



INVESTIGATING CAREER DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES OF CONTRACTED FREE STATE CHEETAH RUGBY PLAYERS

by

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A field study

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DECLARATION

“I declare that the Field Study hereby submitted for the master’s degree in Business Administration at the UFS Business School, University of the Free State, is my own independent work and that I have not previously submitted this work, either as a whole or in part, for a qualification at another university or at another faculty at this university.

I also hereby cede copyright of this work to the University of the Free State.”

Nico Maritz

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ABSTRACT

An inevitable certainty the professional rugby player has to face is the day he will stop playing rugby, due either to injury, contract termination or retirement. Very little research has been done on the career development of professional rugby players, but the available studies highlight the problem that they play professional rugby at the expense of pursuing a career, a trade or further education.

The objectives of this study were to evaluate the level of career awareness of contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players in the development of their career after rugby, to analyse the post-rugby career planning of contracted Free State Cheetah players and to analyse career transition needs of contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players.

This quantitative investigation used a self-administered questionnaire in the form of an adapted Australian Athletes Career Transition Inventory. A comprehensive sample was used and the questionnaires were distributed, in the presence of the researcher, to the entire target population of contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players. At the time of the study, 81 rugby players were present and included senior and junior contracted players, representative of Springbok, Super 15, Currie Cup, Vodacom Cup, u/21 and u/19 players.

The key findings of the results can be summarised as follows:

The majority of senior contracted players (60.6%) indicated that their highest level of education was Grade 12, while the majority of u/21 (81.5%) and u/19 (60%) contracted players indicated that they were busy with a degree. Most of the players (72.7% seniors, 74.1% u/21 and 85.7% u/19) have not completed other education or training. Similarly, the majority of the respondents (72.7% seniors, 77.8% u/21 and 100% u/19) indicated that they did not have their own business or owned shares in a company. Almost all the players (81.8% seniors, 92.6% u/21 and 95.2% u/19) indicated that they did not have another occupation besides rugby.

Overall, the players demonstrated high levels of athletic identity, career awareness and post-rugby career planning, and in terms of career transition needs the players believed that obtaining actual work experience would be the most helpful programme.

The findings with regard to the junior players' level of education, high levels of career awareness and high levels of post-rugby career planning are very positive and might point to a shift from young uneducated individuals, as stated by Van Reenen (2006:IV), to educated, professional rugby players. However, even though the senior contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players reported high levels of career awareness in the development of their career after rugby, they still played professional rugby at the expense of pursuing a career, a trade or further education.

Keywords: career development, career awareness, post-rugby career planning, career transition, athletic identity.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction

The game of rugby has changed its face from amateur, where players did not receive any incentives, to full-blown professional rugby (Grundling, 2008:4).

For the professional rugby player there is an additional certainty of life to add to the well-worn cliché of there being death and taxes: the day they will stop participating at the highest level of their art (Du Plessis, 2012:ix).

The question that arises from this life certainty is what they will do when they cross the line into a completely new life and career. This question was what initiated this field study and lead to the literature review on career development in Chapter 2. In chapter 1, some background will be given on the professionalisation of South African Rugby. The problem statement and objectives of the study will be discussed, and an overview of the rest of the dissertation will be outlined. The research methodology and a preliminary literature review is also included in chapter 1.

1.2 Background

1.2.1 Professionalisation of South African Rugby

Rugby originated in England. It is played worldwide, but predominantly in South Africa, New Zealand and Australia (McKenna & Thomas, 2006:20).

In the book, *The Changing Face of Rugby*, Grundling (2008:3) states that, although the true advent of professionalism of South African rugby was in 1995, the South African sporting isolation in the 1980s had put our country well on its way to professionalism. The absence of international tours during that time made the Currie Cup the pinnacle of what could be achieved nationally. Therefore, star players were lured across provincial borders by means of financial incentives in order to win the Currie Cup.

According to Grundling (2008:3), News Corp acquired sole television rights in 1995 for the Southern Hemisphere competition. Greater pressure was exerted on players and coaches to perform at higher levels, as sponsors and stakeholders that appeared on the scene after the commercialisation of rugby were concerned with the need to present rugby as a television spectacle that would attract viewers.

A month after the World Cup in 1995, all Springbok players were given contracts and the International Rugby Board voted in favour of professionalism (Van Reenen, 2012:17).

The Free State Rugby Union was established in 1895 (SARU; 2011: para 1). The professionalisation of rugby in 1995 begged the need for restructuring within the Free State Rugby Union to enable them to govern Free State rugby professionally. Therefore, the Free State Cheetahs Pty (Ltd) was formed during the period of 1998/9. The Free State Rugby Union owns 75.5% shares of the Free State Cheetahs Pty (Ltd) and Supersport owns the other 24.5%. The amateur part of Free State rugby (clubs, schools and women) is administered by the Union, while the professional, business and commercial sides of Free State rugby are run by the company. Therefore, the contracting of all Free State Cheetah rugby players (seniors and juniors) is done by the Free State Cheetahs Pty (Ltd) (Verster, 2014: personal interview).

1.2.2 Seventeen years after professionalisation: Quo vadis?

Apart from the Super 15, Currie Cup, Vodacom Cup, u/21 and u/19 competitions, the Varsity Cup competition was initiated as the latest South African rugby competition. In 2008, First National Bank undertook the sponsorship of the Varsity Cup with the main objective of expanding the South African rugby talent pool. University rugby players are given the opportunity to showcase their talent nationally and be scouted by the provincial rugby unions (FNB, 2013: online).

According to Van Reenen (2006:7), rugby players already sign contracts with rugby unions at the age of 18–20. They play professional rugby at the expense of pursuing a career, a trade or further education. With no career to fall back on and no business skills, the professional rugby player will have to compete with the other 20 million South Africans for a job.

In a survey done by The South African Players' Association (2012:11-12) on 350 of their members, the professional rugby players revealed that 250 out of 350 (71%) participating players were currently not studying or doing any other course. Out of the 350 participants, 57% did not give up their studies because of rugby. Less than 14% have completed a degree, diploma or certificate. More than 85% are not currently involved in any business venture in which they could continue after they stop playing rugby. Even though 64.4% save additional money for retirement, less than 43% have a financial advisor. This survey does not reveal how many of the participating players were representative of senior or junior contracted players.

The Varsity Cup competition implements rules to ensure that the majority of Varsity Cup players are bona fide students at the participating universities (FNB, 2013: online). No research has been done yet on the influence of the Varsity Cup on the educational levels of professional rugby players.

1.3 Problem statement

The problem is that professional rugby players are not aware of the need for post-rugby career development practices. Therefore, they will not have any other skills or occupation to fall back on to sustain them financially when their professional rugby careers end, whether through injury, retirement or contract termination.

Professional rugby players focus all their time and energy on achieving their short-term rugby success, neglecting their education, work and career planning beyond the rugby realm (Hawkins & Blann, 1996:1). According to Grundling (2008:18), the demands of rugby after professionalisation have intensified and in order to play competitive rugby one has to regard it as a fulltime occupation. Therefore, the demands of the game are such that the development of life and occupational skills are underdeveloped or completely absent (Grundling, 2008:18). The professional rugby player has a limited career span with retirement from rugby at approximately 35 years of age in contrast to the normal retirement age of 65 (Smedley, 2008:33).

Very little research has been done on the career development of professional rugby players and studies are limited to case studies, master's and doctoral studies. The only study conducted in South Africa on the career development of professional rugby

players was done by Van Reenen in 2006. He conducted his study on 41 Western Province players representative of Springbok, Super Rugby, Currie Cup and Vodacom Cup players. In the results of his study, it was highlighted that a young, individual without tertiary education finds himself in the predicament of having exceptional talent and a high level of self-image, but has a distorted view of their capabilities as a successful businessman after his professional rugby career is over. According to Van Reenen (2006:IV-V), professional rugby players are definitely not equipped to face the challenges of the business world without being educated in the rigours of business, because their skills are severely limited in the world outside rugby. Training and education is an essential component for the career planning and development of professional rugby players while they are still an employee of a rugby union. Rugby players face huge financial risk when they find themselves near the end of their rugby careers. The probability is extremely high that they will not be able to earn a decent income, as they are not skilled and prepared for a post-rugby career.

Van Reenen (2006:IV-V) also points out the need of rugby unions to take responsibility and understand the importance of creating structure to support and help develop a second career for professional rugby players.

Price (2007:iv-v) conducted a study on 25 elite young rugby players from New Zealand and New South Wales on the preparation for a future beyond rugby. He found the following:

- identities heavily invested in rugby; unrealistic expectations of their future rugby life cycle;
- the structure of work and support from their clubs and academies were key inhibitors to players' career development; and
- similar to Van Reenen's (2006:IV-V) findings, it was revealed that involvement in elite rugby does not facilitate the accomplishment of developmental tasks that athletes require later in life.

Price (2007:iv-v) also points to the need for a focus in the support and resources for young elite rugby players in their career development.

Further research done by Van Reenen (2012: para 17) reveals that less than 5% of professional rugby players in South Africa will be able to sustain a living for a period

of three years or longer on what they earn in sport. This means that only 30 out of 600 contracted players in South Africa will be able to sustain a living after retirement. They are the top 30 players contracted by the South African Rugby Union.

Sport24 published the 2013 Springbok contracted group in April 2013. In this group, only three players are from the Free State Cheetahs (*Sport24*, 2013: para10). If one considers Van Reenen's statement, one concludes that only three of the Free State Cheetahs' contracted players will be able to sustain a living for three years or longer on what they earn in rugby. The questions that arise from this finding are:

- What about the other players contracted by the Free State Cheetahs Pty (Ltd)?
- How will they sustain themselves after rugby?

Therefore, contracted Free State rugby players must plan for a career after rugby to ensure a sustainable financial future when their rugby career ends.

1.4 Objectives

The primary objective of this study was to evaluate the level of career awareness of contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players in the development of their career after rugby.

The secondary objectives were:

- To explain career development theories
- To discuss career development of professional athletes
- To analyse the post-rugby career planning of contracted Free State Cheetah players
- To analyse career transition needs of contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players.

1.5 Preliminary literature review

The literature review revealed different concepts of a career, with career management, career planning and career development being the most prominent concepts.

According to Greenhaus, Callanan and Godshalk (2010:12), the concept of career management can be defined as “a process by which individuals develop, implement, and monitor career goals and strategies”.

Career planning stems from career management and refers to the personal control that an individual exerts over his career by engaging in informed choices regarding his occupation, organisation, job assignment and self-development. As is the case with career management, career planning is done by conducting self-assessment, formulating goals and developing plans to reach those goals. It is important to note that the responsibility of career planning and career management rests primarily with the individual (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:63).

Another concept that stems from career management is career development. The interplay between these two concepts can be explained in the following way: every individual needs to understand the developmental tasks they face as they progress through their careers before they can formulate goals and strategies that will be most suitable for that specific time in their career and life (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2010:12).

Career development can therefore be seen as “an ongoing process by which individuals progress through a series of stages, each of which is characterised by a relatively unique set of issues, themes, and tasks” Greenhaus *et al.* (2010:13).

From the preliminary literature review, it was evident there is a great amount of interplay between career management, career planning and career development.

Over the years, career development theorists have developed and provided conceptual frameworks within which career problems experienced by individuals could be viewed and explained (Sharf, 2010:4). Chapter 2 provides a detailed discussion of the different career development theories. However, a theory that needs mentioning now is the theory of Super, which has received much attention worldwide. Super (1992:42) proposed three major concepts that are interrelated in a person’s lifespan, namely i) self-concept, ii) life stages and iii) life roles. Super (1990, cited in Leung, 2008:120) viewed career development as the basic process of developing and implementing one’s self-concept.

In more recent years different athletic career development and career transition theoretical frameworks have also been developed and the evolution of studies on career development and transitions of athletes has undergone major shifts (Stambulova, Alfermann, Statler & Cote, 2009:395-397). These shifts, along with the different career development and career transition theoretical frameworks, will be discussed in Chapter 2.

1.6 Research methodology

1.6.1 Research design

This study is based on quantitative research in the form of a self-administered questionnaire in order to obtain quantitative data regarding the career awareness of contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players, their post-rugby career planning and their career transition needs.

The structure of this study is descriptive by nature, as the goal is to offer the researcher a description of post-rugby career planning characteristic of contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players, as well as their career awareness and their career transition needs.

The type of investigation used in this study was correlational, as the researcher aims to find correlations between the highest level of participation in rugby and the highest level of education, the average amount of time spent on rugby activities, and whether players have another occupation/business or not.

The study has a cross-sectional time horizon as the data were collected only once from the rugby players.

1.6.2 Sampling strategy

The target population for this study was all Free State Cheetah rugby players contracted by the Free State Cheetahs Pty (Ltd) at the time of the study.

Although a sample of a study is only a subset of the population, this study focused on all current Free State Cheetah rugby players contracted by the Free State Cheetahs Company. This quantitative investigation used a comprehensive sample and the

questionnaires were distributed to the entire target population of contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players, 85 rugby players at the time of the study. This included all senior and junior contracted players, representative of Springbok, Super 15 (Toyota Cheetahs), Currie Cup (Toyota Free State Cheetahs), Vodacom Cup, u/21 and u/19 players.

Therefore, the sample size was the same as the target population and the sample was aimed to represent all levels of participation within the Free State Cheetahs Company. Not all respondents were present on the data collection day and therefore the sample size was influenced.

As all contracted Free State rugby players were selected as subjects, there is no probability that they will not form part of the sample and therefore the study's sampling design fitted into the category of nonprobability comprehensive sampling.

1.6.3 Data collection method

A personally self-administered questionnaire was used to obtain quantitative data from contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players. The questionnaire was pretested to ensure that the questions were understood and that there were no problems with the wording and measurement.

An adapted Australian Athletes Career Transition Inventory was used. This questionnaire was designed to assess Australian athletes' career development and transition. This questionnaire was found to be content valid after examination by experts and results have shown that it does indeed test the areas of concern. Therefore, the questionnaire is appropriate for use in research in the area and is most relevant to professional athletes (Hawkins & Blann, 1996:4, 27, 30).

Interval scales in the form of Likert-type scales were used to measure variables.

A specific time was scheduled for the questionnaires to be completed by the respondents.

1.6.4 Ethical considerations

The information provided by the respondents was treated as confidential and the questionnaires distributed were anonymous.

The purpose of the research was explained to the respondents so that they were fully aware of the nature, process and benefits of the study. Participation in the study was voluntary.

Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the CEO of the Free State Cheetahs Pty (Ltd) in the form of a letter of consent.

An informed consent form was obtained from the respondents, giving the researcher permission to analyse and use the data gathered from the questionnaires.

When reporting, the researcher was careful not to give a misrepresentation or distortion of the data.

1.7 Overview of the dissertation

Chapter 2 contains the literature review, which aims to shed light on the interplay between three career concepts, namely career management, career planning and career development. The different career development theories and the more recently developed athletic career models as well as their applicability to rugby players' career development are discussed.

Chapter 3 focuses on the research methodology of the study, which includes the research design, sampling strategy, data collection methods and ethical considerations.

In Chapter 4 the results and findings from the study will be illustrated under the different categories of the questionnaire relating to the objectives of the study.

The findings are discussed in Chapter 5, with specific attention to how they relate to the literature. Recommendations are made for further studies, as well as what the rugby players need investigate to assist them in making a successful transition to a new career.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

A professional rugby player's career lifespan is one of 'planned obsolescence' as his career will become obsolete at a relatively early age of his life, through injury, non-renewal of his contract or the fact that age will ultimately dictate the end of his professional rugby career. This 'planned obsolescence', which is inevitable for the professional rugby player, actually provides them with the opportunity to plan for this predictable event (Van Reenen, 2006:23).

According to Super's (1992:43) traditional life career development stages model, for example the life career rainbow, his roles from child and student are transformed into that of a worker (this is also the professional rugby player) and homemaker. Role shift at this stage of the individual's lifespan causes substantial changes; the transition from a professional rugby player to a business work life is a reality, unlike the normal work situation where a career can be planned, learned and developed over a lifelong period (Van Reenen, 2006:23).

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the level of awareness of professional rugby players in the development of their careers after rugby. If one wants to fulfil and understand this purpose, it is essential to understand the different aspects and theories of a career and career development. This literature review aims to shed light on the interplay between three career concepts, namely career management, career planning and career development. The different career development theories are discussed, as well as the more recently developed athletic career models and their applicability to rugby players' career development.

2.2 Career concepts

The literature review revealed different concepts of a career. In order to understand the relationship between these concepts, the researcher combined them in a diagram.

The diagram is adapted from Schreuder and Coetzee's (2011:71) illustration of the relationship between key career concepts of an objective career.

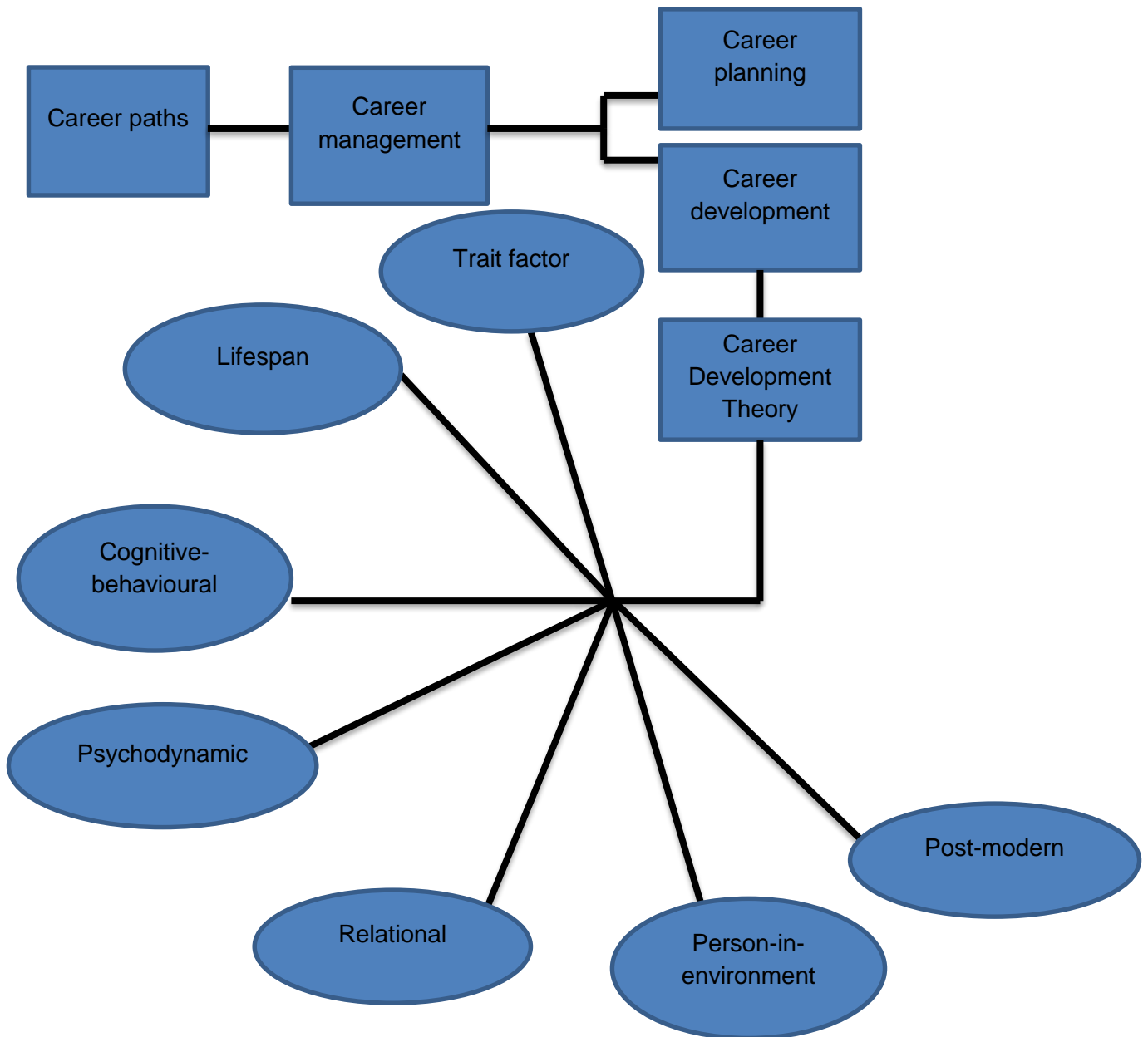


Figure 2.1: Interrelationship between key career concepts (Source: Adapted from Schreuder and Coetzee, 2011:71)

The different concepts illustrated above will now be discussed.

2.2.1 What is a career?

A career can be viewed in different ways or from different perspectives. The one approach views a career as a structural property of an occupation, for example, the sequential progress from law student to judge (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2010:9-10).

A career can also be viewed from an organisational perspective, for example, the mobility path in marketing from sales representative to marketing manager. The more contemporary view of a career is from an individual perspective and not from an occupational or organisational perspective. As almost all individuals accumulate a unique series of jobs, positions and experiences, the individual perspective recognises that each person in effect pursues a unique career (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2010:9-10).

With the above-mentioned in mind, a number of different definitions of a career have been formulated over the years, with each reflecting a certain theme personified in the meaning of career. Therefore, the definition of a career is “the pattern of work-related experiences that span the course of a person’s life” (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2010:7-8). This is in accordance with Schreuder and Coetzee’s (2011:60) definition of a career as “an evolving sequence of employment-related experiences over time”. Due to the rapid changes in organisations, careers should rather be viewed in terms of lifelong learning than in terms of upward movement.

According to Schreuder and Coetzee (2011:61), an individual has a subjective and objective career. The subjective career refers to the sense of where one is going in one’s work life, while the objective career denotes the order of employment-related experiences during an individual’s life. Although the focus of this study is more on the objective career, both careers assume that individuals have some degree of control over the success of their careers.

2.2.2 Career Management

According to Greenhaus *et al.* (2010:12), the concept of career management can be defined as “a process by which individuals develop, implement, and monitor career goals and strategies”. In short, career management is an ongoing process in which an individual:

- i) obtains self-knowledge by gathering information about himself and the work environment;
- ii) develops an accurate picture of employment opportunities by exploring his talents, interests, values and preferred lifestyle as well as different occupations, jobs and organisations;
- iii) develops career goals;
- iv) develops and implements a strategy to reach these goals; and
- v) obtains feedback on the relevance of the goals and how effective the implemented strategy was.

Once the individual has formulated goals and developed plans for reaching those goals, he has to require certain skills, competencies and values to be able to implement the developed plans to reach his goals with appropriate career management practices (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:63).

The responsibility for career management rests squarely on the shoulders of the individual and not the organisation. This is because more and more organisations are relinquishing an activist role in their employees' careers (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2010:12).

A plan-and-implement career model was developed by Greenhaus *et al.* (2010:46) in the form of the career management model. According to this model, career management constitutes eight steps:

- i) career exploration,
- ii) awareness of self and the environment,
- iii) goal setting,
- iv) strategy development,
- v) strategy implementation,
- vi) progress towards goal,
- vii) feedback, and
- viii) career appraisal.

Career exploration is the gathering of information pertaining to oneself and the environment. This leads to greater awareness of oneself and the environment, which in turn promotes goal setting and pursuing these goals. The establishment of

operational goals facilitates the development and implementation of a plan of activities designed to reach the desired career goals. This implementation may produce progress towards the operational career goals. Feedback received from the implementation of the strategy will help the individual to appraise his career. From the career appraisal, new information comes to light, which forms another vehicle for career exploration and thus the career management cycle continues as an ongoing process.

2.2.3 Career planning

Career planning refers to the personal control that an individual exerts over his career by engaging in informed choices regarding his occupation, organisation, job assignment and self-development. This is done by conducting self-assessment, formulating goals and developing plans for reaching those goals. It is important to note that as is the case with career management, the responsibility of career planning rests primarily with the individual (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:63).

The relationship between career management and planning can be seen in the processes of becoming aware of oneself through self-assessment and goal setting. Career planning stems from career management and therefore both these concepts depend on each other.

2.2.4 Career development

Another concept that stems from career management is career development. The interplay between these two concepts can be explained in the following way: every individual needs to understand the developmental tasks they face as they progress through their careers before they can formulate goals and strategies that will be most suitable for that specific time in their career and life (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2010:12).

Career development in its traditional view is seen as individuals going through relatively predictable phases or stages in their careers. Each career stage can be characterised by a distinctive set of themes or tasks that has to be met. (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2010:12-13). With the above-mentioned in mind, career development is defined by Greenhaus *et al.* (2010:13) as “an ongoing process by which individuals progress through a series of stages, each of which is characterised by a relatively unique set of

issues, themes, and tasks". In addition to this, Alfermann and Stambulova (2007, cited in Stambulova *et al.* 2009:398) define career development as proceeding through different career stages and transitions.

Further to this Strauser, Lustig and Ciftci (2008:21-35) have identified four phases of career development:

- i) Developing appropriate work-related behaviours – this is known as a work personality. This personality allows individuals to meet their work environment's interpersonal demands. Examples of this are social interaction and timeliness.
- ii) Developing a vocational identity – this is where individuals become aware of their own career skills, interests, goals and talents.
- iii) Engaging in effective career decision-making – this is where individuals identify appropriate work environments, which allow them to express their vocational identity.
- iv) Developing their ability to effectively find a job – this development helps to become employed and sustain the individual's employability.

With the above-mentioned phases in mind, it is clear that there is a great amount of interplay between career management, career planning and career development. For the purpose of this study, the focus of the literature review will henceforth be on career development theories, but because of the interrelationship between career planning, management and development, certain aspects of career planning and management will also be embedded in the career development theory.

2.2.5 Career development theory

During a person's lifetime, career problems will emerge and therefore career-development theorists have developed and provided conceptual frameworks within which these problems can be viewed. Career development theory consequently attempts to explain behaviour that occurs over many years. Reactions to situations, experiences and people make up this behaviour (Sharf, 2010:4).

An individual's career behaviour can be examined by career counsellors within the framework of career development theories (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:99). The

theories do not all address the same topics. In order to have a good understanding of career development, one has to take a closer look at all the different theories.

According to Schreuder and Coetzee (2011:99), the different theories can be classified into seven categories, with each category containing one or more theories. Sharf (2010:19) groups the different theories into four parts. Below is a representation of Schreuder and Coetzee's (2011:99) classification:

Table 2.1: Classification of career development theories (Adapted from Schreuder and Coetzee, 2011:99)

Career Theories	Examples
Psychodynamic approaches	Bordin's theory of personality development Tiedeman, O'Hara and Miller-Tiedeman's life career decision-making theory
Cognitive-behavioural theories and approaches	Krumboltz's career decision-making theory Mitchel, Levin and Krumboltz's happenstance approach theory Hackett and Betz's theory of self-efficacy
Trait-and-factor/person-environment-fit theories	Parson's trait-and-factor theory Holland's theory of personality and occupational types Dawis and Lofquist's theory of person-environment correspondence Jung's theory of personality types
Life-span development theories	Super's career development theory
Relational approaches to career development	Roe's theory of parent-child relations
Person-in-environment perspectives	Cook, Heppner and O'Brien's race/gender ecological theory Brown's theory of values
Post-modern perspectives	Savickas's career construction theory Existential career counselling based on Frankl's Logotherapy

2.2.5.1 Psychodynamic approaches

Psychodynamic approaches in psychology views behaviour in terms of past childhood experiences and the influence of unconscious processes. These approaches in career development theory focus on the influence of ego-identity, life scripts and life themes on the career development process. Most of these theories are based on the work of Alfred Adler and Eric Erikson (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:125). Erikson (1963, cited in Greenhaus et al., 2010:29) proposes eight life stages of psychological development through which people progress in order to develop ego-identity.

Miller-Tiedeman (1979:253) hypothesises that an increase in ego development would increase the use of more thoughtful decision-making strategies, which is essential for career development. Therefore, career choice and development are seen as decision-making involving the development of ego-identity over the lifespan (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:125). Miller-Tiedeman and Tiedeman (1990, cited in Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:125) add to the theory two types of realities an individual becomes aware of in decision making, namely personal reality (career directions that individuals feel are right for them) and common reality (what society regards as right for the individual). This theory provides a model for describing inner experience in decision-making.

Another theory that applies psychodynamic theory to career choice is Bordin's theory of personality development, but a discussion of this falls beyond this study.

2.2.5.2 Cognitive-behavioural theories and approaches

While psychodynamic approaches focus on the influence of ego-identity, life scripts and life themes, cognitive-behavioural approaches have the distinct characteristic of viewing thoughts and cognitions (which include memories, beliefs, preferences and self-perceptions) as part of the career decision-making and development process (Sharf, 2010:394).

Many of the cognitive-behavioural theories are anchored in Bandura's social cognitive theory. He postulates that individuals' personalities grow from their learning experiences more than from their genetic processes. He proposes a triadic reciprocal interaction system where the environment, personal factors such as memory, beliefs,

preferences, self-perception and actual behaviour interact and affect one another (Sharf, 2010:369).

Krumboltz has developed a theory of how individuals make career decisions. This theory emphasises the importance of behaviour (actions) and cognitions (thinking) (Sharf, 2010:369). It considers the following four factors that influence individuals' career decision making:

- i) genetic endowment,
- ii) environmental conditions,
- iii) learning experiences and
- iv) task approach skills (Krumboltz, 1979, cited in Datti, 2009:59).

In addition to this, Mitchell, Levin and Krumboltz (1999, cited in Sharf, 2010:383) have developed the planned happenstance approach theory where individuals need to capitalise on the chance events that occur in their lives. This theory replaces indecision with open-mindedness in that the difficulty of making a career choice becomes an opportunity to look at different paths and chances.

Another theory anchored in Bandura's social cognitive theory is the social cognitive career theory developed by Brown, Hackett and Lent (2000 and 2002, cited in Sharf, 2010:394). It started as the career self-efficacy theory of Hackett and Betz (1981, cited in Sharf, 2010:394) that was expanded by Brown, Hackett and Lent into a theory of career and academic interests, choice and performance. The cognitive concepts of self-efficacy (individuals' views of their ability to take action to get the results they want), outcome expectation and goal selection serve as core variables in social cognitive career theory (Leung, 2008:126).

2.2.5.3 Trait-and-type (factor)/ person-environment-fit theories

These theories were the first development theories to be described (Sharf, 2010:25). It is important to note that of this type of theories, trait-and-factor theories were the first to be developed. They started out with Parson's trait-and-factor theory in 1909. These theories relied heavily on the measurement of individuals' traits – the unique set of characteristics belonging to a person that can be measured through testing. These traits were then matched to the requirements of the environment (Wille, Beyers, De

Fruyt, 2012:307). A shift came in career counselling from a trait-oriented perspective to a person-environment-fit perspective

Although the trait-and-type and person-environment-fit theories share the goal of accurately measuring the characteristics of individuals in order to match them with the characteristics of a work environment, the latter moves beyond the assumption of congruence to include dynamic reciprocity (Rounds & Tracey, 1990, cited in Wille *et al.*, 2012:307). Congruence refers to the idea that the greater the match between personal characteristics and job requirements, the greater the likelihood of success (Leung, 2008:118). Dynamic reciprocity, on the other hand, indicates an ongoing process of adjustment as environments are influenced by individuals and vice versa.

Therefore, person-environment-fit theories have the perspective that people and environments change repetitively in ongoing adjustment (Wille *et al.*, 2012:207). Examples of trait-and-type and person-environment-fit theories are (Sharf, 2010:25):

- i) Dawis and Lofquist's theory of person-environment correspondence
- ii) Holland's theory of personality and occupational types
- iii) Jung's theory of personality types
- iv) Parson's trait-and-factor theory

2.2.5.4 Life-span development theories

In contrast to the trait-and-type theories that deal with career issues at one point in time, life-span theories concern the changing ways that an individual deals with career issues over his entire lifespan (Sharf, 2010:185). They take the view that career development involves a continuous process that carries on through life. Although theorists such as Gottfredson, Vondracek, Atkison, Morton, Sue, Hopson and Adams have contributed to the life-span developmental approach (Sharf, 2010:185), the theory most commonly associated with this approach is the theory of Super (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:114).

Super developed his views on career development over a period of forty years of research (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:114) and his theory has received much attention worldwide (Leung, 2008:120). Three major, interrelated propositions feature in Super's work, namely:

- i) self-concept
- ii) life stages
- iii) life roles.

Super regards career development as the basic process of developing and implementing one's self-concept (Leung, 2008:20).

Self-concept is seen as how the individual sees himself in his everyday life and situations around his life. This was a major focus of Super's theory because it is in self that the processing of the lifespan, life space information occurs (Super 1990, cited in Van Reenen, 2006:25). Life and work satisfaction is a continual process of implementing the evolving self-concept through work and other life roles. It is therefore not a static entity; it would continue to evolve as the person encounters new experiences and progresses through the developmental stages (Leung, 2008:121).

These developmental life stages are the second proposition used by Super to formulate his theory of career development and is seen as a process over five life stages which stretches from childhood to old age. According to Super (1992:42), the five life stages are as follow:

(i) Growth (birth to age ±12–14)

The first stage, childhood is a stage of physical, psychological and social growth. Children not only grow in stature and strength, but also in emotional stability and maturity, cognitive capacity as well as in social skills and adjustment (Super & Bohn, 1973:135). Vocations and occupations in most of childhood are not seen as a central or even mindful issue. Curiosity, on the other hand, is now generally seen as an instinct, proved by studies of infants and animals. This instinct leads children to explore everything that they have access to, physically and psychologically. When children explore they develop concepts of themselves through encounters with their environments, and more specifically through contacts with key adult figures who may become their role models (Super, 1992:42). If these encounters are pleasant experiences, it will lead to the development of their interest, which, together with the development of self-esteem, autonomy and outlook provides the capacity for forward planners. If the mentioned characteristics do not develop, the result may be that children have feelings of alienation, or of being helpless in a world dominated by other

people. These feelings create the possibility that the individual may become a conformist, a drifter or a flounderer. Fantasy helps in the development of interest, but as experiences and feedback makes children more aware of their capacities, those interests become more realistic (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:115).

(ii) Exploration (Adolescence ±14–25)

Adolescence is the exploratory stage, more than any other of the life stages is. In this stage the perceived adult tries himself out more self-consciously and realistically than ever before in a number of adult roles (Super, Bohn, 1973:137). This trial is done through social exploration, which is more spontaneous and parent or peer stimulated. Occupational career exploration also sometimes rides on social exploration. Adolescents is very open and tentative at first when it comes to career exploration, but may be tried out in the form of a part time or holiday job (Super, 1992:42).

Tentative career exploration is usually followed by exploration of a chosen field in greater depth. In some instances, the exploration of a chosen field is so focused that it precludes consideration of alternatives. Adolescents also occasionally pursue a particular field because of the inspiration or expectation of parents or other peers. Such early foreclosure may result in career crises at a later stage when the individuals cannot cope with sudden change, because they are used to seeing a career as 'an occupation' rather than different roles or directions (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:115).

(iii) Establishment (Early adulthood ±25–45)

The exploration trial that are characterised in adolescence continues until the middle twenties, but the trial process becomes less tentative (Super & Bohn, 1973:139). The establishment stage, however, involves stabilisation in the thirties and early forties.

The exploration trials include a succession of job changes after which a final choice is made or before it is clear that the career will consist of changes. When the individual is in the stabilisation phase of establishment, security and advancement becomes one of the individual's main priorities. If the stabilisation is unsuccessful for individuals, they either stagnate or change.

Certain individuals thrive on change, as they do not stabilize and their careers may consist of a series of exploration trials. Super, however, opposes that most individuals, those who stabilise and those who thrive on change see their years of early adulthood as the best years of their lives (Schreuder & Coetzee:115).

(iv) Maintenance (Middle adulthood, Age ±45–65)

The concept of establishment logically leads to that of maintenance. This concept therefore implies that, what has become will remain (Super & Bohn, 1973:139). Hence, at this stage it is common that individuals continue along the establishment lines of his/her work. Those individuals that have not achieved what they wanted to may decline and fall into the status quo and therefore avoid actively acquiring new skills and knowledge in their line of work. Other individuals may focus on reaching further goals by means of continuous learning and development, and yet others may become innovators of change to stay ahead of younger individuals that could become their competitors, because of the rapid changes in the economic force (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:115).

(v) Decline/Disengagement (Old age from ±65)

In the decline stage, people enter old age and a decline of physical and mental capacities normally is a characteristic in this stage. The decline of capacities manifests itself slowly at first, but increases as time goes on. An example of the decline or deceleration of abilities is a tennis player who even in their thirties has to learn rather to rely more on their knowledge of the game and on skill than on strength and speed (Super & Bohn, 1973:140). When individuals sense a decline in their physical and mental abilities, they might selectively disengage from their work roles, but this disengagement varies from person to person. Depending on one's occupation and circumstances, some individuals can choose when they can disengage by retiring and others are forced to retire and thus disengage. It depends on the person and the situation, but retirement may result in a sense of loss or it might be stimulating as possible new choices can be made (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:116).

Even though Super differentiates between these life stages, he underlines the point that individuals do not develop uniformly. The life stages that he identified usually occur at the estimated age, but are not distinct and invariable. The ages at which the

stages begin and end are flexible and transitions to the next stage may include characteristics of another stage (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:116).

The term 'career maturity' refers to the degree that the individual was able to fulfil the vocational developmental tasks in each developmental stage (Leung, 2008:121). Although these stages are likely to progress as maxi-cycles in a person's lifespan, Super (1992:43) also hypothesises that an individual would go through a mini-cycle consisting of these stages when he has to make career transitions.

Super's view of career development as a series of life stages over the total life-span is depicted in the life-career rainbow (Figure 2.2), which includes the third proposition of his career development theory, namely the six life roles of individuals in their life space (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:16).

At any moment in time, an individual is assuming a combination of roles, such as child, student, leisurite, citizen, worker and homemaker. As one progresses through the developmental stages, the salience (prominence) of the roles changes. However, at every moment two or three roles might take a more central place (Leung, 2008:121).

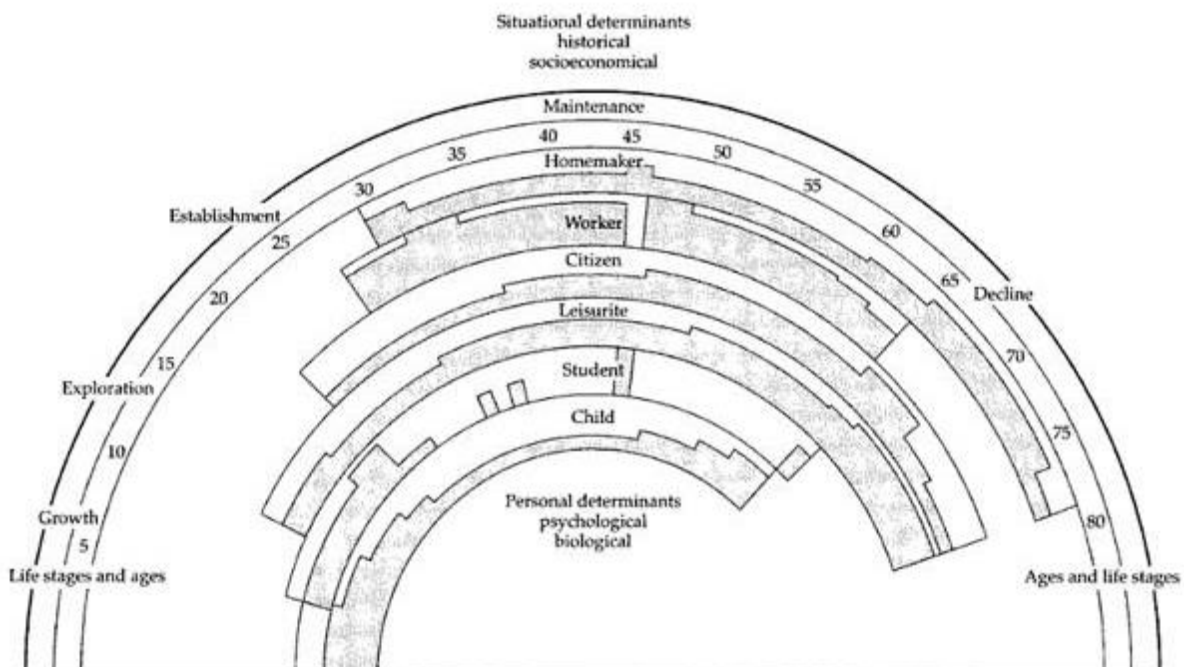


Figure 2.2: The Life-Career Rainbow: Nine life rolls in schematic life space (Super, 2001, cited in Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:116)

2.2.5.5 Relational approaches

Theories focusing on relational impact attend to the involvement of parents and others on the occupational choices of individuals. In order to understand the career choice process, these theorists consider the importance of relationships of many types. In Roe's theory personality development, occupational selection is predicted based on the psychological needs that develop from interaction between children and their parents. This theory aims to show that individuals in a certain occupation share the same background in terms of the way they were raised.

The attachment theory focuses on the role that attachments, especially parental attachment, play in shaping an individual's life. Phillip's developmental-relational model (cited in Sharf, 2010:351) extends the focus from the effect of relationship with parents on occupational choice to focus more broadly and include the effect of relationships with friends, siblings and teachers on occupational choice. The latter two are relatively new. Roe's theory and the attachment theory try to predict behaviour over a long period and longitudinal studies of this type are rare (Sharf, 2010:351).

2.2.5.6 Person-in environment perspective

While relational theories focus on the impact of parental involvement in occupational choice, these theories study the relationship between the person and the environment. From this perspective, the career development of an individual is thought to be influenced by several environmental systems such as family, church, neighbourhood, school, friends, community, work place, agencies, culture and customs of the larger environment. The developing person is seen as being at the centre of several environmental systems that interact with one another (Zunker, 2012:57).

The ecological model of Cook, Heppner and O'Brien (2005, cited in Schreuder & Coetzee, 2001:132) suggest that human behaviour is the result from the interaction between the person and the environment. On the other hand, Brown focusses on the importance of values in career decision-making (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:132).

2.2.5.7 Post-modern perspective

Post-modern theorists believe that individuals create their own reality or truth and that there is no fixed truth. Different individuals can have their own construct of what is real

to them. Examples of these perspectives are Savickas's career construction theory and Frankl's theory of existential guidance (Sharf, 2010:315).

2.3 Career development of professional athletes

In the literature review done on the career development of professional athletes, a topic that frequently emerged was career transitions. According to Alfermann and Stambulova (2007, cited in Stambulova *et al.*, 2009:398), career development means proceeding through different career stages and transitions as mentioned earlier. "Transitions are defined as turning phases in career development that manifest themselves by sets of demands athletes have to meet in order to continue successfully in sport and/or other spheres of life." (Alfermann & Stambulova, 2007, cited in Stambulova, 2010:96). Transitions can be normative or non-normative by nature. Normative transitions are predictable and anticipated changes where the athlete exits one stage and enters another. These transitions are part of a definite sequence of age-related biological, social and emotional events. Examples of normative transitions include the transition from junior to senior level, from amateur to professional, from sport to post-sport career, etc. (Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004:509). On the other hand, non-normative transitions are not predictable or anticipated. They are the result of important events that take place in an athlete's life, e.g. a season-ending injury, 'cut' from the team, etc. (Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004:509).

Another concept of career development that emerged was career awareness. According to Lavallee (2006:71), career awareness denotes the extent to which a person/athlete is aware of career development issues. Career awareness has been shown to be of great help when athletes make the transition out of sport.

The evolution of studies on career development and transitions of athletes have undergone four major shifts (Stambulova *et al.*, 2009:395-397):

- i) There has been a shift in understanding 'a transition' as a phenomenon. Historically, athletes' transition to the post-career was presented as a negative and traumatic life event. The new understanding of a transition is that it is a coping process with possible positive and negative outcomes.

- ii) There has been a departure from focusing only on athletic movement to studying a range of transitions within an athletic career – the ‘whole-career’ approach.
- iii) A shift from focusing on athletes’ transitions only in sport to viewing athletic career transitions in other areas of athletes’ lives.
- iv) Earlier studies focused only on how coaches, parents and peers contribute to athletes’ career development, while recent studies also consider macro-social factors.

2.3.1 Theoretical frameworks for athletic career development and transitions

Along with these shifts, different athletic career-development and career-transition theoretical frameworks have been developed. Athletic career transition models include:

- i) The human adaptation to a transition model by Schlossberg (1981);
- ii) The athletic career termination model by Taylor and Ogilvie (1994, 2001); and
- iii) The athletic career transition model by Stambulova (1997, 2003) (Stambulova *et al.*, 2009:395-397).

Athletic career-development models include

- i) Bloom’s model of three stages in talent development (1985);
- ii) Stambulova’s career development model (1994, 2000);
- iii) The developmental model of transitions faced by athletes (lifespan model) by Wylleman and Lavallee (2004); and
- iv) The developmental model of sport participation by Cote, Baker and Abernethy (2007) (Stambulova *et al.*, 2009:395-397).

The most recently developed models will be discussed in the following section with special attention to Wylleman and Lavallee’s developmental model of transitions faced by athletes.

2.3.1.1 The athletic career termination model

Taylor and Ogilvie (1994, 2001, cited in Stambulova, Stephan & Japhag, 2007:103) designed this model for the last athletic career transition. The focus of this model is on

the reasons for athletic career termination, factors and resources related to adaptation as well as the quality of the transition. A healthy career transition or a career transition distress is the predicted outcome of this model, depending on the quality of the transition. If the outcome is a career transition distress, a need for psychological intervention is outlined.

2.3.1.2 The athletic career transition model

In this model, a transition is seen as a process of coping with demands/challenges in order to continue the athletic career successfully or to adjust to the post-athletic career. The demands faced by the athlete leads to developmental conflict between “what the athlete is” and what he wants or ought to be. The conflict, in return, drives the athlete to use resources at his disposal and find ways to cope with the conflict. The way in which the athlete copes depends on the balance between transition resources and barriers. The process of coping is central in transition and includes all the strategies the athlete use to be able to adapt to particular transition demands (Stambulova *et al.*, 2007:103).

Transition resources refer to all internal and external factors facilitating the coping process. These factors include self-knowledge, skills, personality traits, motivation and the availability of social and financial support (Stambulova *et al.*, 2007:103).

By contrast, transition barriers denote all internal and external factors interfering with the coping process, for example, lack of knowledge or skills, interpersonal conflicts, difficulties in combining sport and studies or work (Stambulova *et al.*, 2007:103).

2.3.1.3 Stambulova’s career development model

In this model, Stambulova (1994, 2000, cited in Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004:510) considers the athletic career as consisting of predictable stages and transitions including:

- i) The beginning of sport specialisation;
- ii) Transition to intensive training in the chosen sport;
- iii) Transition to high-achievement and adult sport;
- iv) Transition from amateur sport to professional sport;
- v) Transition from culmination to the end of the sports career; and

vi) End of sports career.

These normative transitions underline the developmental nature of the athletic career.

2.3.1.4 The developmental model of sport participation (DMSP)

This model focuses on the role that different developmental experiences play in the realisation of exceptional performance in sport. Cote, Baker and Abernethy (2007:184) postulate that the amount and type of formal and informal learning opportunities may contribute to the development of expertise. They distinguish between practice and play in that practice refers to organised activities with the focus of skill development and performance enhancement and play describes activities undertaken primarily for enjoyment but they may nevertheless contribute to skill acquisition. The DMSP has three sport participation trajectories, namely i) recreational participation through early sampling and deliberate play; ii) elite performance through early sampling and deliberate play; and iii) elite performance through early specialisation and deliberate practice. Each trajectory consists of different stages and the change in the type and amount of sport involvement depict the stage the athlete is in (Cote, Murphy-Mills & Abernethy, 2012:274).

2.3.1.5 The developmental model of transitions faced by athletes (lifespan model)

If we want to have a better understanding of how an athlete's sport career develops, then it is essential to focus on her or his athletic, psychological, social, academic, and vocational development. If we want to know the *whole* athlete; however, then the reciprocal and interactive nature of these different developmental contexts needs to be taken into account (Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004:508).

This model makes use of four layers to explain an athlete's career lifespan. Firstly, the top layer represents the transitions and stages athletes face in their athletic development. The second layer mirrors the major transitions and stages in the athlete's psychological development (childhood, adolescence, adulthood). The third layer signifies transitions and stages happening in athlete's psychosocial development and denotes those individuals who are perceived by athletes as being significant

during that specific stage. The last layer called the final layer represents stages and transitions at academic and vocational level.

Table 2.2: A developmental perspective on transitions faced by athletes (Adapted from (Wylleman & Lavalée, 2004:520)						
Age	10	15	20	25	30	35
Athletic level	Initiation	Development	Mastery		Discontinuation	
Psychological level	Childhood	Adolescent	Adulthood			
Psychosocial level	Parents Siblings Peers	Peers Coach Parents		Partner Coach	Family (Coach)	
Academic Vocational Level	Primary Education	Secondary Education	Higher Education	Vocational training Professional Occupation		
Note. The line indicates that the age at which the transition occurs is an approximation						

(i) Athletic development

The top layer called athletic development is divided into four stages:

- a) Initiation stage – The young athletes are introduced to organized competitive sport, which are from approximately six years of age (Wylleman & Reints, 2010:89). If this stage is compared to the growth stage of Super, one can see some similarities. The curiosity mentioned in Super’s theory (Super, 1992:42) will lead children to explore the different organized competitive sport that they have access to. The exploration of the different sports will help them develop concepts of the sport and themselves through the encounters with the sport environment and more specifically through encounters with key adult figures in the form of coaches and professional athletes that may become their role models. If these encounters are pleasant experiences, it will lead to the development of their interest in the sport, which together with the development of self-esteem, autonomy and

outlook of the sport provides them with the capacity for possible future opportunities.

- b) Developmental stage – Young athletes are identified as being talented and this ultimately leads to intensive training and competition. The athletes in this stage are from more or less 12 years of age (Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004:508). Super's growth stage characteristics that are in agreement with this stage, are that the fantasy of children helps in the development of interest (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:115), but as feedback from coaches and the experiences on the sports field make the children more aware of their capacities their interest in that sport will become more realistic. In being realistic it can be identified if the child is talented or not in that specific sport. What is important to note is that Super's life stages usually occur at the estimated age, but are not distinct or invariable.
- c) Mastery stage – This stage is where athletes participate at the highest level of competition. The athletes in this stage are from 18 years of age (Wylleman & Reints, 2010:89). Although the age of Super's establishment stage differs from this stage, they have some mutual characteristics. In both models, advancement is one of the individual's main priorities and a final choice regarding a specific job has been made. In the athletic model, the job would be professional sport.
- d) Discontinuation stage – This is the final stage of the top layer where athletes make the transition out of competitive sport. The athletes finding themselves in this stage are usually from 30 years of age. The ages of each stage may differ, depending on the specific sport (Wylleman & Reints, 2010:89). A decline of physical capacities is a characteristic of this stage as well in the decline stage of Super. When an athlete senses this decline, they might choose to disengage from their role of athlete.

Athletes will not only experience transitions from one athletic stage to another, but at the same time they will also be submitted to transitions related to their development at psychological, psychosocial, academic and vocational levels (Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004:509).

(ii) Psychological development

Developmental stages at psychological level include childhood, adolescence and adulthood. During each of these stages, the athlete will be involved in a specific pattern of participation in competitive sport (Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004:510). As mentioned earlier in Super's theory, childhood is a stage of physical, psychological and social growth. Emotional stability, cognitive capacity and social skills are important areas of growth (Super & Bohn, 1973:135).

During childhood important developmental tasks young athletes have to endure is readiness for structured competitive sport. Readiness, from a motivational point of view, denotes the degree to which a child is motivated to participate in sport because of his own interest in sport and not due to his parents' decision. Motivational readiness also relates to the child's interest in comparing his skills with those of other children. This is not likely to be present before age seven or eight years (Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004:510).

From a cognitive point of view, readiness relates to the child's understanding of the roles and responsibilities in the athletic setting. A child's role taking abilities are not mature until eight to ten years of age. Therefore, children could lose interest in sport participation if they are expected to participate in competitive sport earlier than when they have reached cognitive readiness. In order to be able to progress in competitive sport, young athletes need to be cognitively and motivationally mature (Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004:510).

Developmental tasks during adolescence include identifying with a masculine or feminine role in society, accepting one's physique and gaining independence from parents. Therefore, the development of a self-identity is an important developmental task. Young athletes who remain involved in competitive sport may develop a strong athletic identity because their self-identity becomes strongly based on their athletic performance. A strong athletic identity leads to individuals being less likely to explore other career, education and lifestyle options. They will also lack coping strategies when making career transitions (Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004:511).

Lending support to the effect of a strong athletic identity is the findings of Erpic, Wylleman and Zupancic (2004:45) that the quality of the sports career termination

process depends amongst others on the prevalence of athletic identity. They conducted their study on 85 former elite Slovene athletes who had been retired for less than four years from a sports career at national or international level in one of sixteen Olympic sports.

In addition to this, Alfermann, Stambulova and Zemaityte (2004:61) found that a high athletic identity in German, Russian and Lithuanian athletes contributed to more problems in the adaptation process during retirement. Sandstedt, Cox, Martens, Ward, Webber and Irvy (2004:79-82) state that student-athletes struggle to make the transition from the role of athlete to non-athlete.

(iii) Psycho-social development

Psychosocial development of athletes refers to the role of the athlete within his social environment and the role of other relationships throughout the athletic lifespan. Relationships provide significant support to athletes during their sport career. Coaches, parents and peers form the athlete's social network (Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004:514).

According to Wurth (2001:22) athletes whose parents provided more sport-related advice and emotional support made successful transitions from one stage to the next. Allfermann and Wurth (2001:165) found that eleven to fifteen year old handball, basketball and hockey players who perceive their coaches gave them more instruction and feedback made a more successful transition to the next athletic stage compared to athletes with less attentive coaches. In contrast to this, negative coach behaviour relates to higher anxiety and burnout in athletes, which in return contributes to an unsuccessful transition to the next athletic stage.

Wylleman and Lavallee (2004:515) suggests that the quality of athletes' relationships influence the way in which athletes are able to exit one athletic stage and enter another. The coach-athlete and parent-athlete relationships undergo certain changes during the athletic lifespan.

Super also refers to the influence that encounters of children with key adult figures have on the development of their self-concept. He also postulates that adolescents

occasionally pursue a particular field because of the inspiration or expectation of parents or peers (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:115).

(iii) Education and vocational development

The process of formal education and vocational training consists of five transitions, namely:

- a) into primary education at six or seven years;
- b) into secondary education at age thirteen;
- c) into higher education at age eighteen or nineteen;
- d) into vocational training and professional occupation; and
- e) into a postgraduate, lifelong learning phase

Therefore, the athlete will be confronted with a major overlap between his academic and athletic development. This forces the athlete to invest time and energy into developing in both areas (Wyllerman & Lavalley, 2004:516).

The transition of athletes into secondary education is accompanied by many developmental tasks. These include physical maturation, cognitive advancements, emotional development and the development of relationships with peers.

During their secondary education, some athletes might be given the opportunity to complete their education at a “topsport” school (Wyllerman & Lavalley, 2004:516).

When transiting out of secondary education, some athletes may choose to end their academic career and start a professional sport career depending on the availability of such opportunities. If, however, the athlete transits into higher education, the risks and disadvantages of high-performance sport will gain more significance and the need for educational and vocational training will become more apparent (Wyllerman & Lavalley, 2004:516). This is also the stage where most student-athletes will face the reality of not making the team or next athletic level. The athlete’s athletic identity may be influenced by this reality.

During this stage, athletes need to be more involved in developing their academic career. More planning and personal investment is needed from athletes to enhance their academic livelihood (Wylleman & Reints, 2010:92). According to Cox, Sadberry,

McGuire and McBride (2009:156), the environment in which student-athletes find themselves limits their opportunities to develop high academic and career aspirations. In addition to training three to four hours each day, student-athletes must also attend classes, study, eat, sleep and socialise. Sandstedt *et al.* (2004:79-82) reveal in their literature review that, due to student-athletes' multifaceted obligations, they may not have the time to explore career options.

Athletes who cannot rely on an income via their athletic achievements are forced to enter the job market when transiting out of their academic career. In comparison to their non-athletic peers, athletes who start a professional occupation may find themselves at the bottom of the ladder due to a lack of experience, professional skills and the networking necessary for vocational success (Wylleman & Reints, 2010:92). During this stage, it is therefore of great help if sport-governing bodies can cooperate with academic institutions to ensure successful progress of student-athletes from one academic transit to the next.

A limitation to the majority of the athletic models is their failure to provide testable views that can enhance our understanding of athlete development. The stages of the stage-based models are hard to define, because it is unclear what indicators could be employed to track transitions between stages (Cote *et al.*, 2012:274). Even though the DMSP has been found to be the most prominent conceptualisation of athletes' development within the sport literature (Bruner *et al.*, 2010, cited in Cote *et al.*, 2012:274), this model primarily focuses on sport development and not the whole athlete. Likewise, Stambulova's career development model also focuses only on athletic development. Although the lifespan model fails to provide testable views, it considers different aspects of the athlete's development. It also shows similar characteristics to Super's life-span theory, a seminal work and an established theory amongst career-development theories.

Therefore, the researcher will discuss the career development of professional rugby players based on the lifespan model.

2.5 Career development of professional rugby players from a lifespan perspective

Very little research has been done on the career development of professional rugby players and studies are limited to case studies, master's and doctoral studies. No career-development model has yet been designed specifically for rugby players.

Wylleman and Reints (2010:88) have addressed the influence of transitions in the career of elite athletes with particular attention to the career development and transitions faced by high-intensity sport (HIS). They define high-intensity sport as follows:

HIS is characterized by (very) high impact intensity and continuous power output with no recess during a period of 1–8 min, and require intensive training programs combining high volumes of training with sessions of high-intensity and the development of technical skills.

Using Wylleman and Lavallee's lifespan model (2004, cited in Wylleman and Reints, 2010:88) they describe the developmental challenges of four transitions in the career of a high-intensity sport athlete. Based on this the career development of professional rugby players from a lifespan perspective will now be discussed.

2.5.1 Transitional challenges faced by rugby players during the initiation stage

At psychological level, the young rugby player will face the transitional challenge of readiness for competitive sport. As discussed earlier, this readiness can be viewed from a motivational and cognitive point of view. From a motivational point of view, the young rugby player will become interested in comparing his rugby skills with those of his peers. His readiness also depends on the degree to which he is motivated to participate in rugby because of his own interest in the sport (Wylleman & Lavallee; 2004:510).

From a cognitive point of view, readiness denotes the young rugby player's perception of his roles and responsibility in the rugby environment. If the young player is expected to participate in competitive rugby before he has reached cognitive readiness, he might lose interest in playing rugby altogether. In order to progress to the next stage of

competitive rugby, the player must be cognitively and motivationally mature (Wylleman & Lavallee; 2004:510).

2.5.2 Transitional challenges faced by rugby players during the development stage

At psychological level, the rugby player will face the task of developing a self-identity. If the rugby player's self-identity becomes strongly based on his rugby performance, he will develop a strong athletic identity that might lead to the rugby player not exploring other career options when the time comes (Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004:11; Erpic *et al.*, 2004:45).

At psychosocial level, the rugby player will face the developmental task of developing relationships with peers. His relationship with his parents and coaches will also influence the way in which he is able to enter and exit the different athletic stages (Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004:515).

At academic and vocational level, the rugby player has to make the transition from primary to secondary education. Some talented young players might be recruited to top "rugby schools" and some might even be offered bursaries or scholarships at these schools (Wyllerman & Lavallee, 2004:516).

Towards the end of the developmental stage, the young rugby player will be confronted with the decision whether he is going to further his education at a tertiary institution, play professional rugby or do both. According to Van Reenen (2006:7), rugby players in South Africa are contracted at age 18. Whether or not he is offered a contract, will have an impact on the player's decision and, as mentioned earlier, the presence of a strong athletic identity might be a barrier for the player to explore other career options. This poses a challenge for the transition to the next athletic phase.

2.5.3 Transitional challenges faced by rugby players during the mastery stage

The level at which rugby players will experience the most transitional challenges during this stage is at academic and vocational level (Wylleman & Reints, 2010:91). Depending on the choices made during the transition from the development to mastery stage, the rugby player will now be playing rugby exclusively, combining it with

academic development at a tertiary institution as a student-athlete or combining it with another occupation.

As student-athlete, the rugby player must now learn to cope with the demands of training several hours a day, attending classes, studying and socialising. Therefore, more planning and personal investment is needed from the rugby player in order to enhance his academic living (Wylleman & Reints, 2010:92).

2.5.4 Transitional challenges faced by rugby players during the discontinuation stage

According to Wylleman and Reints (2010:92), a challenge that retiring athletes will face during this stage is adjusting from the sport life to a normal life where they are now suddenly 'like everyone else'. If the athlete has a strong athletic identity, the quality of the sport termination process will be influenced (Erpic *et al.*, 2004:45). Therefore, if the rugby player has an identity heavily invested in rugby, the player might find it difficult to adjust to his post-rugby life.

When the player starts a professional occupation after retiring from rugby, he might find himself at the bottom of the occupational ladder in comparison to his peers, because he lacks experience and professional skills. Some players might even have to return to tertiary education or basic vocational training in order to gain more knowledge and experience (Wylleman & Reints, 2010:92).

According to Van Reenen (2006:IV, V), professional rugby players are definitely not equipped to face the challenges of the business world without being educated in the rigours of business because their skills are severely limited in the world outside rugby.

2.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, three career concepts were discussed, namely career management, career planning and career development. The different career development theories were addressed with special attention to Super's theory of self-concept, life stages and life roles.

In the discussion on career development of professional athletes the term 'transitions' was highlighted as turning phases in career development. The different transitions athletes face during their career were discussed under the lifespan model of Wylleman and Lavallee (2004:508) and similarities between this model and Super's theory were emphasised.

Because there is very limited research on the career development of professional rugby players and no career development model has been designed yet specifically for professional rugby players, the lifespan model of Wylleman and Lavallee (2004:508) was used to discuss the possible transitions faced by rugby players during their career.

It can be concluded that even though the field of career development of professional athletes has evolved internationally over the last decade, there are few studies available on South African athletes' career development.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 provided an overview of the literature on career development theories, with particular attention to the career development of professional athletes.

This chapter will outline the research design and methodology employed to address the research objectives relating to post-rugby career planning of contracted Free State Cheetah players, their career awareness and their career transition needs. The chapter concludes with the research ethics that have informed and guided the study.

3.2 Research design

This study was based on quantitative research in the form of a self-administered questionnaire in order to obtain quantitative data regarding the career awareness of contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players, their post-rugby career planning and their career transition needs. The different elements of the research design will now be discussed.

3.2.1 Purpose

When studies are done, it can be either exploratory or descriptive by nature, or it may be conducted to test hypotheses. A researcher does an exploratory study when not much is known about the situation at hand, or no information is available on how similar problems or research issues have been solved in the past. Descriptive studies, on the other hand, are undertaken in order to ascertain and be able to describe the characteristics of the variable of interest in a situation. Descriptive studies are frequently undertaken in organisations to learn about and describe the characteristics of a group of employees. Hence, the goal of a descriptive study is to offer the researcher a profile or to describe the relevant aspects of the phenomenon from an individual or other relevant perspective (Sekaran, 2008:119-122).

Therefore, the purpose of this study was descriptive by nature, as the goal was to offer the researcher a description of post-rugby career planning characteristic of contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players as well as their career awareness and their career transition needs.

3.2.2 Type of investigation

A causal study is done when a definitive cause-and-effect relationship must be established. A correlational study on the other hand is used when important variables associated with the problem must be described (Sekaran, 2008:126). The type of investigation used in this study was correlational, as the researcher aimed to find correlations between the highest level of participation in rugby, the highest level of education, the average amount of time spent on rugby activities, and whether or not the players have another occupation/business.

3.2.3 Extent of research interference with the study

The degree to which the researcher interferes with the normal flow of work at the workplace has a direct influence on whether the study is causal or correlational (Sekaran, 2008:127). As this investigation was a correlational study, it was conducted in the natural environment of the organisation (Free State Stadium) with minimum interference by the researcher.

3.2.4 Study setting

When research is done in the natural environment where work proceeds normally, the setting is non-contrived (Sekaran, 2008:129), as was the case with this study.

3.2.5 Unit of analysis

In this study, the unit of analysis was the individual, as data were collected from each individual rugby player and each player's response was treated as an individual data source (Sekaran, 2008:132).

3.2.6 Time horizon

A cross-sectional study refers to a study where the data are gathered just once in order to answer a research question. On the other hand, longitudinal studies denote

investigations where the researcher wants to study a phenomenon at more than one point in time in order to answer the research question (Sekaran, 2008:135).

The study that the researcher conducted had a cross-sectional time horizon as the data were collected from the rugby players only once.

3.3 Sampling strategy

Sampling denotes the process where a sufficient number of elements from a population are selected so that a study of the sample can be done in order to get an understanding of the characteristics of the sample that can be generalised to the population (Sekaran, 2008:266). The different components of the sampling strategy will now be discussed.

3.3.1 Population

The entire group of people of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate is called the population (Sekaran, 2008:265). The target population for this study was all Free State Cheetah rugby players contracted by the Free State Cheetahs Pty (Ltd) at the time of the study.

3.3.2 Element

A single member of the population is called an element (Sekaran, 2008:265). Therefore, an element in this study was a single player contracted by the Free State Cheetahs Pty (Ltd).

3.3.3 Population frame

The register of all the elements in the population from which the sample is drawn is referred to as the population frame (Sekaran, 2008:265). The population frame of this study was the register or list of all contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players.

3.3.4 Sample

A sample of a study is the subset or subgroup of the population. Hence, by studying the sample of the population, the researcher should be able to draw conclusions that

are generalisable to the whole population (Sekaran, 2008:266). Although a sample of a study is only a subset of the population, this study focused on all current Free State Cheetah rugby players contracted by the Free State Cheetahs Company. This quantitative investigation used a comprehensive sample and the questionnaires were distributed to the entire target population of contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players, which were 85 rugby players at the time of the study. This includes all senior and junior contracted players, which is representative of Springbok, Super 15 (Toyota Cheetahs), Currie Cup (Toyota Free State Cheetahs), Vodacom Cup u/21 and u/19 players. Therefore, the sample size was the same as the target population and the sample was aimed to represent all levels of participation within the Free State Cheetahs Company. Not all respondents were present on the data collection day and therefore the sample size was influenced.

3.3.5 Subject

Just as the element is the single member of the population, the subject is a single member of the sample (Sekaran, 2008:267). Thus, a single rugby player contracted by the Free State Cheetah Pty (Ltd) was a subject of this study.

3.3.6 Sampling design

Two major categories of sampling designs exist, namely probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling has the distinguishing characteristic that the elements in the population have some known chance of being selected as sample subjects. In contrast to this, the elements in non-probability sampling do not have a known chance of being selected as subjects (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:199). As all contracted Free State rugby players were selected as subjects, there is no probability that they will not form part of the sample and therefore the study's sampling design fitted into the category of nonprobability comprehensive sampling.

As the sample and the target population of this study were the same, the study was comprehensive in the setting of the Free State Cheetahs, but findings cannot confidently be generalised to other rugby populations.

3.4 Data collection methods

3.4.1 Method

Because the respondents were confined to a local area and the Free State Cheetah Pty (Ltd) was willing to assemble the contracted players, a personally administered questionnaire was used. The main advantages of this were that the data could be collected in a short period, the researcher had the opportunity to introduce the research topic, and the researcher could clarify any doubts the respondents had about any question (Sekaran, 2008:236).

3.4.2 The questionnaire

An adapted Australian Athletes Career Transition Inventory was used. This questionnaire was designed to assess Australian athletes' career development and transition. This questionnaire was found to be content valid after examination by experts and results have shown that it does indeed test the areas of concern. Therefore, the questionnaire is appropriate for use in research in the area and is most relevant to professional athletes (Hawkins & Blann, 1996:4, 27, 30).

In addition to the adapted Australian Athletes Career Transition Inventory, the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale was also included. This instrument measures the athletic identity construct. It comprises ten items, including social, cognitive and affective elements of the athletic identity, which are summed to produce a single, self-evaluation score representing athletic identity (Proios, 2012:305).

The questionnaire used in this study is divided into three sections:

- Section 1: Demographic questions regarding age, level of participation, level of education, time spent participating in rugby
- Section 2: Athletic Identity Measurement Scale
- Section 3: Questions investigating career development practices

Hawkins and Blann (1993, cited in Lavallee, 2006:71) has developed the Australian Athlete/Coach Career Transition Inventory (AACTI/ACCTI) to evaluate career awareness, career planning and career transition needs amongst sports coaches and athletes. This instrument includes three subsections, which focus on:

- i) Demographic info
- ii) Career development and transition, which includes questions in the areas of career awareness (the extent to which coaches/athletes are aware of career development issues), post-sport career planning and involvement (the extent to which coaches/athletes have engaged in post-sport career planning) and career transition needs.
- iii) The coach's involvement in the athletes' career development (only in the coach's inventory; therefore not applicable to this study).

The original AACTI was adapted for this study to make it more applicable to rugby players. Therefore, some of the demographic information was changed accordingly. The questions on career development and transitions were rephrased to include "rugby", rather than "sport". To make the questionnaire more time efficient, questions that seemed repetitive were eliminated.

These changes resulted in a 30-item version of the AACTI that was employed in this study, which included 11 demographic information questions and 19 items from the original career development and transition subsection of the questionnaire. In 16 of the 19 questions in this subsection respondents were asked to rate themselves on a 4-point Likert-type scale, anchored by *strongly disagree* (1) and *strongly agree* (4). Three of the nineteen questions were rank-item response choice questions.

Seven items assessed career awareness among participants and five items assessed post-rugby career planning. A Likert scale was used for these questions, ranging from 1 to 4, as explained above. These responses were then added and divided by the number of respondents, giving a MEAN value ranging from 1.00 to 4.00 with 2.00 the middle value. Because these are categorical variables, the MEAN cannot be interpreted as is. Therefore, the MEAN for each question was changed into a factor value (FV) which was calculated. A MEAN of 2.00 is therefore equal to a FV of 0.5 (50%). A high-factor value (>0.5) indicates that the majority agreed with the statement.

Three rank item-response choice questions assessed career transition needs.

The Athletic Identity Measurement Scale was also added to the questionnaire used in this study, due to the statements in the literature that a strong athletic identity leads to individuals being less likely to explore other career, education and lifestyle options.

Athletes with a high athletic identity will also lack coping strategies when making career transitions (Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004:511). The Athletic Identity Measurement Scale formed part of Section 2 of the questionnaire. It comprised 10 items in which the respondents also had to rate themselves on a 4-point Likert-type scale, as was the case with the career awareness and -planning questions. The same statistical analysis was used for the athletic Identity Measurement Scale. The SPSS programme was used to calculate all the values of the different variables as well as to illustrate the different findings through graphs and pie charts. This program is a windows based program that was used to perform data entry and analysis and to create tables and graphs that was used in chapter 4 of this study.

3.4.3 Scales

As mentioned above, Likert-type scales, a form of interval scales, were used to measure variables because this scale is useful when responses to various items that measure a variable can be tapped on a four-point (or any other number) scale which can thereafter be summated across the items. This type of scaling lends itself to more sophisticated data analysis (Sekaran, 2008:191).

3.4.4 Time of data collection

A specific time was scheduled for the questionnaires to be completed by the respondents. Due to the large sample size, different times were scheduled for junior and senior contracted players to complete the questionnaires.

3.5 Ethical considerations

A primary responsibility of the researcher is to protect the privacy of the respondents. Hence, the information given by the respondents was treated as confidential. The questionnaires distributed were anonymous.

The purpose of the research was explained to the respondents so that they were fully aware of the nature, process and benefits of the study.

- i) The self-esteem and self-respect of the subjects were not to be violated by the questionnaire.

- ii) No personal or seemingly intrusive information was asked.
- iii) Participation in the study was voluntary.
- iv) Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the CEO of the Free State Cheetahs Pty (Ltd) in the form of a consent letter.
- v) An informed consent form was obtained from the respondents, giving the researcher permission to analyse and use the data gathered from the questionnaires.
- vi) When reporting, the researcher was careful not to give a misrepresentation or distortion of the data.

3.6 Conclusion

This chapter outlined the quantitative cross-sectional research design and methodology used in this study. This study was descriptive by nature, which was supported by the design. A comprehensive nonprobability sampling design was the chosen sample method.

The administration of a questionnaire was the method chosen for data collection with the necessary ethical considerations in mind while the data were collected.

The results obtained from these research methods will be presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the research design and methodology employed were addressed relating to the research objectives.

An adapted version of the Australian Athletes Career Transition Inventory was used to obtain the data. The Athletic Identity Measurement Scale was added to the questionnaire in order to establish whether the respondents had a high or low athletic identity or not. Therefore, the questionnaire constituted three sections:

- Section 1: Includes demographic questions regarding age and marital status as well as questions regarding the respondent's level of participation, level of education, time spent participating in rugby, other occupations and other training programmes completed.
- Section 2: The Athletic Identity Measurement Scale
- Section 3: Career development and transition subsection, which includes questions in the areas of career awareness, post-rugby career planning and career transition needs.

In this chapter, the results and findings will be illustrated under the abovementioned categories.

4.2 Results

4.2.1 Section 1: Demographic results

Eighty-one contracted Free State Cheetah Rugby players participated in this study. Thirty-three of the 81 respondents were senior contracted players, while 27 respondents were junior u/21 players and 21 respondents were junior u/19 players.

When assessing the rugby players' age it was found that 29.6% of the respondents were 19 years and younger, 50.6% were between 20 and 24, 16% were between 25 and 29 and 3.7% were between 30 and 35 (Figure 4.1).

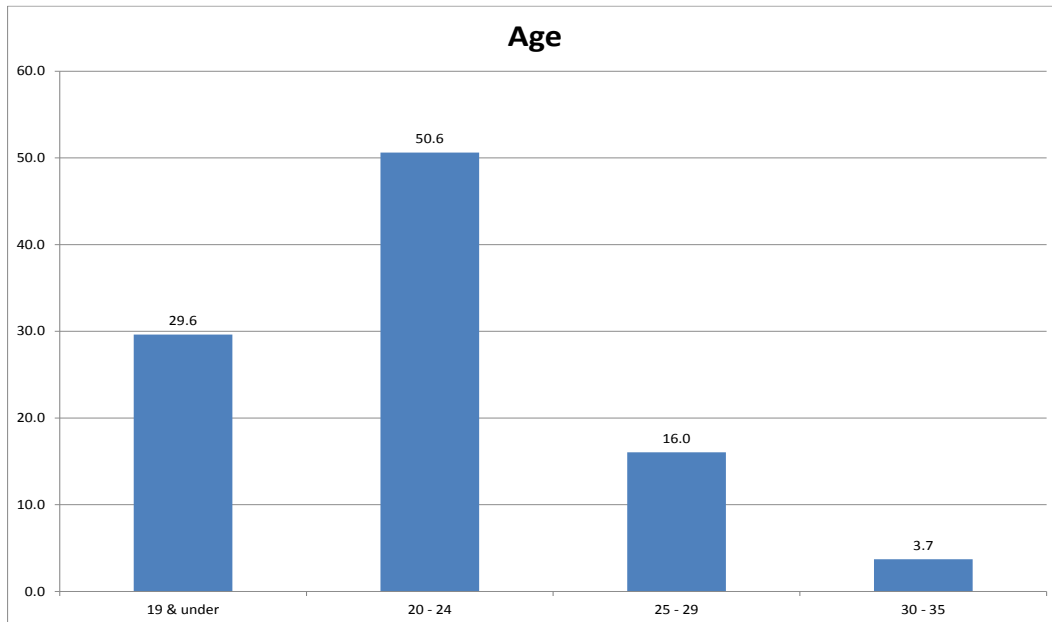


Figure 4.1: Rugby player's age distribution

When comparing the marital status of all the participants, 72 of the respondents (88.9%) were single and only nine of the respondents were married (11.1%).

The highest level of participation for the respondents were as follows (Figure 4.2): 9 Springboks (11.1%), 17 Super Rugby (21%), 1 Currie Cup (1.2%), 11 Vodacom Cup (13.6%), 6 Varsity Cup (7.4%), 1 Varsity Shield (1.2%), 2 SA u/20 (2.5%), 8 Provincial u/21 (9.9%), 23 Provincial u/19 (28.4%), 2 Craven Week (2.5%) and 1 Academic Week (1.2%).

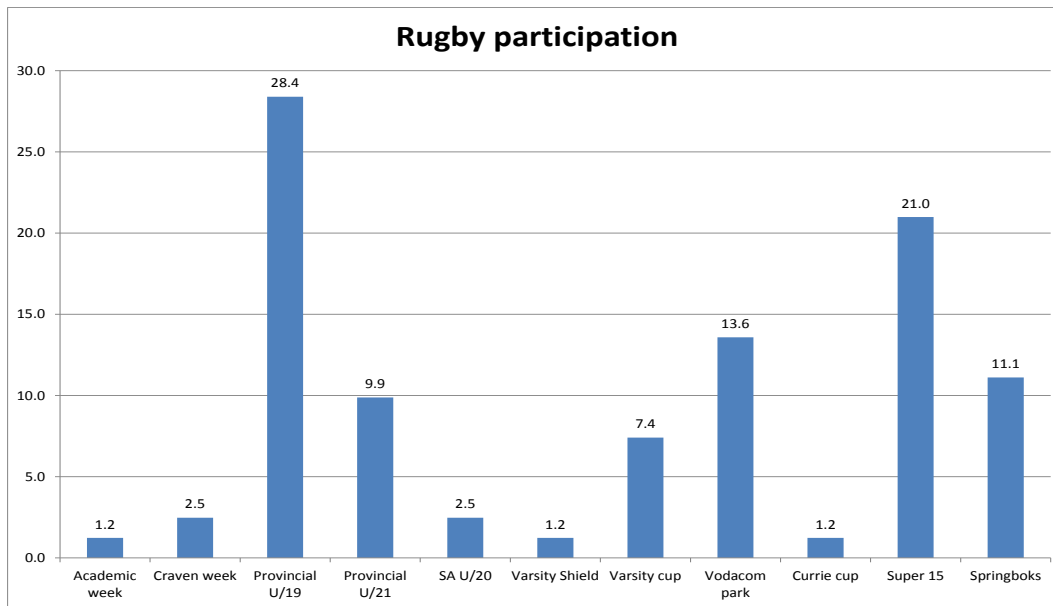


Figure 4.2: Highest level of rugby participation

The majority of senior contracted players (60.6%) indicated that their highest level of education was Grade 12, while the majority of u/21 (81.5%) and u/19 (60%) contracted players indicated that they were busy with a degree (Figure 4.3). One of the senior contracted players had completed a PhD, while 15% of the u/19 and 7.4% of the u/21 contracted players were busy with a bachelor's degree.

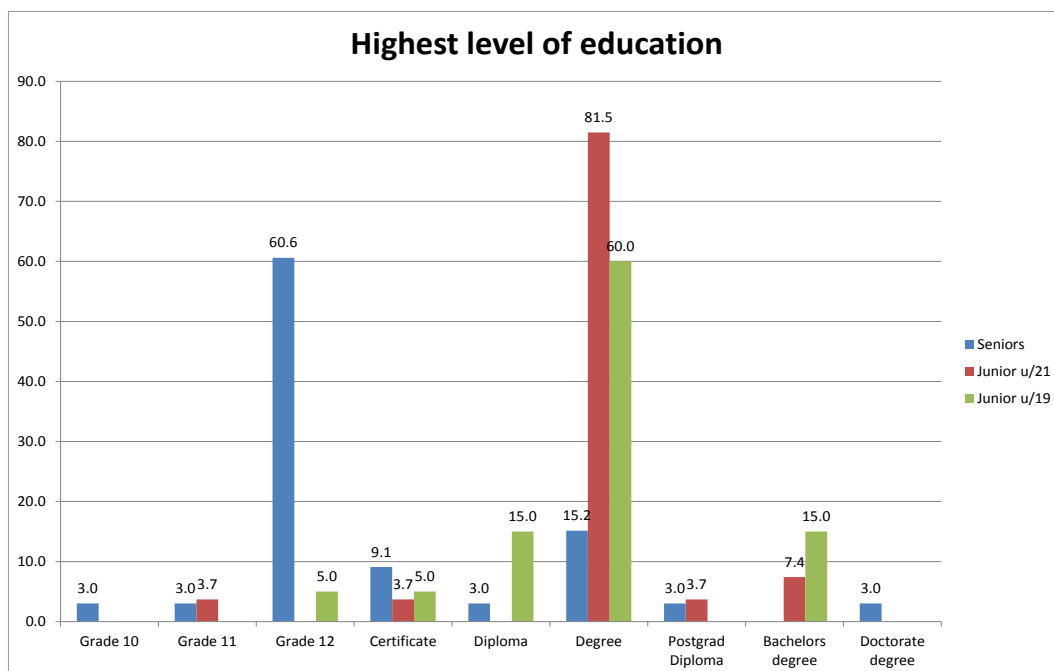


Figure 4.3: Highest level of education

As illustrated in Figure 4.4, 38.8% of the respondents indicated that, if given the opportunity, they would want to obtain a degree, 10% a master’s degree, 2.5% an honours degree and 2.5% a PhD.

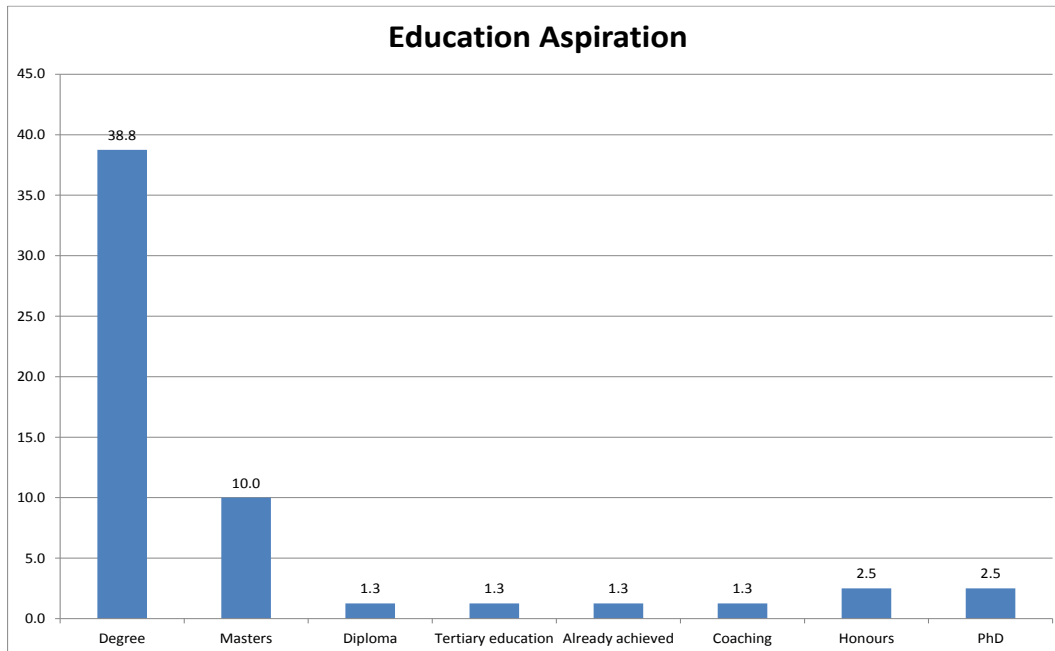


Figure 4.4: Rugby player’s educational aspirations

The majority of the players (72.7% seniors, 74.1% u/21 and 85.7% u/19) have not completed other education or training (Figure 4.5). Similarly, the majority of the respondents (72.7% seniors, 77.8% u/21 and 100% u/19) indicated that they did not have their own business or owned shares in a company (Figure 4.7). Almost all the players (81.8% seniors, 92.6% u/21 and 95.2% u/19) indicated that they did not have another occupation besides rugby (Figure 4.6).

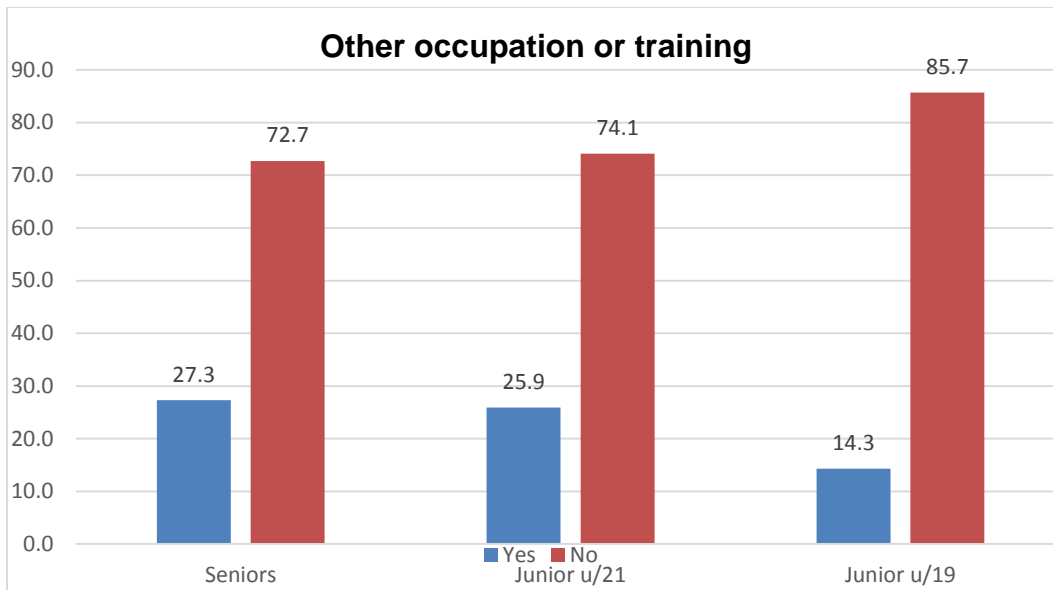


Figure 4.5: Other occupation or training completed

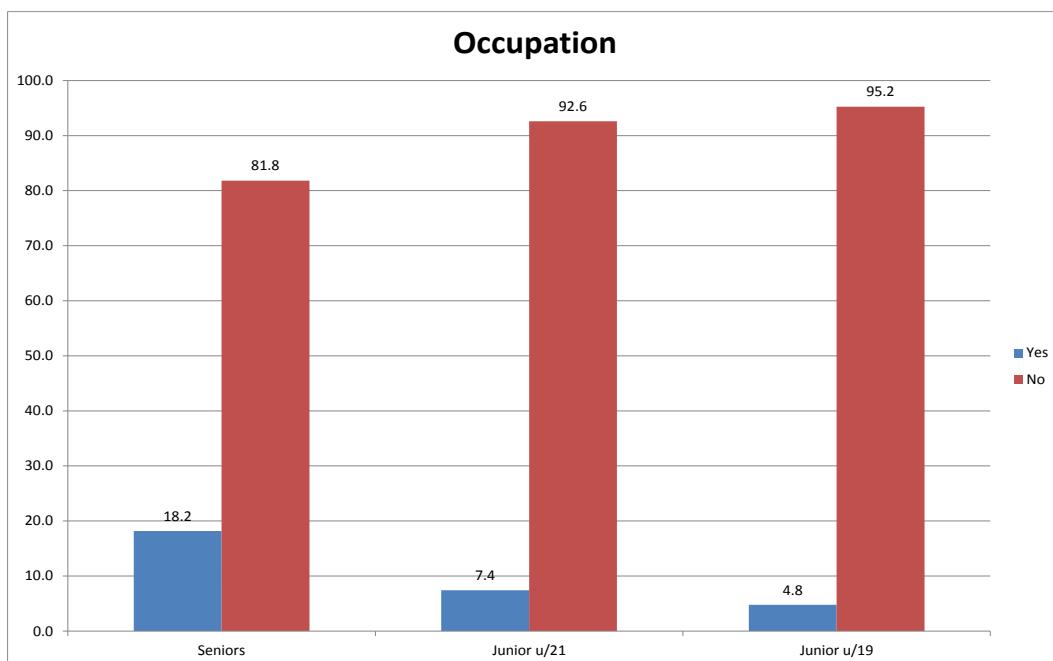


Figure 4.6: Other occupation

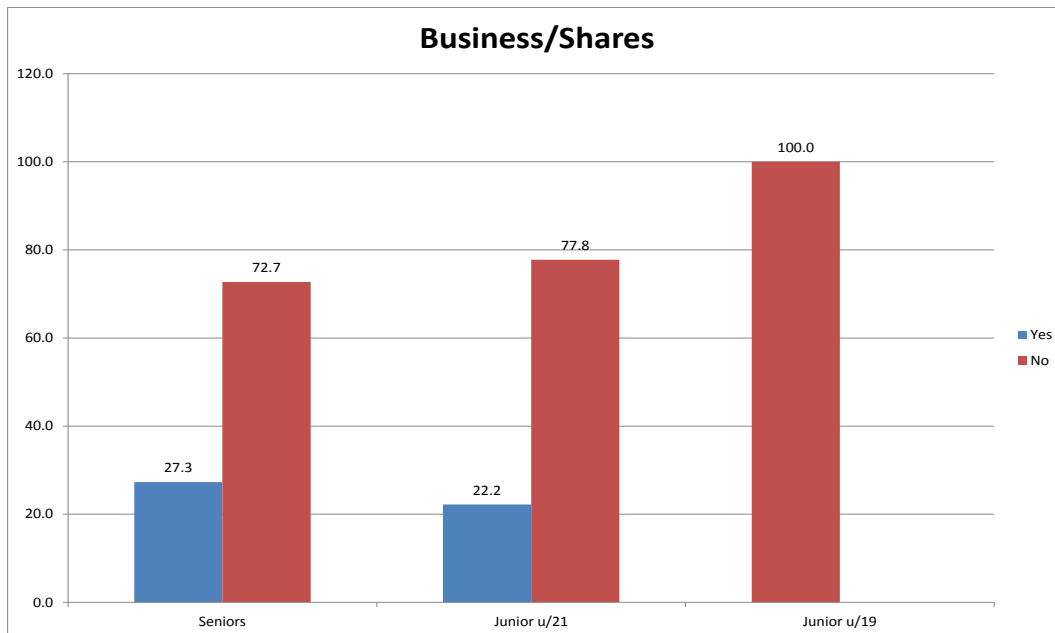


Figure 4.7: Owners of business or shares

With regard to the average amount of time, the players spent participating in rugby-related activities each week (Figure 4.8) 48.8% of the respondents answered 20–24 hours, 16.3%, 25–29 hours and 10%, 15–19 hours.

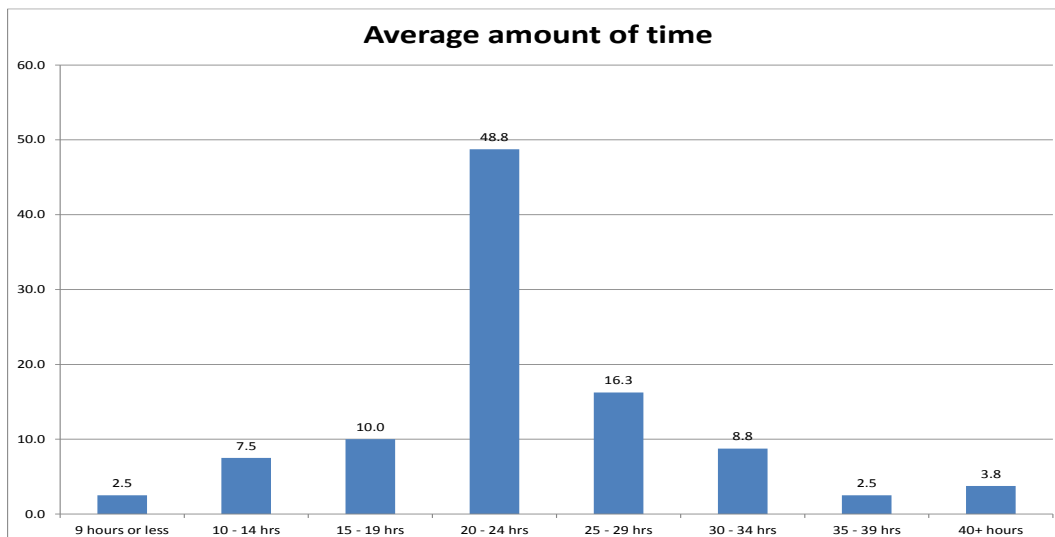


Figure 4.8: Average amount of time spend in rugby relating activities

Finally, 54.3% of the players expected to play another 6 to 10 years as contracted players, 24.7%, 11 to 15 years and 16%, 1 to 5 years.

4.2.2 Correlations

The aim was to find a correlation between the highest level of participation in rugby and the highest level of education, the average amount of time spent on rugby activities, and whether the players have another occupation/business or not. No correlation was found in this regard.

4.2.3 Section 2: Athletic identity

Overall, the players demonstrated high levels of athletic identity, as indicated by the factor value of 0.739 (which is greater than the mean of 0.5). The u/19 contracted players (0.768) have the highest level of athletic identity, followed by the u/21 (0.754) and then senior contracted players (0.708). These differences were found to be **statistically significant**.

4.2.4 Section 3: Career development and transition

4.2.4.1 Career awareness

Forty-one percent of the players think about their rugby career ending (Figure 4.9) and 28% delay planning for a post-rugby career (Figure 4.10). Senior contracted players (63.6%) agreed to thinking more about the end of their rugby career, compared to junior u/21 (33.3%) and junior u/19 (14.3%) contracted players. With regard to whether they delayed planning for a post-rugby career, more junior u/21 (33.3%) contracted players agreed to the statement than senior (27.2%) and junior u/19 (23.8%) contracted players. The contracted players that had played Springbok (88.9%) and Super 15 (64.7%) rugby agreed to thinking more about their rugby career ending. None of the players who have another occupation besides rugby agreed to delay planning for a post-rugby career and only 13.4% of those owning business shares agreed to the same statement.

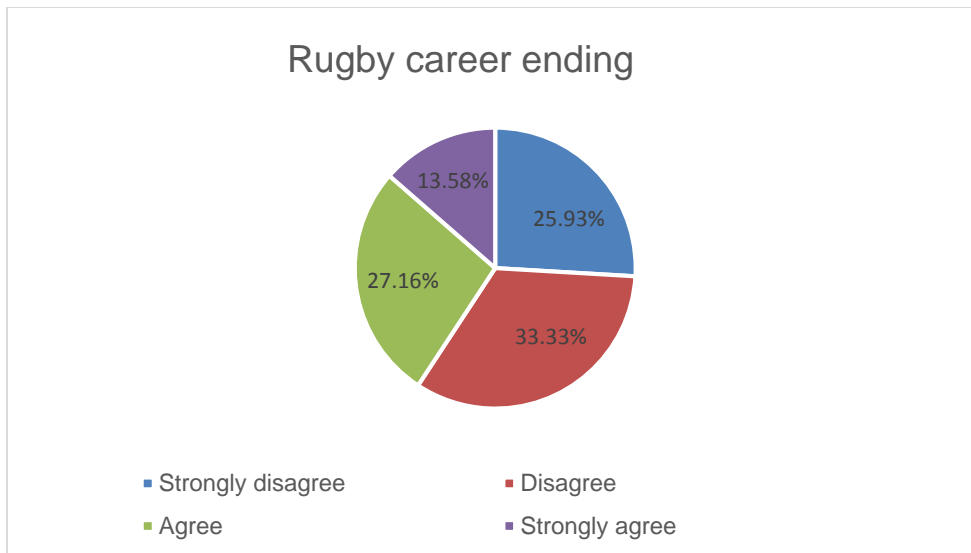


Figure 4.9: Players’ responses to thinking about the end of their rugby career

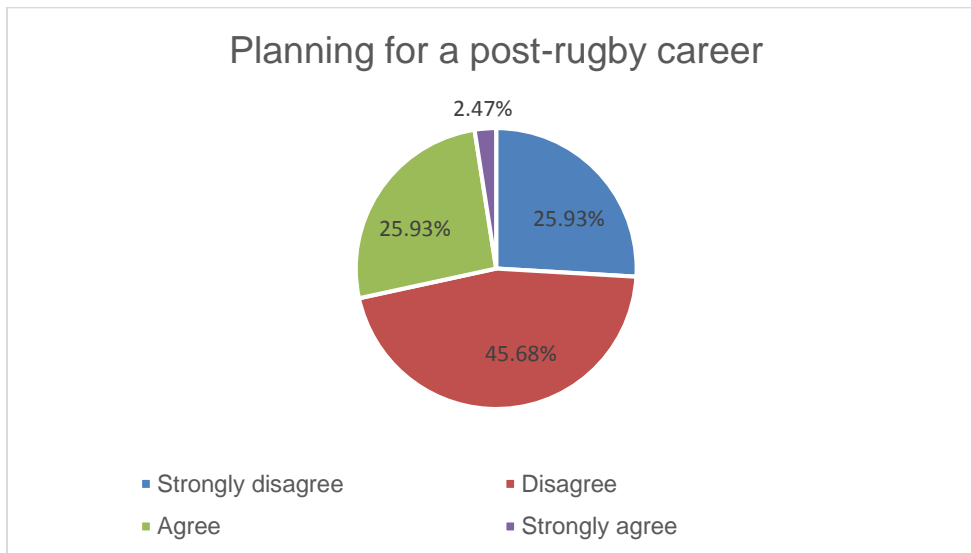


Figure 4.10: Players’ responses to whether they delay planning for a post-rugby career

Almost all the respondents (94%) agreed to having “learned skills in rugby that could be used in a variety of other careers” (Figure 4.11). Likewise, the majority of the respondents (91%) stated they understood “the value of a current résumé or curriculum vitae” (Figure 4.12). Similarly, almost all the respondents (96%) reported they “know their personal strengths, weaknesses, interests and skills” (Figure 4.13). In Figure 4.14, 84% of the respondents agreed that they “can relate these qualities to careers best suited to them’. Finally, almost all the players (99%) responded that they

believed it was “important to plan for a new career for when their rugby career ended” (Figure 4.15).

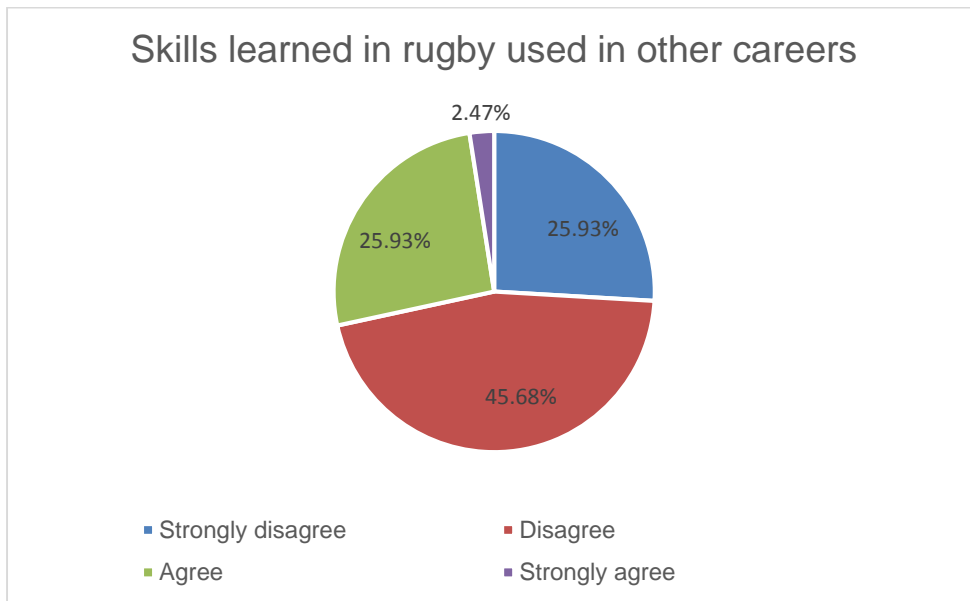


Figure 4.11: Players’ responses to having learned skills in rugby that could be used in a variety of other careers

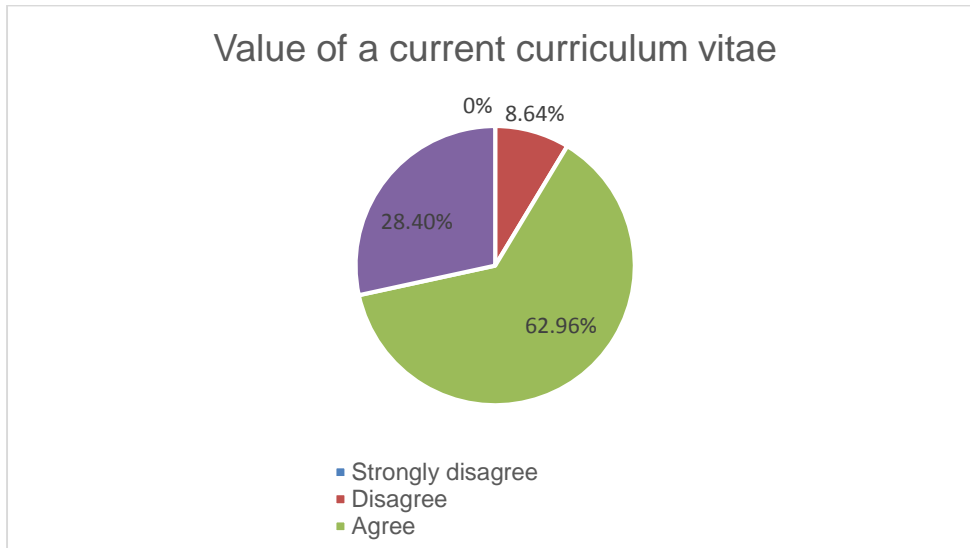


Figure 4.12: Players’ responses to understanding the value of a current CV

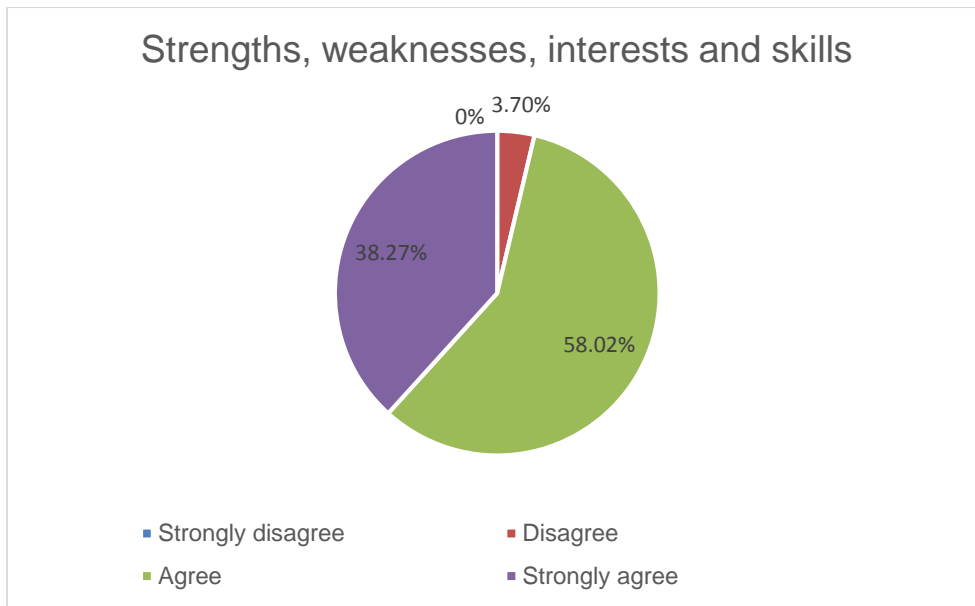


Figure 4.13: Players' responses to knowing their personal strengths, weaknesses, interests and skills

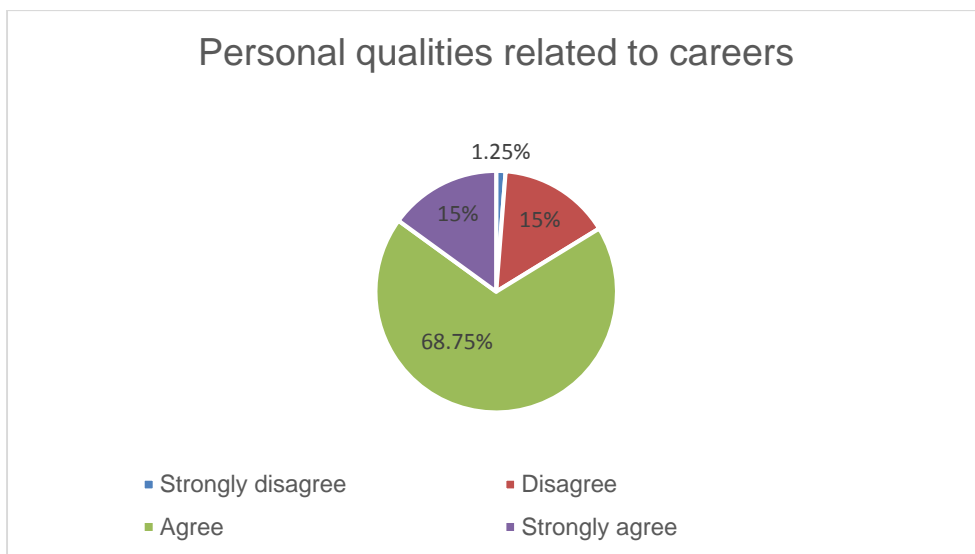


Figure 4.14: Players' responses to being able to relate their personal qualities to careers best suited to them

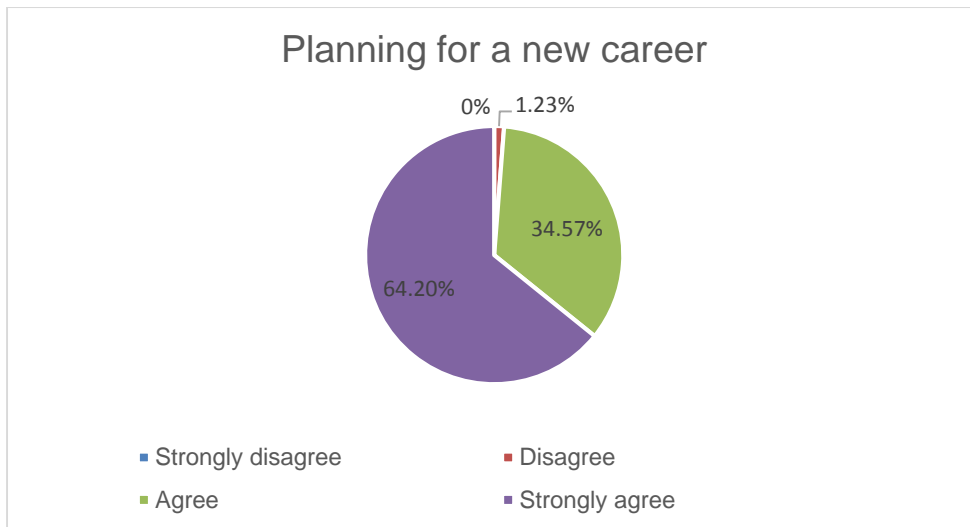


Figure 4.15: Players’ responses to the importance of planning for a new career for when their rugby career ends

Overall, the players reported high levels of career awareness, as indicated by the factor value of 0.740 (which is greater than the mean of 0.5). The senior contracted players reported the highest level of career awareness, followed by the junior u/19 contracted players and then the u/21 contracted players.

However, after doing an ANOVA analysis, these differences were found to be **statistically insignificant**, as the *p*-value was greater than 0.1.

A T-test was done and revealed a statistically significant difference (*p*-value less than 0.1) between the career awareness of single and married players, as well as between players who do/do not have another occupation besides rugby. The married players reported a higher level of career awareness, compared to the single players. Likewise, those who have another occupation besides rugby reported higher career awareness levels compared to those who do not have another occupation.

4.2.4.2 Post-rugby career planning

The majority of the players (73%) agreed that they could “specifically describe the type of career (not rugby) that they desire” (Figure 4.16) and 86% responded that they “know what education and skills are required for this career” (Figure 4.17). More junior u/21 contracted players (81.2%) agreed that they could “specifically describe the type of career (not rugby) they desire”, compared to the seniors (68.8%) and u/19 (66.6%)

players. With regard to career goals, 83% of the players responded that they had “set career goals to help them gain employment” (Figure 4.18) and 88% agreed to “setting long-term as well as short-term career goals” (Figure 4.19). The majority of the players (86%) agreed that their “selection of a career was realistic, based upon their background, skills and interests” (Figure 4.20).

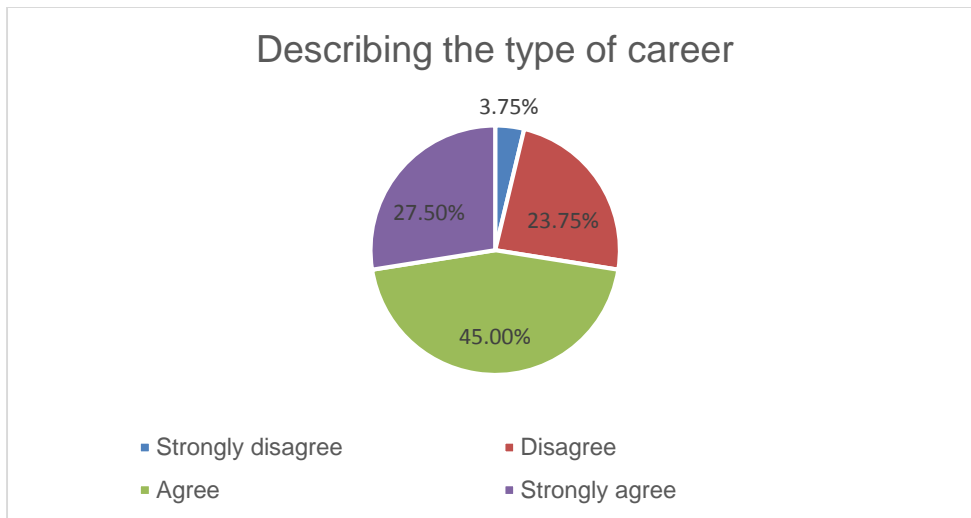


Figure 4.16: Players’ responses to being able to specifically describing the type of career they desire (not rugby)

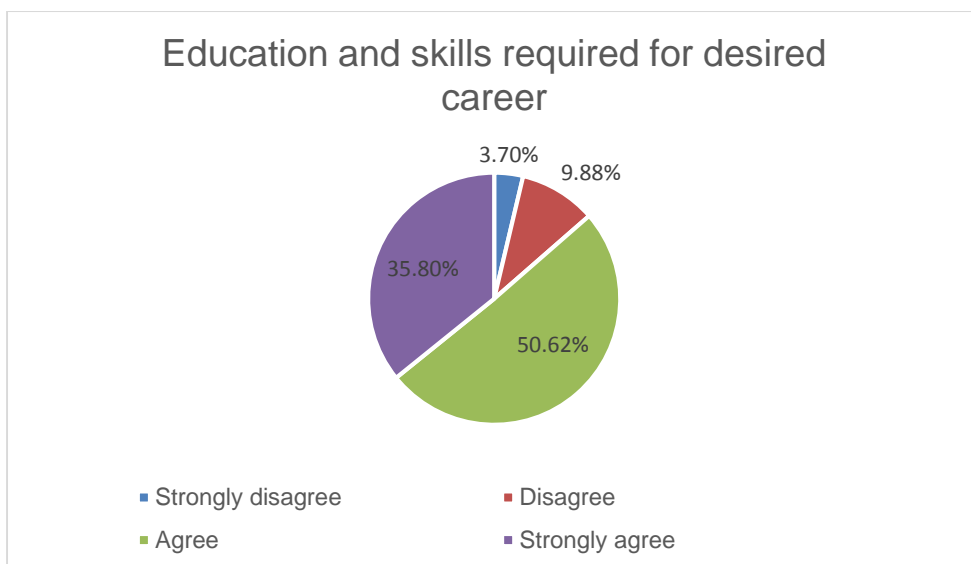


Figure4.17: Players’ responses to knowing what education and skills are required for their desired career (not rugby)

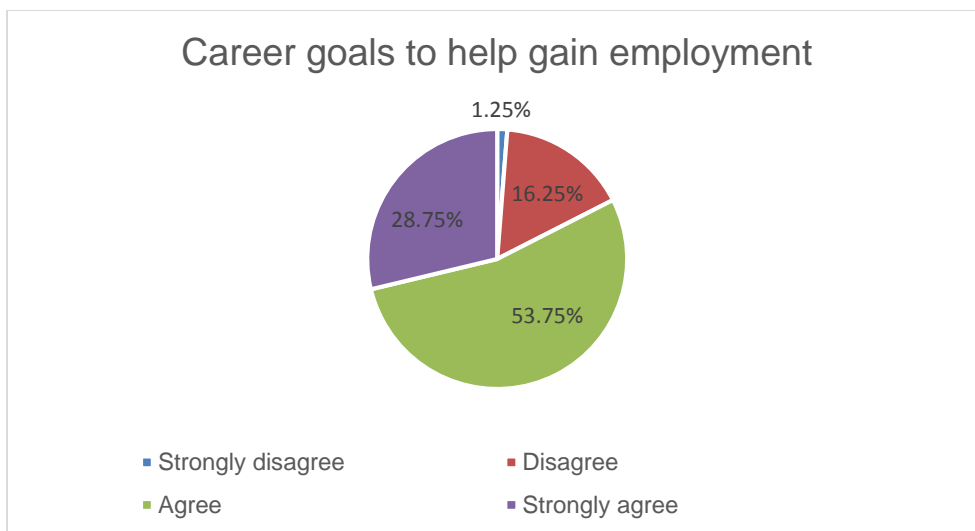


Figure 4.18: Players' responses to setting career goals to help them gain employment

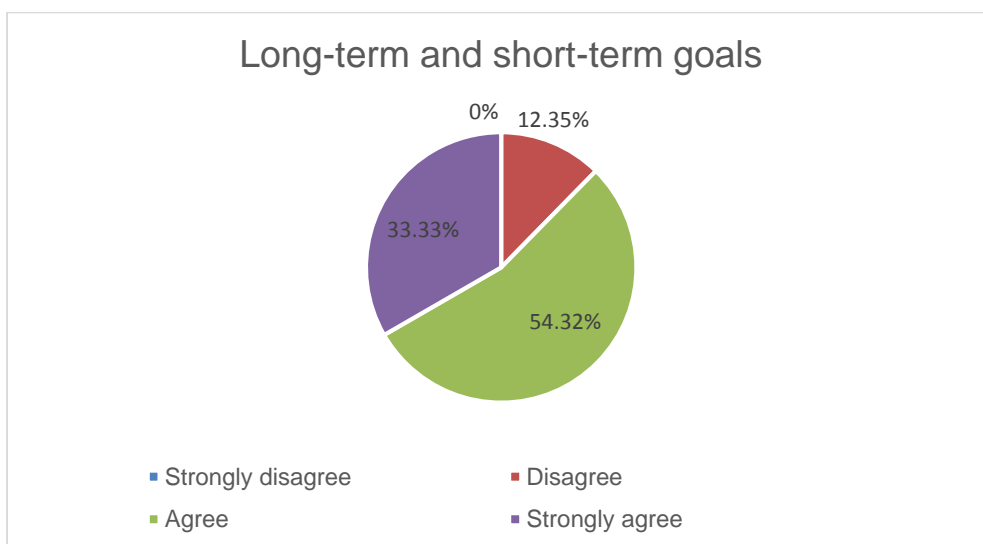


Figure 4.19: Players' responses to setting long-term and short-term career goals

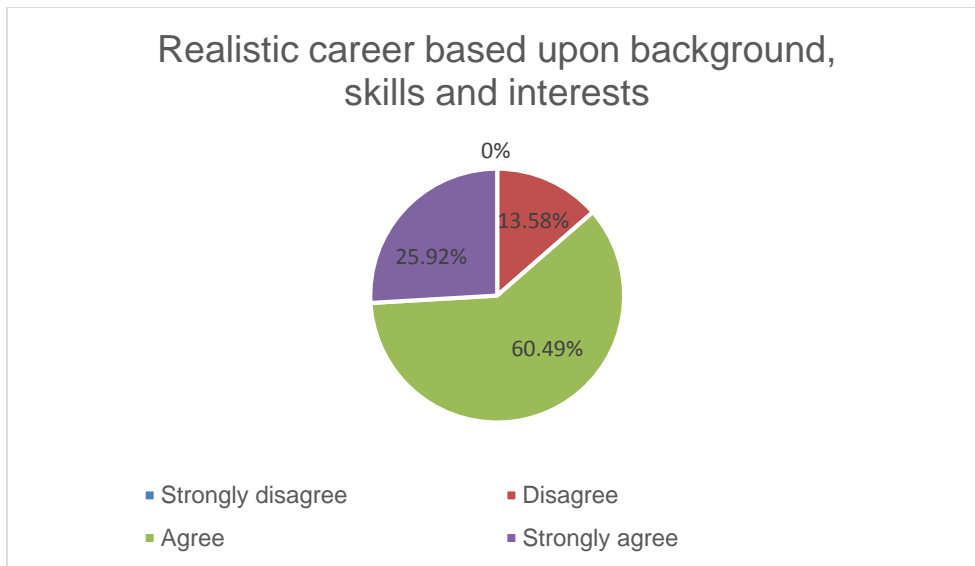


Figure 4.20: Players' responses to selecting a career that is realistic, based upon their background, skills and interests

Overall, the players demonstrated high levels of post-rugby career planning as indicated by the factor value of 0.779 (which is greater than the mean of 0.5). The junior u/19 contracted players demonstrated the highest levels of post-rugby career planning followed by the junior u/21 and then the senior players. However, the ANOVA test indicated that the difference was **statistically insignificant**.

With regard to the level of education, the players who were busy/had obtained a bachelor's and doctoral degree demonstrated the highest level of post-rugby career planning and those with Grade 10 as their highest level of education demonstrated the lowest level of post-rugby career planning. This was found to be a **statistically significant** difference from the ANOVA test.

Likewise, a **statistically significant** difference was found in the level of post-rugby career planning between the eight different time groups. Players participating 30–34 hours a week in rugby-related activities demonstrated the highest level of post-rugby career planning and those participating 40 hours and more demonstrated the lowest level.

The T-test revealed a **statistically significant** difference between the post-rugby career planning levels of the players who owned their own business or shares in a

company and those who did not. Those who owned their own business/shares in a company demonstrated higher levels of post-rugby career planning.

4.2.4.3 Career transition needs

Programmes that the players believed would help them the most were those that would assist them (in order of priority) to:

- i) Obtain actual work experience related to their career choice or a career best suited to them (44%)
- ii) Identify their personal qualities and matching them to careers best suited to them (22%)
- iii) Develop and initiate a job search (18%)
- iv) Identify and initiate further education or training needed to attain their career goals (16%)

Those viewed by the players as being primarily responsible to ensure that career-transition programmes are utilized (in order of priority):

- i) The player (75%)
- ii) Free State Cheetahs Pty (Ltd) (11%)
- iii) The coach and Free State Cheetahs Pty (Ltd) working together (9%)
- iv) The coach (5%)

Finally, the players preferred that career planning programmes and services be provided (in order of priority):

- i) During their rugby career (48%)
- ii) Both during and after their rugby career (39%)
- iii) After their rugby career (12.5%)

4.3 Conclusion

Eighty-one contracted Free State Cheetah Rugby players participated part in this study. Thirty-three of the 81 respondents were senior contracted players, while 27 respondents were junior u/21 players and 21 respondents were junior u/19 players.

The majority of senior contracted players (60.6%) indicated that their highest level of education was Grade 12, while the majority of u/21(81.5%) and u/19(60%) contracted players indicated that they were enrolled for a degree.

Most of the players (72.7% seniors, 74.1% u/21 and 85.7% u/19) had not completed other education or training. Similarly the majority of the respondents (72.7% seniors, 77.8% u/21 and 100% u/19) indicated that they do not have their own business or own shares in a company. Almost all the players (81.8% seniors, 92.6% u/21 and 95.2% u/19) indicated that they do not have another occupation besides rugby.

The u/19 contracted players (0.768) had the highest level of athletic identity, followed by the u/21 (0.754) and then senior contracted players (0.708).

Overall, the players reported high levels of career awareness, as indicated by the factor value of 0.740. A statistically significant difference was found between the career awareness of the single and married players as well as between the players who did/did not have another occupation besides rugby. The married players reported higher levels of career awareness, compared to the players that were single. Likewise, those who had another occupation besides rugby reported higher career awareness levels, compared to those who did not have another occupation.

Overall, the players demonstrated high levels of post-rugby career planning, as indicated by the factor value of 0.779. A statistically significant difference was found with regard to the level of education. The players who were busy with/had obtained a bachelor's and doctoral degree demonstrated the highest level of post-rugby career planning and those with Grade 10 as their highest level of education demonstrated the lowest level of post-rugby career planning. A statistically significant difference was found between the post-rugby career planning levels of the players who owned their own business or shares in a company and those who did not. Those who owned their own business/shares in a company demonstrated higher levels of post-rugby career planning.

In terms of career transition needs, the players believed that actual work experience obtained would be most helpful, that they were primarily responsible for utilizing career transition programmes and that career planning programmes and services should be provided during their rugby career.

The results given in this chapter will be discussed and linked to the theory in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

In Chapter 4, the results were given in terms of three sections. The first section included questions regarding the rugby players' demography, age, marital status, current career and education, which yielded interesting results when compared between the three different playing levels. The second section measured the rugby players Athletic Identity, which was high among all the participants, with the u/19 players scoring the highest. The last section measured the rugby players' career awareness, post-rugby career planning and career transition needs, which yielded high levels of career awareness and planning, with career transition needs mostly related to gaining actual work experience.

The results given in Chapter 4 will now be linked to the theory in terms of each section explained and recommendations will be given in terms of the findings.

5.2 Education, other occupations and business shares

Overall, 70.2 of the respondents reported they had completed/were busy with tertiary education – a diploma, certificate or degree. This is in contrast to the findings of Van Reenen's study (2006:70) where only 19.44% of Western Province players had any academic qualification. The South African Players' Association's (2012:11,12) survey revealed that 71% of their members (all professional rugby players) participating in the survey were not studying or doing any other course.

An interesting finding was the difference between the highest level of education of the senior, u/21 and u/19 Free State players. More junior players were enrolled for a degree or diploma, compared to senior players, where the majority (60%) had Grade 12 as highest education level. Van Reenen's study did not include u/19 and u/21 players. However, he found that 72% of Western Province players went on to study after leaving school, but when offered a contract to play professional rugby, all of them gave up their studies. The reason for the difference between senior and junior players'

level of education might well be embedded in the findings of Van Reenen – as soon as they started playing at a higher level, they gave up their studies. Van Reenen (2006:98) states that the environment of the professional rugby players in the rugby union and the constant pressure to perform successfully at the highest level is not conducive to studying for a second career.

However, further research is needed to confirm whether Free State junior players gave up their studies or not when they started playing at a higher level.

Another reason for the high percentage of junior players enrolled in tertiary education might be due to the role the Varsity Cup competition plays. As mentioned in Chapter 1, the Varsity Cup competition implements rules to ensure that the majority of Varsity Cup players are bona fide students at the participating universities (FNB, 2013: online). However, research on the effect of the Varsity Cup on the educational levels of upcoming professional rugby players are needed to confirm this.

The Free State Cheetah Rugby Academy, in collaboration with the University of the Free State in the contracting of junior players is a contributing factor to the majority of junior players enrolled for tertiary education. Players receive bursaries to study at the university and play Varsity Cup rugby and they receive monthly incentives from the Free State Cheetahs to play u/19 and u/21 provincial rugby. This is proof of Wylemann and Reints's (2010:92) suggestion that it is of great help if sport-governing bodies can cooperate with academic institutions to ensure successful progress of student-athletes from one academic transit to the next.

The findings regarding the junior players' level of education are very positive and might point to a shift from young uneducated individuals, as stated by Van Reenen (2006:IV), to educated professional rugby players – given that they continue to study even if they climb the rugby ladder.

The majority of the respondents 81.5% (72.7% seniors, 77.8% u/21 and 100% u/19) indicated that they did not have their own business or own shares in a company and almost all the players 88.9% (81.8% seniors, 92.6% u/21 and 95.2% u/19) indicated that they did not have another occupation besides rugby. This is in accordance with the findings of The South African Players' Association's (2012:11-12) survey, which stated that more than 85% of their respondents were not involved in any business

venture which they could continue after they stopped playing rugby. Because the majority of junior players were busy with a tertiary education, this finding is not as alarming with regard to the junior players as it is with the senior players. Only 33.3% of the senior players were busy with or had completed a tertiary education; only 27.3% of them owned a business or shared in a company; and 18.2% had another occupation besides rugby. These figures indicate a reason for concern.

The findings related to the senior players mentioned above can be explained through the lifespan model of Wylleman and Lavallee (2004:520). While in the mastery stage of their athletic development, they are also in the higher education stage or vocational training stage of their academic and vocational level. This is also the level at which the player will experience the most transitional challenges. During this stage, athletes (in this case rugby players) need to be more involved in developing their academic career. More planning and personal investment is needed from them to enhance their academic livelihood (Wylleman & Reints, 2010:92). In the case of the senior contracted Free State rugby players it is evident from the results mentioned that their educational and vocational training are neglected and not much personal investment is done. Sandstedt *et al.* (2004:79-82) reveal in their literature review that due to student-athletes' multi-faceted obligations, they may not have the time to explore career options. However, only 21.9% of senior contracted Free State rugby players indicated that they spent more than 24 hours a week on rugby-related activities. This means that the majority of them spent 24 hours or less participating in rugby-related activities a week. If divided by seven days a week, an average of 3,43 hours a day is calculated, which negates Sandstedt *et al.*'s (2004:79-82) finding.

5.3 Athletic identity

Overall, the players demonstrated high levels of athletic identity as indicated by the factor value of 0.739. The u/19 contracted players (0.768) had the highest level of athletic identity, followed by the u/21 (0.754) and then senior contracted players (0.708). These findings are in accordance with the findings by Price (2007:iv-v) whose study on young rugby players from New Zealand and New South Wales reveal identities heavily invested in rugby.

The overall high athletic identity of the Free State rugby players can be explained through the lifespan model of Wylleman and Lavallee (2004:520). An important developmental task, at psychological level, during adolescence includes the development of a self-identity. Young athletes who remain involved in competitive sport may develop a strong athletic identity because their self-identity becomes strongly based on their athletic performance. In this case, the rugby player's self-identity becomes strongly based on his rugby performance. According to Wylleman and Lavallee (2004:511), a strong athletic identity leads to individuals being less likely to explore other career, education and lifestyle options. This, however, is contradicted by the findings of the majority junior players enrolled in tertiary education. With regard to the senior players, Wylleman and Lavallee's (2004:511) statement might prove to be true.

The findings by Erpic, Wylleman and Zupancic (2004:45) that the quality of the sports career termination process depends, amongst others, on the prevalence of athletic identity, might point to future problems experienced by Free State rugby players. If their findings and the findings of Alfermann, Stambulova and Zemaityte (2004:61) are generalisable, the Free State players' high athletic identity will contribute to more problems in the adaptation process during retirement from rugby and they will struggle to make the transition from athlete to non-athlete.

According to Wylleman and Reints (2010:92), a challenge that retiring athletes will face during this stage is adjusting from the sport life to a normal life where they are now suddenly 'like everyone else'. Due to their high athletic identity, the contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players might find it difficult to adjust to a post-rugby life.

5.4 Career awareness

Overall, the players reported high levels of career awareness as indicated by the factor value of 0.740. The senior contracted players reported the highest level of career awareness, followed by the junior u/19 contracted players and then the u/21 contracted players. However, these differences were found to be statistically insignificant.

A statistically significant difference was found between the career awareness of the single and married players as well as between the players who did/did not have another occupation besides rugby. The married players reported higher levels of career awareness compared to the players that were single. Likewise, those who had another occupation besides rugby reported higher career awareness levels compared to those who did not have another occupation.

According to Lavalley (2006:71), career awareness denotes the extent to which a person/athlete is aware of career development issues. Career awareness has been shown to be of great help when athletes make the transition out of sport.

Hawkin and Blann's (1996:42) study also reveal high levels of career awareness amongst the participating athletes. They believe the high levels of career awareness are because the sport organisations, to which their respondents belong, provide career education programmes. They also suggest that these athletes, through direct participation in these programmes, reading career education literature or talking to other individuals, have developed high awareness levels on the importance of planning for a career after sport.

With this in mind, it is interesting to note that even though the Free State Cheetahs Pty (Ltd) does not have a specific career education programme, the players still reported high levels of career awareness.

The study done by Price (2007:iv-v) reveals that the structure of work and support from the rugby players' clubs and academies are key inhibitors to players' career development. However, the high career awareness levels demonstrated by the Free State players are indicative of the high extent to which they are aware of career development issues.

Therefore, the author believes that, even though the structures provided by the rugby unions are helpful and needed, the whole process of career development of rugby players is not dependent on the structures provided by the rugby unions.

5.5 Post-rugby career planning

The majority of the players (73%) agreed that they could “specifically describe the type of career (not rugby) that they desire” and 86% responded that they “knew what education and skills are required for this career”. More junior u/21 contracted players (81.2%) agreed that they could “specifically describe the type of career (not rugby) they desire” compared to the seniors (68.8%) and u/19 (66.6%) players. With regard to career goals, 83% of the players responded that they “had set career goals to help them gain employment” and 88% agreed to “setting long-term as well as short-term career goals”. The majority of the players (86%) agreed that their “selection of a career was realistic based upon their background, skills and interests”.

When looking at the above-mentioned categories of career planning and the percentages achieved by the different groups of rugby players, it can be concluded that overall the players demonstrated high levels of post-rugby career planning, as also indicated by the high factor value of 0.779. The junior u/19 contracted players demonstrated the highest levels of post-rugby career planning followed by the junior u/21 and then the senior players, but the difference is not statistically significant.

According to Schreuder & Coetzee (2011:63), career planning refers to the personal control that an individual exerts over his career by engaging in informed choices regarding his occupation, organisation, job assignment and self-development. This is done by conducting self-assessment, formulating goals and developing plans for reaching those goals. It is also important to note that the responsibility of career planning rests primarily with the individual.

When comparing the results obtained from the contracted players to this theory, it seems that the rugby players do take individual responsibility with regard to the planning of their careers after rugby.

A literature review done by Sandstedt *et al.* (2004:79-82) on career development of student-athletes reveals that few athletes make sufficient plans to prepare for career termination. This is in contrast to the high levels of post-rugby career planning found in this study.

An interesting finding is the statistically significant difference between the post-rugby career planning of the players who were busy/had obtained a bachelor's and doctoral degrees, compared to those who indicated Grade 10 as their highest level of education. The bachelor's/doctoral-degree players had the highest level of post-rugby career planning. Likewise, the players who owned their own business or own shares in a company demonstrated higher levels of post-rugby career planning, compared to those who did not have their own business.

This finding might suggest a difference between “perceived” career planning and “actual” career planning, which leads to the question:

If the levels of post-rugby career planning were high for senior and junior contracted players, why are only 33.3% of the senior players enrolled in a tertiary education programme; only 27.3% of them owners of a business or shares in a company; and 18.2% involved in another occupation?

According to Schreuder & Coetzee (2011:63), career planning is done by conducting self-assessment, formulating goals and developing plans for reaching those goals. Based on this, the levels of post-rugby career planning for all Free State players were high.

However, further research might be needed regarding the relationship between planning for a post-rugby career and the actual involvement in pursuing a post-rugby career.

5.6 Career transition needs

Greenhaus *et al.* (2010:13) define career development as “an ongoing process by which individuals progress through a series of stages, each of which is characterised by a relatively unique set of issues, themes, and tasks”. In addition to this, Alfermann and Stambulova (2007, cited in Stambulova, Alfermann, Statler, Cote, 2009:398) define career development as proceeding through different career stages and transitions.

The study by Hawkins and Blann (1996:58) reveals that athletes believed that the kind of careers they pursued after their sport career ended would be important in

determining how satisfied they would be with their life situation; therefore, how easy they would adapt to the transition from athlete to non-athlete.

Van Reenen (2006:IV-V) also points to the need for rugby unions to take responsibility and understand the importance of creating structures to support and help develop a second career for professional rugby players.

The programmes that the players believed would help them most were those that would assist them to obtain actual work experience related to their career choice or a career best suited to them. Therefore, the support needed from the Free State Cheetahs Pty (Ltd), from the players' perspective, might be in the form of time or opportunities for the players to obtain actual work experience.

The individual(s) viewed by the players as being primarily responsible for ensuring that career transition programmes are utilised is the player himself. This is an interesting finding compared to the suggestion made by Van Reenen that the rugby unions must take responsibility to create a structure and support system for the career development of professional rugby players.

Finally, 48% of the players preferred that career planning programmes and services be provided during their rugby career and 39% preferred both during and after.

It can be concluded that even though the players view themselves as being primarily responsible for the utilization of career transition programmes, the results do point to a need for support during and after their rugby career for the development of a second career, especially in the form of actual work experience.

5.7 Conclusion

The objectives of this study were to evaluate the level of career awareness of contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players in the development of their career after rugby, to analyse the post-rugby career planning of contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players and to analyse their career transition needs.

In this study it was found that the junior contracted Free State players demonstrated high levels of education, which might point to a shift from young, uneducated

individuals, as stated by Van Reenen (2006:IV), to educated professional rugby players – given that they continued to study even if they climbed the rugby ladder.

However, the senior contracted players did not demonstrate high levels of education, nor did they own a business or pursued another occupation. It is evident that their educational and vocational training are neglected. Therefore, the statement by Van Reenen (2006:IV-V), namely that professional rugby players are definitely not equipped to face the challenges of the business world without being educated in the rigours of business because their skills are severely limited in the world outside rugby might still be true with regard to the senior contracted Free State players.

The overall high athletic identities of all the players point to the fact that their self-identities have become strongly based on their rugby performances and might lead them to be less likely to explore other career, education and lifestyle options. Again, the high percentage of junior players enrolled in tertiary education programmes makes this statement truer for the senior contracted players.

The high levels of career awareness demonstrated by all the players suggest that all the contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players are vastly aware of career development issues, more so those who have another occupation besides rugby. These high levels of career awareness might help them to make the transition out of rugby.

In terms of post-rugby career planning, all players reported high levels, especially those who were busy with a bachelor's or doctoral degree and those who own a business. Even though this finding indicates that the players are taking responsibility for their career planning by conducting self-assessment, formulating goals and developing plans for reaching those goals, further research might be needed regarding the relationship between planning for a post-rugby career and the actual involvement in pursuing a post-rugby career.

With regard to transition needs, it was found that even though the players view themselves as being primarily responsible for the utilization of career transition programmes, the results do point to a need for support during and after their rugby career for the development of a second career, especially in the form of actual work experience.

It can be concluded that even though the contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players reported high levels of awareness in the development of their career after rugby, the senior players still play professional rugby at the expense of pursuing a career, a trade or further education, as was found by Van Reenen (2006:7).

5.8 Limitations to the study

The sample and the target population of this study were the same; therefore, the study was comprehensive in the setting of the Free State Cheetah rugby players, but findings cannot confidently be applied to other rugby populations, genders or rugby provinces.

Another limitation to this study was the possible difference between planning for a post-rugby career and the actual involvement in pursuing a post-rugby career which was seen in the results of the senior players – they scored high levels of career planning but the majority were not involved in another occupation, business or education programme. This begs for further research.

5.9 Recommendations

As mentioned before, the Free State Cheetah Rugby Academy works together with the University of the Free State in the contracting of junior rugby players. This might be the reason for the high percentage of junior players that are enrolled in tertiary education programmes, which might also be the reason for their higher levels of career awareness and planning. The Varsity Cup also has strict rules when it comes to the players' eligibility to play in the Varsity cup. The majority of the players have to be enrolled at the participating universities and pass a certain percentage of their subjects in order to play in this competition. This forces the management of the team and the players to make time for the players' studies (Tredoux, 2014: personal interview). It is therefore recommended that the Free State Cheetahs Pty (Ltd) use the same concept for the senior contracted players.

As mentioned in Chapter 4 and 5, only 21.90% of senior contracted Free State rugby players indicated that they spent more than 24 hours a week on rugby-related activities. Therefore, if coaches and players plan properly to manage their time

efficiently, there is enough time to reach both objectives of playing professional rugby and studying for a second career. The senior contracted players do not have to complete a degree in three years; they can extend their studies, which will help them to reach the balanced objective of playing professional rugby and obtaining a degree.

Likewise, the players who are not interested in furthering their education can, with proper planning and time management, develop business skills by becoming involved in a company, starting their own business or buying shares in a company.

The statistically significant higher level of post-rugby career planning found amongst those who have a doctoral/ bachelor's degree and those who own their own business or shares in a company highlights the importance of the abovementioned recommendations.

Although high levels of career awareness were found overall in all the contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players, there was a statistically significant difference between players that do have another occupation besides rugby and those who do not. It is therefore recommended that those players who are not interested in furthering their education or owning a business start investing time in obtaining actual work experience. In terms of their career transition needs, the players indicated it would be most helpful if there were a programme that would assist them in obtaining actual work experience. It is therefore recommended that the Free State Cheetah Pty (Ltd) give the players the opportunity to join a programme where they would gain actual work experience. The company does not have to take the responsibility of ensuring that the players utilize the programmes, because the players did indicate that it was primarily their own responsibility. The company only has to introduce the players to a work experience programme and give them the necessary time to utilize this programme if they want to meet the contracted players' career transition needs.

The work experience programme can be in the form of an agreement between the Free State Cheetahs Pty (Ltd) and their sponsors. The sponsors can provide work experience opportunities for the players and the Free State Cheetah Pty (Ltd) can provide the sponsors with marketing space either in the stadium or on the players' clothing.

The ultimate prize would obviously be if the Free State Cheetah Pty (Ltd) could provide both a programme and support on the career development of the players, which would ultimately improve the rugby player's chance for a successful transition out of rugby. The question that must be asked here is, does the company have the necessary social and financial will to support and implement a programme that will improve the player's chance of a successful transition out of rugby.

Very little research has been done on the career development of professional rugby players and studies are limited to case studies, master's and doctoral studies. No career-development model has yet been designed specifically for rugby players and this will be a handy instrument to develop research further in this field.

It is recommended that further research be done in terms of the possible difference between planning for a post-rugby career and the actual involvement in pursuing a post-rugby career.

Future research is needed to establish if the junior contracted players finished or continued with their studies, even if they went on to play at a higher level.

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APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE

Career Development Assessment

Section 1

Please tick the appropriate block (except for 1.8 and 1.9 which should be filled out) and specify where necessary

1.1	Age	19 and under	<input type="checkbox"/>
		20 - 24	<input type="checkbox"/>
		25-29	<input type="checkbox"/>
		30-35	<input type="checkbox"/>
1.2	Marital status	Single	<input type="checkbox"/>
		married	<input type="checkbox"/>
		seperated	<input type="checkbox"/>
		divorced	<input type="checkbox"/>
1.3	Highest level of education	Primary education	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Secondary education:	
		Grade 10	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Grade 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Grade 12	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Tertiary education:	
		Certificate	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Specify:	_____
		Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Specify:	_____
		Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Specify:	_____
		Postgraduate diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Specify	_____
		Bachelors Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Specify:	_____
		Masters Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Specify:	_____
		Doctorate Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Specify:	_____
1.4	If given the opportunity, what level of education would you want to attain?	Specify:	_____
1.5	Highest level of rugby participation	Academic week	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Craven week	<input type="checkbox"/>
		SA Academic	<input type="checkbox"/>
		SA Schools	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Provincial U/19	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Provincial U/21	<input type="checkbox"/>
		SA U/20	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Varsity Shield	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Varsity Cup	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Vodacom Cup	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Currie Cup	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Super 15	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Springboks	<input type="checkbox"/>

- 1.6 Have you completed other education or training programs(e.g. coaching or referee)?
- Yes
- No
- If yes, specify: _____
- 1.7 What is the average amount of time you spend participating in rugby related activities each week?
- 9 hours or less
- 10 to 14 hours
- 15 to 19 hours
- 20 to 24 hours
- 25 to 29 hours
- 30 to 34 hours
- 35 to 39 hours
- 40 + hours
- 1.8 How long have you been playing as a contracted rugby player?
- Years
- Months
- 1.9 How many more years would you expect to play as a contracted player?
- Years
- 1.10 Do you have your own business/own shares in a company?
- Yes
- No
- If yes, specify _____
- 1.11 Do you currently have another occupation?
- Yes
- No
- If yes, specify _____

Section 2

Below is a list of statements about thoughts, feelings and behaviours that may or may not apply to you.

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the number that best corresponds with your answer.

Strongly disagree	1	opposite to me or my views
Disagree	2	generally opposite to me or my views
Agree	3	generally like me or my views
Strongly agree	4	like me or my views

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
2.1	I consider myself an athlete	1	2	3	4
2.2	I have many goals related to sport	1	2	3	4
2.3	Most of my friends are athletes	1	2	3	4
2.4	Sport is the most important part of my life	1	2	3	4
2.5	I spend more time thinking about sport than anything else	1	2	3	4
2.6	I need to participate in sport to feel good about myself	1	2	3	4
2.7	Other people see me mainly as an athlete	1	2	3	4
2.8	I feel bad about myself when I do poorly in sport	1	2	3	4
2.9	Sport is the only important thing in my life	1	2	3	4
2.10	I would be very depressed if I were injured and could not compete in sport	1	2	3	4

Section 3

Below is a list of statements about thoughts, feelings and behaviours that may or may not apply to you.

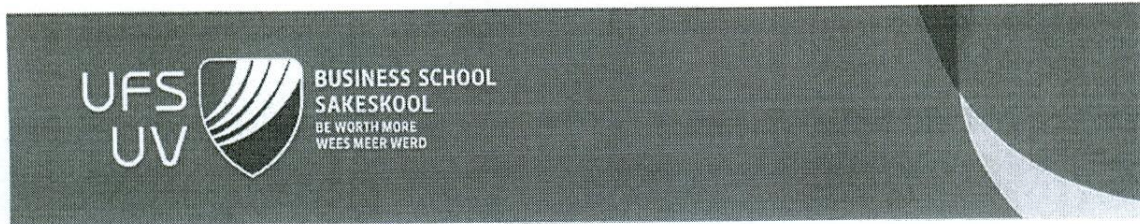
Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the number that best corresponds with your answer.

Strongly disagree	1	opposite to me or my views
Disagree	2	generally opposite to me or my views
Agree	3	generally like me or my views
Strongly agree	4	like me or my views

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
3.1	I think about my rugby career ending	1	2	3	4
3.2	I delay planning for a post-rugby career	1	2	3	4
3.3	I feel that I have acquired skills in rugby that could be used in a variety of other careers	1	2	3	4
3.4	I can describe, specifically, the type of career I desire (not rugby)	1	2	3	4
3.5	I know what education and skills are required for this career (not rugby)	1	2	3	4
3.6	I understand the value of a current resume/ curriculum vitae	1	2	3	4
3.7	I have set career goals to help me gain employment	1	2	3	4
3.8	My career goals are long term as well as short term	1	2	3	4
3.9	I know my personal strengths, weaknesses, interests and skills	1	2	3	4
3.10	I can relate the above qualities to careers best suited to me	1	2	3	4
3.11	My selection of a career is realistic based upon my background, skills and interests	1	2	3	4
3.12	It is important to me to plan for a new career for when my rugby career ends	1	2	3	4

- 3.13 I believe that becoming a professional rugby player will secure my financial future 1 2 3 4
- 3.14 I have managed my finances to support myself and my family while I make a transition into a career after playing rugby 1 2 3 4
- 3.15 I am equipped to earn an income after I stop playing professional rugby 1 2 3 4
- 3.16 I think my spouse, significant other and/or family should be involved in helping me make a transition into a career after playing rugby 1 2 3 4
- 3.17 Which of the following programs would help you most? (Please rank in order 1-4 1= most helpful, 4= least helpful)
- a) Programs helping you identify your personal qualities and matching them to careers best suited to you
 - b) Programs helping you to obtain actual work experience related to your career choice or to a career best suited to you
 - c) Programs helping you to identify and initiate further education or training needed to attain your career goals
 - d) Programs helping you to develop and initiate a job search
- 3.18 When would you prefer that career planning programs and services be provided? (Please rank in order 1-3. 1= most preferred, 3 = least preferred)
- a) during my sport career
 - b) after my sport career
 - c) both during and after my sport career
- 3.19 If career transition programs are provided, who do you believe is primarily responsible to ensure that the programs are utilised? (Please rank in order 1- 4. 1= most responsible, 4= least responsible)
- a) The player
 - b) The coach
 - c) Free State Cheetah Pty Ltd
 - d) The coach and Free State Cheetahs Pty Ltd working together

APPENDIX B: LETTERS OF CONSENT



Consent to conduct a field study for the proposal: Investigating career development practices of contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players

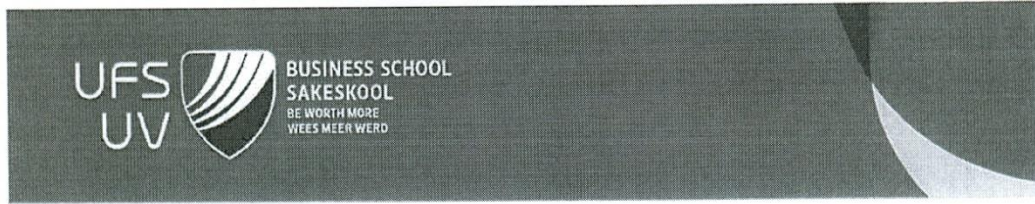
Herewith Free State Cheetah Pty (Ltd) gives consent to Nico Maritz, student number 2002003370, to conduct a field study in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Magister in Business Administration at the UFS business school. The purpose of this study is to investigate career development practices of contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players.

The purpose of the proposal was explained by the researcher and consent was given non-compulsory. The information obtained will not be published without further consent from the Free State Cheetah Pty (Ltd).

_____ at Bloemfontein on 10 March 2014

Harold Verster (CEO)

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'H. Verster', is written over a horizontal line.



Career Development Assessment (Rugby players)

Dear athlete

The following questionnaire is designed to investigate career development practices of contracted Free State Cheetah rugby players.

Please read each statement and indicate the answer applicable to you and ensure that you respond to every statement.

All questionnaires will be filled out anonymously and therefore the individual information obtained will be confidential.

Please sign at the bottom of the page to give your consent to participate in this study.

Your participation is much appreciated.

Nico Maritz
MBA Student
Business school
University of the Free State

Participant name: _____

Participant signature: _____

Date: _____

