 October 2016

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that I have duly edited a D.Phil (Human Movement Science) – Sport as Cultural Capital in the South African Police Service - for the Department of Sport and Leisure Studies in the Faculty of Humanities at the University of Pretoria by Letsebe Hendrik Mohlamonyane.

I have a BA majoring in Latin and English from the University of Pretoria, Honours in English Language and Literature from Unisa and TroisièmeDegré in French from the Alliance Francaise.

Throughout my 37-year fulltime career and the twenty years since, I have been involved with the process of writing English, editing English or lecturing in the field of Media Studies, English for Journalism and Business English at various tertiary institutions (Tshwane University of Technology, Boston College, Damelin College, Rosebank College and College Campus) as well as editing documents and theses for students at universities throughout the country. I have also served as a judge for the annual competition of the Publications Forum of South Africa for the past eight years.

Yours sincerely,

J A Hettema

Joan Ann Hettema (née Thies) 072-126-5174/ 012-440-4753 jhettema@absamail.co.za