Getting into the Game

Understanding the evidence for child-focused Sport for Development

UNICEF
Office of Research-Innocenti

BARÇA FOUNDATION & unicef

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Foreword

Sport is a powerful means by which to engage all children in activities for personal and social development and to help them achieve their full potential. From an early age, sport provides children – including the most marginalized – with the opportunity to develop their physical abilities and health, to socialize, to build leadership skills, to foster lifelong learning and to learn as well as to have fun. Furthermore, to engage in play and recreational activities is a child's right: The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (art. 31.1) clearly establishes "the right of the child to … leisure, to engage in play and recreational activities appropriate to the age of the child…".

Around the world more than 3,000 sport for development (S4D) initiatives are estimated to exist and about 1 in 500 children are estimated to participate in a sport for development initiatives based on analysis of data gathered from S4D programmes in this report. To harness the power of sport, and in its role as a champion for children's right to play, UNICEF has long been a proponent of sport and supports more than 263 sport initiatives in 99 countries around the world. Moreover, UNICEF, Barcelona Football Club (FC Barcelona) and the Barça Foundation have partnered since 2006 to reach over two million children to improve children's lives through sport, play and protection.

Yet, despite these many initiatives, S4D remains largely untapped as a tool to optimize outcomes for children, to help them access their rights and to contribute to achieving the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and child-focused United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). After review of their programming UNICEF and Barça Foundation also recognised a critical gap in the availability of robust evidence to underpin S4D practice and their project delivery and implementation. To remedy this situation, there is a critical need for high-quality research and evidence on how S4D initiatives work, what they achieve and how they can complement existing programmes and empower the most vulnerable children and communities across the globe to fully achieve every child's full potential and their right to play.

As first of its kind global study, this report aims to address the dearth of evidence on the implementation and impact of S4D policy and programming for children. To do this, the report assesses, systematizes and maps existing evidence on S4D policies and programmes through desk-based research. Quality counts, so each chapter first assesses the evidence for its conceptual coherence, methodological and analytical strength, relevance/generalizability to the S4D field at large, and ethical considerations, before discussing the main messages and recommendations to come out of the evidence. The key messages and main conclusions have also been developed by seeking programming information from S4D programming both within UNICEF, the Barça Foundation and around the world.

The report represents the first stage in a two-phase research project that focuses on four key outcome areas closely linked to the SDGs: education, social inclusion, child protection and empowerment. For each of these areas, the report sheds light on the strengths of child-focused S4D initiatives, the main challenges faced by the S4D sector, and recommendations for practitioners, policymakers and researchers to consider when designing and implementing programmes to improve the lives and well-being of children and young people. The intention is to strengthen the evidence base for cross-national learning and, through this, revive the global focus on S4D as a key intervention to address the needs and rights of children and young people in all countries.

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Acknowledgements

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Acronyms and initialisms

C4D	Communication for Development
CDC	Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
CO	UNICEF Country Office
CBIM	Coaching Boys Into Men
EAPR	East Asia and Pacific region
EAPRO	East Asia and Pacific Regional Office (UNICEF)
ECAR	Europe and Central Asia region
ECARO	Europe and Central Asia Regional Office (UNICEF)
ESAR	Eastern and Southern Africa region
ESARO	Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Office (UNICEF)
GBV	gender-based violence
GSM	gender and sexual minorities
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOC	International Olympic Committee
LACR	Latin America and Caribbean region
LACRO	Latin America and Caribbean Regional Office (UNICEF)
LGBTQi	Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer and intersex
M&E	monitoring and evaluation
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MYSA	Mathare Youth Sports Association
NGO	non-governmental organization
PLAY	Promoting Life Skills in Aboriginal Youth
SAR	South Asia Region
S4D or SfD	Sport for Development
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals (United Nations)
SDP	Sport for Development and Peace
SUPER	Sports United to Promote Education and Recreation
TPSR	teaching personal and social responsibility
UN DESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
WASH	water, sanitation and hygiene
WCAR	West and Central Africa region
WCARO	West and Central Africa Regional Office (UNICEF)
WHO	World Health Organization
YES	Youth Experience Survey
YES-S	Youth Experience Survey for Sport

Executive summary

What is meant by sports, and why sports for children and for society?

Sport is any physical activity – participative or individual, organized or casual, competitive or not, and either rule-bound or unstructured – that represents a form of active play, active recreation, or a game. In this report, the term 'sport' is not limited to nationally recognized activities, such as those with professional leagues, and is applied equally to indigenous games and sports.

For children, engaging in play and recreational activities is a right. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (art. 31.1) establishes "the right of the child to … leisure, to engage in play and recreational activities appropriate to the age of the child…". Beyond being a child's right, sport and play appeal to children and, as such, are effective ways to engage children who might otherwise be hard to reach. Moreover, playing sport and engaging in diverse types of physical activity can provide opportunities for children and young people to develop agency and a sense of belonging in a group/community, to build leadership skills to nurture their learning and life skills, to generate positive behaviours and attitudes and to respond to exclusionary and negative practices and norms. For children in fragile contexts, sport can play an even greater role in promoting safety and learning (Korsik, Ivarsson, Nakitanda & Rosas, 2013).

For societies more broadly, a wealth of evidence points to the potential of sports – through Sport for Development (S4D) programming – to support the achievement of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) across a number of child-specific targets in SDG 1: No poverty; SDG 3: Good health and well-being; SDG 4: Quality education; SDG 5: Gender equality; SDG 8: Decent work and economic growth; SDG 10: Reduced inequalities; SDG 11: Sustainable cities and communities; and SDG 16: Peace, justice and strong institutions.

What is Sport for Development?

Sport for Development (S4D) refers to the use of sport, or any form of physical activity, to provide both children and adults with the opportunity to achieve their full potential through different types of initiatives that promote personal and social development. S4D organizations use the appeal of sport as an inclusive means by which to provide children with the opportunity to develop their physical abilities and health, and their social, educational and leadership skills, and, of course, to have fun. S4D initiatives come in diverse forms: from those that build personal and social development programmes around sport (which has been defined in the S4D literature as sport-plus initiatives) to those that include sport as one of many approaches to achieving their social goals (plus-sport initiatives). Some programmes use a 'sport-sport' model that focuses simply on sports training or participation, e.g., playing with a professional club or school sports team, which may not have any other principal objectives but may assume developmental outcomes can be achieved inherently. However, the diversity in S4D programming also suggests that different approaches to sport and non-sport objectives may fall outside of these three types of models and requires further nuanced typologies which can better support programming officers and policymakers aiming to design and implement S4D initiatives.

How popular are S4D for children initiatives?

Organizations at the international, national and local levels are implementing sport initiatives as an instrument for children's and young people's development. Since the early 2000s, there has been considerable growth in the number of S4D initiatives around the world, as well as in the number of organizations using sport as part of their chosen intervention. For example, Beyond Sport, a global organization based in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, convenes a network of 1,794 organizations with over 2,747 projects in 165 countries – many of which target children and young people.

To get a better idea of the extent of child-focused approaches to S4D, this study undertook two surveys. The first gathered information reported by UNICEF country offices to determine how many S4D initiatives are implemented by UNICEF. This UNICEF Country Office Sport for Development Survey collected information from 105 countries indicating that UNICEF has lead or supported 368 such initiatives between 2015 and 2019, not counting those implemented by offices working in high-income countries (where many partnerships with

sport organizations exist). The second survey, the UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey, sought information from independent organizations – including non-governmental organizations (NGOs), community-based organizations, organizations led by young people, international organizations and government-led organizations – across the globe. This survey has gathered data on the goals and implementation practices of 106 child-focused S4D programmes.

The need to strengthen the evidence base

While the numbers themselves show the extent of the popularity and use of S4D interventions, more needs to be known about S4D initiatives for children, including what initiatives work, how they work, within what context and for whom they work. The growth in the S4D sector has not been matched by a corresponding growth in research – and monitoring and evaluation (M&E) of S4D initiatives in particular remains an important area of interest. Analysis of the existing evidence on S4D points to gaps in quality research and in data availability, including a lack of understanding of how S4D initiatives work (Whitley et al., 2018), a gap in how programmes define why and how change occurs to achieve expected outcomes – otherwise summarised in theories of change, and a need to further develop the research methods used in S4D (Schulenkorf, Sherry and Rowe, 2016). The research has also failed to synthesize the current knowledge base, which hampers cross-national learning (UNICEF Civil Society Partnerships , 2015).

Unlocking the potential of sport initiatives to improve the lives of children and young people calls for high-quality evidence. Better and more robust evidence can provide the information needed to design and implement more effective S4D programmes and other types of S4D initiatives for children. It can also support the improvement of current practice as well as policymakers and programming officers aiming to develop S4D programming as an intervention to achieve outcomes for children. Finally, high-quality evidence in the S4D sector can help ensure that S4D interventions are getting the development right in sport for development.

The contributions and content of this report

To address the gap in evidence, this report aims to collate and strengthen the knowledge base in S4D, and in doing so provide the evidence needed to best position S4D initiatives in the suite of welfare interventions designed to improve children's lives (e.g., education policy or social policy) and to protect their right to engage in play and recreational activities. The report focuses on four key outcome areas for child development: education, social inclusion, child protection and empowerment. These outcome areas align with various SDGs and were deliberately selected to help link S4D evidence and action with efforts to achieve child-related SDGs (*see Chapter 1, Table 1.1*).

For each of these four areas, this report defines the outcome area and links it to sport, before assessing: (1) existing evidence on the effectiveness of S4D in achieving goals for the outcome area; (2) promising practices in S4D in relation to the outcome area; (3) an evidence-based theory of change for the outcome area; and (4) recommendations to improve and strengthen research, policy and programming in the S4D sector to benefit the outcome area.

What evidence has been gathered and how

This report is a synthesis of findings from an integrative literature review – a systematic mapping of the available evidence – and from the two surveys of S4D programming within UNICEF and by organizations around the world (delivered in eight languages). Both the literature review and surveys were conducted with the aim of understanding the existing evidence in each of the four key outcome areas: education, social inclusion, child protection and empowerment.

An integrative review was conducted to enable the research team to review studies that applied either qualitative or quantitative methodologies, or a mixed methods approach, with diverse data sources. More than 200 articles were reviewed for this report, of which 111 articles were accepted and included in the final analysis across all the outcome areas. The evidence reviewed spanned the 10-year period 2007-2017

(including some research subsequently published in 2018 and 2019) and was restricted to peer-reviewed articles, written in English or Spanish, about children and young people under 18 years of age or about programmes serving this age group. All articles reviewed were systematically mapped and synthesized according to specific criteria, including: primary objectives, enacting organization, year of initiative, target participants, sport, geographical location, study methodology, and results in relation to each of the four key outcome areas. In addition, the quality of research was evaluated for each article, based on three key criteria: conceptualization, internal validity of methods and analyses, and external validity/utility. Ethical considerations were also noted where possible. Most articles included in the analysis were identified as high to medium quality, and those assessed to be of low quality were excluded.

The two aforementioned surveys were designed and developed to further inform the analysis and provide a richer description of what works, and what gaps in evidence exist, while in some cases validating the programme theories of change developed in each chapter. The UNICEF Country Office Sport for Development Survey was specifically designed to gather relevant information from UNICEF regional and country offices on the types of S4D initiatives they lead or support. To find out what practitioners had to say about implementing S4D in practice, the UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey surveyed a total of 106 child-focused S4D programmes around the world. This online survey of S4D programmes was used to gather additional information about programme design, implementation strategies, M&E systems, partnerships and funding as well as participant populations. More S4D programmes were located in Africa than in other regions (42 per cent), and programmes tended to be located in upper middle- or lower middle-income countries. For example, in the Eastern and Southern Africa region, most S4D programmes were in South Africa. Programmes surveyed typically served early to middle adolescents (ages 10 to 14 years) for whom poverty was a common challenge, and participants were most commonly recruited to S4D programmes via the use of sport itself.

Sport can be a positive factor in children's lives

Well-designed S4D initiatives are improving the lives of children across the globe, according to the evidence analysed in this report. Sports activities increase children's access to, and participation in, initiatives and services – including for the most marginalized children – and thus promote equitable outcomes in learning, skills development, inclusion, safety and empowerment. That said, unlocking the full potential of sport initiatives to further improve the lives of children and young people calls for quality evidence to support advances in policymaking and programming and incorporate the voices of children and young people. Analysis in this report – designed to summarize the quality evidence on programme design and implementation in theories of change – points to diverse ways in which S4D initiatives can be improved.

Improving programme design

To achieve positive outcomes, the programme design and implementation plans for sport initiatives must be targeted towards specific objectives and/or strategies, for example, around education or empowerment. Across all four key outcome areas, the importance of context in programme design is key, which speaks directly to the need to understand both barriers to access and the needs of the community and individual children. Adopting a multi-sectoral and co-production approach in programme design is key to addressing concerns and achieving complementarities at the community and system level. In other words, S4D practitioners should work with other sectors and children's services as well as children and young people to build complementarity, capacity and effectiveness.

Strengthening the role of sports coaches and trainers

Sports coaches and trainers have a crucial role to play in generating positive outcomes for children, as they can instil positive behaviour and act as role models. Safeguarding children, especially the most vulnerable, in and around sport initiatives is of immense importance

and must be a priority in the training of S4D coaches and trainers. It is critical that the coaching and training staff involved in any S4D initiative have a diversity of experience in coaching that aligns with children's needs.

Building a culture of positive participation

Evidence shows that special care should be taken to ensure that sport initiatives do not reinforce negative sociocultural attitudes and norms that present a risk to children or to the initiative's goals. For example, S4D initiatives should not reinforce:

- sporting cultures that can normalize violence and/or unequal power relations;

- exclusiveness, whether because of peer behaviours or limited access; and

- pervasive structural and social inequalities.

Addressing risks and limitations to support outcomes for children and young people

It is critical to note that sport is not the answer to all of the issues faced by children and young people, and practitioners must recognize both the advantages and limitations of S4D. Some of the evidence may even indicate negative effects on children as a result of their participation in sport initiatives, for example, child protection risks, or contrasting gender equity effects of certain empowerment programmes which can further drive inequity between participating girls and boys. As mentioned in the previous section, S4D initiatives may even reinforce negative attitudes, behaviours and norms which may harm children and their development.

Furthermore, the survey results give an initial indication that S4D programmes that spend a greater proportion of time on sport rather than non-sport activities tended to report more children withdrawing from the intervention. This speaks to the importance of directly addressing risks and of striking the right balance between the amount of sport and the amount of personal and social

development involved in S4D initiatives. Children may, in fact, go for the sport and stay for the support. However, understanding how sport and non-sport activities are integrated and designing the right support is key to getting the development right in S4D.

Lessons learned from the literature review indicate that the very design of S4D programmes can make it challenging to distinguish the degree to which the sports activity itself is the reason for the observed programme effects. While S4D initiatives have been shown to achieve child outcomes, the extent to which sport can support outcomes for children and young people and translate into supporting the achievement of the SDGs should be further explored.

Evidence for decision-making

Better research and data are needed to support decision-making in programming, policy and advocacy, and it is hoped that this report will stimulate further efforts in this regard. There is a need to develop more robust quantitative methods and high-quality qualitative research as well as effective impact evaluations that can contribute to the field of knowledge. It is essential to prioritize efforts to integrate children's voices in evidence generation and to reflect children's perspectives when setting programme goals such as multidimensional social inclusion.

Where next? Building Phase 2 of the child-focused S4D project and research

This project will continue to build the evidence base for S4D to empower policymakers and practitioners to meet the needs of all children they represent and support. At the same time, it will continue to raise awareness of the joint ambitions of the Barça Foundation and UNICEF to strengthen the global discourse on effective S4D programming and to advocate for S4D initiatives as a key intervention to achieving child development outcomes. It will do so by, among other things: developing and undertaking Phase 2 of the research; supporting the work of the Sport for

Development for Children Working Group[1]; and further adding to the evidence base by continuing to manage the UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey and publish its data.

Building on the results of Phase 1 of the research, Phase 2 aims to illustrate the unique contribution of sports to development for child and young people using high-quality evidence from field research. The second phase will test the findings of this first phase of the research, including the various theories of change developed, and will involve analysis of secondary data collected via the S4D programmes identified in the UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey. Primary data collection tool(s) will also be designed, piloted and refined to complement the secondary data analysis and to help understand the common characteristics and practices necessary for the transferability and scaling up of S4D initiatives in different settings (e.g., emergency and non-emergency contexts). This will involve meaningful consultation with young people, S4D experts and other stakeholders. In its final stage, Phase 2 will translate the knowledge acquired throughout the project into policy, practice and actionable recommendations for the Working Group.

The outputs of this report, and Phase 2 of the project, will support the goal-setting, tasks and outputs of each of the subgroups in the Working Group, including in relation to: (1) framework development; (2) advocacy; (3) M&E; (4) data collection; and (5) literature and case study development. Together with the members of the Working Group, the S4D project researchers will support the creation of a Sport for Development for Children Framework, which will provide the structure for S4D for children programmes to foster a stronger foundation to enable S4D organizations, sports clubs and foundations, and NGOs, among others, to better design, implement, monitor and evaluate S4D initiatives for children.

Finally, to continue to build the current evidence base on S4D programming, the UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey will remain live.[2]

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[1] Since 2006, UNICEF and the Barça Foundation have joined efforts to implement development initiatives in multiple countries, and, most recently, the partnership implemented a new approach by initiating a series of reflections around Sport for Development (S4D) for Children and convening an S4D for Children Working Group, consisting of multi-stakeholders, including sport organizations and networks, S4D initiatives, athletes, governments, non-governmental organizations, the private sector, academics and UN agencies. Informed by this research project, the Working Group aims to develop a framework and tools for S4D organizations and other key stakeholders by convening twice per year for members to share their knowledge and experience on S4D, debate around the concept of S4D for children—particularly how it can contribute to the four outcomes—and discuss the research findings.

[2] United Nations Children's Fund, UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey, 'Building an evidence base for Sport for Development', <https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/Sport4DevSurvey>, accessed 9 March 2019.

Chapter 1
Sport for Development for children

This first chapter sets the scene for understanding the role of Sport for Development (S4D) for children, by defining what is meant by sport and by establishing its importance in meeting children's needs and in contributing to the goals of societies everywhere, including the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The global coverage of, rationale for and overarching lessons from S4D practice are presented. How S4D programmes are framed in the work of key international organizations is also introduced. Finally, the purpose and methods of this study are outlined in more detail.

1.1 Introduction

Engaging in play and recreational activities is the right of a child. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (art. 31.1) establishes "the right of the child to... leisure, to engage in play and recreational activities appropriate to the age of the child...". Sport can support the right of all children to play and engage in some type of physical activity not only for their physical well-being but also for their overall well-being when initiatives are designed with the intention of achieving child development goals and fulfil their rights, such as to educational outcomes and safe environment.

'Sport for Development' (S4D) refers to the use of sport, or any form of physical activity, to provide both children and adults with the opportunity to achieve their full potential through programmes that promote personal and social development. Sport can include any physical activity – participative or individual, organized or casual, competitive or not, and either rule-bound or unstructured – that represents a form of active play, active recreation or a game. In this report, the term 'sport' does not refer to elite or professional sport and is not limited to nationally recognized activities, such as those with professional leagues, but also includes indigenous games and sports. All children can engage in sport and have a right to play and recreational activity, for a myriad reasons and outcomes including for fun and for skills development.

S4D programmes serving children may use sport in different ways. Some programmes use a 'sport-sport' model that focuses simply on sports training or participation, e.g., playing with a professional club or

school sports team, with no other principal objectives but with the assumption that development outcomes will be achieved without purposeful design. In the field of S4D, however, it is common for programmes to either adopt a 'sport-plus' or 'plus-sport' approach (Coalter, 2010, 2006). Sport-plus initiatives build personal and social development programmes around sport but their chief focus is sport. Plus-sport programmes, on the other hand, include sport as one of many approaches to achieving their social goals, such as educational outcomes or behaviour change, and use sport mainly to attract participants. While these models help to categorise S4D programming, their diversity and the various ways sport and non-sport activities are designed integrated suggests that S4D programming may fall outside of this typology and instead are better captured along a spectrum of S4D initiatives.

This chapter, therefore, sets the scene for this report and explains the rationale, aims and methods applied in the research study to begin to understand child-focused S4D initiatives. It also includes a discussion of the institutional actors currently active in the field of S4D (at national and international levels, and in policy and practice), what they are doing and how this study will contribute to their work. The chapter is organized as follows: section 1.2 provides an overview of previous synthesis studies and how these helped to set the aims of this work; section 1.3 introduces existing international frameworks in S4D; and sections 1.4 and 1.5 complete the chapter, by looking respectively at the study's theoretical frame and analytical plan.

1.2 Existing research evidence on sport for development

Several systematic reviews and various grey literature published on S4D provide some insight into why sport is important for child development, the challenges that S4D presents and recommendations of how to move forward. This information was useful in determining the focus of the literature review for the present study *(see section 1.3.6)*.

1.2.1 Importance of sport for child development

There is clear consensus that, appropriately provided, sport can have positive impacts on child development outcomes. The types of outcomes achieved varied across the evidence, however, and – as indicated by the findings of each of the chapters of this report – the outcomes may be determined by the type of sport used, the setting for the intervention and other key programming levers. Nevertheless, recent reviews of the S4D literature reveal a relationship between children's and young people's participation in sport and various types of personal and social development outcomes, including life skills (e.g., self-efficacy, confidence, self-esteem), social cohesion, education outcomes, psychosocial outcomes and physical health and well-being (Coalter and Taylor, 2010; Langer, 2015; Schulenkorf et al., 2016; Evans et al., 2017; Jones, Edwards, Bocarro, Bunds and Smith, 2017). Moreover, S4D can be an important intervention for the most vulnerable children, as sport can contribute to their emotional, cognitive and social skills (Hermens, Super, Verkooijen and Koelen, 2017).

Understanding these positive effects of sport on children and young people, UNICEF has advocated for the role of sport, recreation and play in child development from early childhood to adolescence, in areas such as health, education and social inclusion since 2000 (*see Box 1.1*). During the initial stages of UNICEF involvement in the field of S4D, a report supported by existing research highlighted the multiple potential benefits of sport (UNICEF, 2004). These potential benefits include: better health; preparation for learning; reduced stress and depression; improved confidence and self-esteem; improved learning and academic performance; reduced likelihood of smoking and illicit drug use; and reduced crime. Evidence from actual case studies showed, however, that the positive effects of sport participation were limited to: improving children's ability to cement friendships; providing children with a quality education; and helping to raise awareness among young people about HIV and AIDS.

While such results illustrated that sport was more likely to be associated with short-term individual-level outcomes for children rather than long-term development outcomes, S4D evidence from both the literature review and programmes surveyed as part of the present study indicate that child development outcomes can also align with and link to the SDGs, including SDG 1: No poverty; SDG 3: Good health and well-being; SDG 4: Quality education; SDG 5: Gender equality; SDG 8: Decent work and economic growth; SDG 10: Reduced inequalities; SDG 11: Sustainable cities and communities; and SDG 16: Peace, justice and strong institutions. For reference, specific SDG targets that have been identified as being clearly aligned with the advantages, successes and potential of S4D programming evidenced in the report are outlined in *Table 1.1*.

For example, a recent impact evaluation of the UNICEF Just Play programme in the Pacific Islands region focuses on the power of sport to promote positive health changes, the inclusion of girls, women and persons with disabilities, and enhanced teaching by and inspiration and engagement of practitioners (UNICEF, 2018). Child development outcomes covered in the impact evaluation report include: health and wellness; gender equality; social inclusion; water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH); child protection; and emergencies, with a focus on how these outcomes connect to selected SDGs. Results show that engagement with the Just Play programme has resulted in a 35 per cent improvement in child protection (e.g., safety after natural disaster, although scores remained low), a 29 per cent improvement in health and wellness (i.e., WASH), a 20 per cent improvement in social inclusion (e.g., celebration of differences) and a 19 per cent improvement in gender equality (e.g., boys enjoy playing football with girls) *(See Box 4.2 for further information on the Just Play programme)*. While positive results are evident with this programme, there is a need to better understand outcomes that can lead to individual and collective behavioural change and eventual impact to better align with the SDGS.

Box 1.1 UNICEF and sport for children: Lessons from the field

Across UNICEF, country offices have implemented 368 S4D initiatives across 105 countries and 7 UNICEF global regions *(see Figure 1.1)*. The UNICEF Country Office Sport for Development Survey expanded on the last internal S4D mapping report (UNICEF, 2015) and surveyed UNICEF country offices on their use of S4D programming to achieve child development outcomes. The majority of S4D initiatives were implemented in Latin America and the Caribbean (24%), followed by Europe and Central Asia (24%), East Asia and Pacific (13%) and Eastern and Southern Africa (12%).

The S4D initiatives led or supported by UNICEF Country Offices were designed with the aim of focusing on social inclusion (34%), as well as education outcomes (30%) and child protection

(19%) and *(see Figure 1.2 and Annex 1.A.)*. The advantages and opportunities of using S4D programming most frequently reported by UNICEF country offices included: sport being valued more by society and/or reaching a broader audience; governments paying greater attention to sport; and the existence of strong partnerships between the country office and government, private sector businesses and civil society in support of S4D programming.

While these numbers and reported strengths show the extent of the popularity and use of S4D initiatives, more needs to be known about the effectiveness of S4D initiatives for children and their participation.

Figure 1.1 Locations of S4D programmes led or supported by UNICEF country offices

0   No. of programmes   11
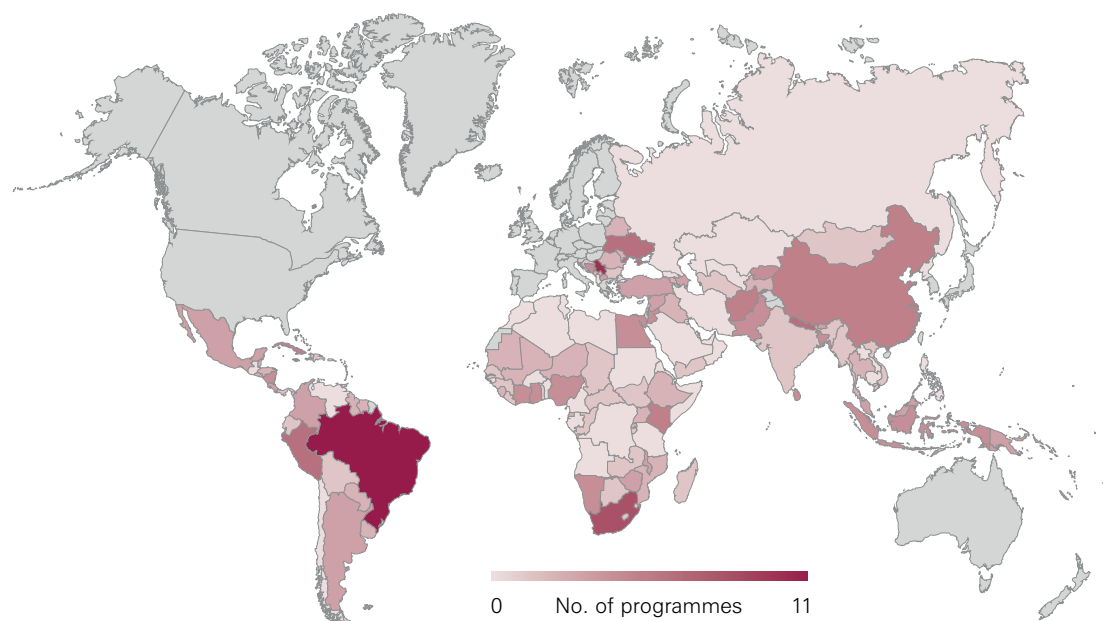
Notes: Results are based on analysis of UNICEF documents and UNICEF Country Office Sport for Development Survey results. For a breakdown of the number of programmes by country, see the online annex at <www.unicef-irc.org>. Not shown: Joint regions (e.g., Eastern Caribbean = one programme)
Source: UNICEF-Innocenti, 2019. Based on analysis of *Country Office S4D Survey* results within UNICEF and UNICEF Annual Reports from 2015-2019.

Figure 1.2 S4D programmes and key characteristics by UNICEF country offices

In which regions are S4D programmes found?

Region	Percentage
LACR	~24%
ECAR	~19%
EAPR	~14%
ESAR	~14%
WCARO	~11%
SAR	~11%
MENA	~7%
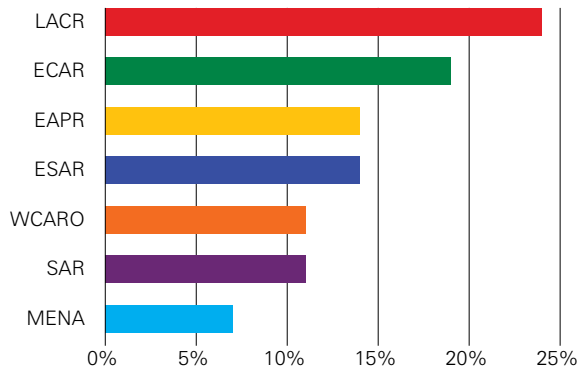
What are the focus areas of S4D programmes?

Focus area	Percentage
Education	~35%
Child protection	~27%
Social inclusion	~22%
Health	~14%
Empowerment	~11%
Communication	~8%
Peace building	~8%
Adolescence	~8%
Other	~24%
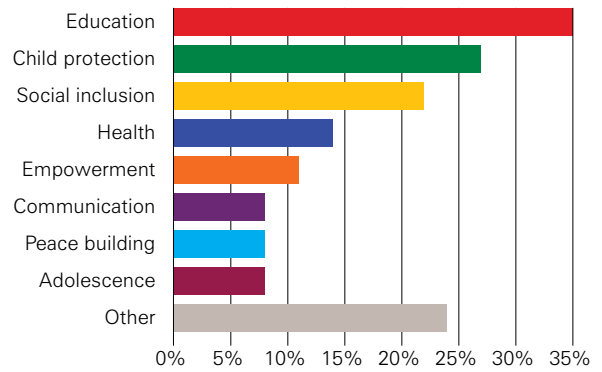
Strengths of S4D approach

- **23%** Broad national audience values sport
- **20%** Government pays attention to sport
- **17%** Partnerships/networking for sport
- **20%** Other
- **10%** Sport as an educational tool
- **10%** CO capacity as a resource for sport
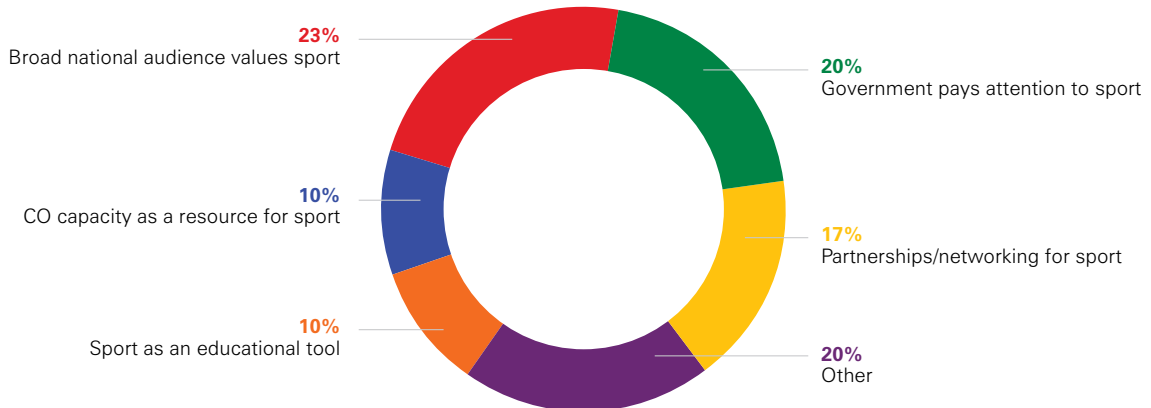
Challenges of S4D approach

- **31%** Fundraising
- **19%** S4D policy and practice
- **13%** Technical/staff capacity
- **10%** Other
- **8%** Material resources/infrastructure
- **6%** School-related issues (delivery of PE training infrastructure)
- **6%** Safety
- **6%** Social norms
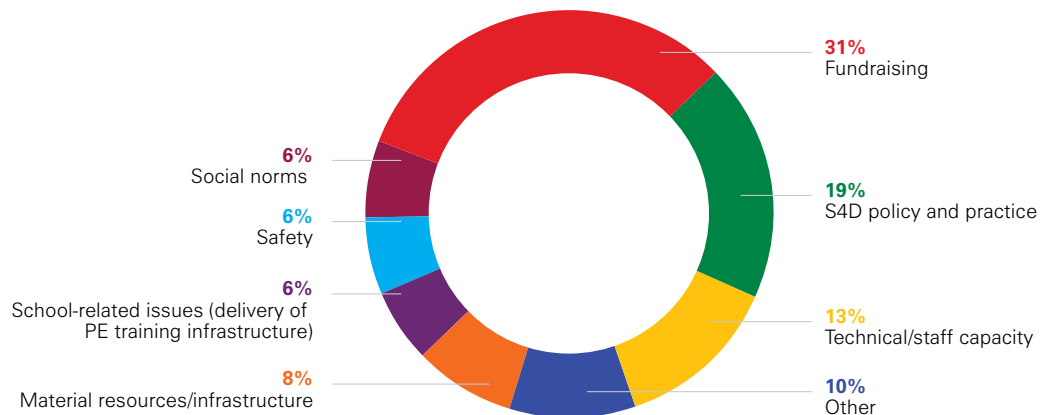
Figure 1.2 continued

Many S4D programmes have several partners, who do they partner with?

59%
ministries of education

41%
ministries of youth and sport

46%
NGOs

40%
sport clubs and associations
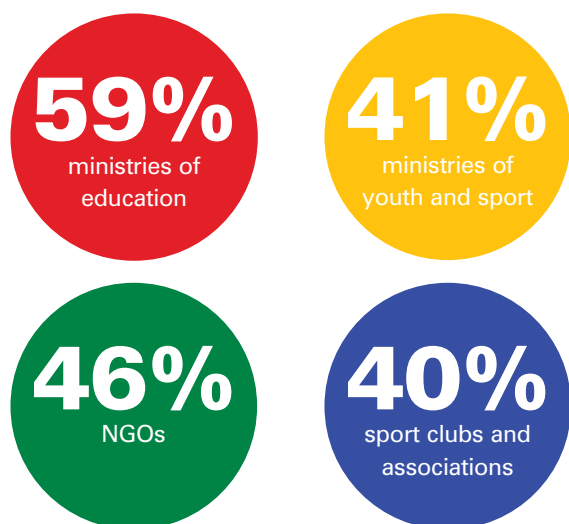
Which S4D outcomes are common to different regions?

	Education	Social Inclusion	Child Protection	Empowerment (participation)
LACRO				
ECARO				
EAPRO				
ESARO				
WCARO				
ROSA				
MENA				

Notes: Results are based on document analysis and survey results within UNICEF.
Source: UNICEF-Innocenti, 2019. Based on analysis of *Country Office S4D Survey* results within UNICEF

1.2.2 S4D outcomes reviewed in this report

To contribute to the current S4D sector and build on the evidence on child development outcomes, this report is organized in four broad outcome areas which were selected to reflect common trends in both S4D programming and child development outcomes, as supported by existing evidence. They were also deliberately selected to align with child-focused SDGs and link findings on S4D programming with efforts to achieve key SDGs *(see Table 1.1)*. These key outcome areas, which are the focus of each chapter are: education, social inclusion, child protection and empowerment.

The selection of these outcomes is justified for two reasons. First, as noted above, the existing evidence examined for this introductory chapter strongly suggests that education, social inclusion, child protection and empowerment are important S4D outcomes, both in terms of why sport is important for child development and what works, and also in terms of risks associated with S4D for children (especially in terms of child protection, e.g., reduction of violence among children). Finally, the focus is on these individual-level child development outcomes because, as the existing literature shows there is an expectation-evidence gap in terms of sport's contribution to larger development goals. Nevertheless, throughout the report emphasis is placed on the contextual factors important not only for individual child development, but also for social and community development for all children.

Second, these four areas are key to children's rights, social sectors and focus area of the work undertaken by UNICEF around the globe. The UNICEF Country Office Sport for Development Survey showed that the top three focus areas for S4D initiatives supported by UNICEF are: education, social inclusion and child protection, with health and empowerment tied for fourth place (*see Box 1.1* and for a full list of target outcomes for S4D programming by region as reported by UNICEF country offices, *see Annex 1.A*). Empowerment was selected over health because it is linked to other focus areas such as adolescent development and Communication for Development (C4D). Also, other United Nations agencies such as the World Health Organization (WHO) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) are already leading efforts on research linking sport and physical activity, and physical education to health.

Table 1.1 Sustainable Development Goals and targets by key outcome area

Outcome Area	Sustainable Development Goals	Specific Targets	
Education	SDG 4. Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all	4.1	By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and Goal-4 effective learning outcomes
		4.2	By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education so that they are ready for primary education
		4.4	By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship
		4.7	By 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture's contribution to sustainable development
		4.C	By 2030, substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers, including through international cooperation for teacher training in developing countries, especially least developed countries and small island developing states
	SDG 8. Promote inclusive and sustainable economic growth, employment and decent work for all	8.6	By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training
Social inclusion	SDG 1. End poverty in all its forms everywhere		
	SDG 4. Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all	4.5	By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations
		4.A	Build and upgrade education facilities that are child, disability and gender sensitive and provide safe, nonviolent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all
	SDG 5. Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls	5.1	End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere
	SDG 8. Promote inclusive and sustainable economic growth, employment and decent work for all	8.6	By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training
	SDG 10. Reduce inequality within and among countries	10.3	Ensure equal opportunity and reduce inequalities of outcome, including by eliminating discriminatory laws, policies and practices and promoting appropriate legislation, policies and action in this regard
	SDG 11. Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable	11.7	By 2030, provide universal access to safe, inclusive and accessible, green and public spaces, in particular for women and children, older persons and persons with disabilities
	SDG 16. Promote peaceful and inclusive societies	16.7	Ensure responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision-making at all levels
		16.B	Promote and enforce non-discriminatory laws and policies for sustainable development

Outcome Area	Sustainable Development Goals	Specific Targets	
Child protection	SDG 3. Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages	3.5	Strengthen the prevention and treatment of substance abuse, including narcotic drug abuse and harmful use of alcohol
	SDG 4. Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all		
	SDG 5. Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls	5.2	Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation
	SDG 8. Promote inclusive and sustainable economic growth, employment and decent work for all	8.6	By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training
	SDG 11. Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable	11.7	By 2030, provide universal access to safe, inclusive and accessible, green and public spaces, in particular for women and children, older persons and persons with disabilities
	SDG 16. Promote peaceful and inclusive societies	16.2	End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children
Empowerment	SDG 1. End poverty in all its forms everywhere	1.5	By 2030, build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters
	SDG 5. Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls	5.5	Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life
	SDG 8. Promote inclusive and sustainable economic growth, employment and decent work for all	8.6	By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training
	SDG 10. Reduce inequality within and among countries	10.2	By 2030, empower and promote the social, economic and political inclusion of all, irrespective of age, sex, disability, race, ethnicity, origin, religion or economic or other status
	SDG 16. Promote peaceful and inclusive societies	16.7	Ensure responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision-making at all levels

Notes: See more information at the following link: https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals/
Source: United Nations, 2019.

1.2.3 Factors that work when using sport for child development

Imperative to the success of child-focused S4D interventions are several contextual factors, including features of the sport itself, the sport/community environment, and programme design. For example, Evans et al. (2017) found evidence that team sports, less competitive sports settings, and greater number of hours of sports participation were linked to positive psychosocial outcomes among young people. In addition, research has also shown that conditions conducive to the acquisition of life skills in sports contexts include: problem-solving opportunities, a sense of belonging, positive peer relations and positive youth-adult partnerships (Hermens et al., 2017). On the last point of youth-adult partnerships, Jones et al. (2017) also found that in sports settings such as communities and schools, contextual assets include coaches, peers (sport and non-sport) and other adults (familial and non-familial).

Other factors associated with impactful S4D programming include: contextually and culturally sensitive approaches that use participatory techniques (e.g., dialogue and multi-level partnerships); targeted goals and trained staff; long-term funding; and a sense of safety (Webb and Richelieu, 2015). Similarly,

Schulenkorf et al. (2016) found some key patterns emerging from research on successful S4D programming that may be useful for theory building. These include: the presence of positive role models and change agents in the programme; the use of participatory approaches; the need for intentional design, especially when integrating development targets/social outcomes; the provision of safe spaces for community engagement; and the need for committed funds and empowerment (i.e., the transfer of power to local contexts for sustainability).

1.2.4 The challenges in using sport to promote children's and young people's development

From a research perspective, key challenges to using sport to promote the development of children and young people include both the nature and quality of the available research evidence and the existing scope and direction of the research field at large.

1.2.4.1 Nature and quality of research evidence

Systematic reviews point to the major challenge presented by the issue of weak evidence, or a lack of robust evidence, in the field of S4D (Whitley, et al., 2018; Barkley, Sanders and Barkley, 2018; Langer, 2015; Cronin, 2011). The mapping of the research by Cronin (2011) provided an initial snapshot of the research from 2005 and found weaknesses in the evidence which focused on the individual level outcomes and Northern countries. Both Whitley et al. (2018) and Barkley, Sanders and Barkley (2018) use similar systematic literature review methods to find that globally and within South Africa the academic and grey literature available is of low quality. More specifically, Langer's (2015) systematic review focused on Africa found that although there was evidence to support positive associations between sports participation and individual outcomes, there was no evidence to support a link with development indicators or goals. Using an evidence gap map, Langer (2015) shows that S4D initiatives in Africa tend to focus on 'low-hanging fruit' (intermediate outcomes that focus on short-term individual-level outcomes such as changes in knowledge, skills and attitudes) and lack the long-term follow-up to determine whether desired impacts on development have been met. Based on these results,

Langer (2015) concludes that the S4D field is out of sync with the typical development study's focus on what works. Thus, S4D research needs to improve its ability to demonstrate what works, why it works and for whom it works (Langer, 2015) – such as, in a programme theory of change, for example *(see section 1.3)*.

Jones et al. (2017) add that often insufficient information is provided about the programme theory to fully comprehend the 'how to' in terms of which activities and strategies work and what resources and capacities are needed to support them. Similarly, in their evaluation of six different S4D programmes, Coalter and Taylor (2010) found that it was possible to identify what happened (e.g., modest increases in self-efficacy, self-esteem, positive gender attitudes and HIV/AIDS awareness) but not why it happened or how it happened. Therefore, Coalter and Taylor (2010) caution against attributing such outcomes solely to sport, since they are more likely the result of a range of activities and experiences provided by the sport plus programmes. In addition, caution may need to be exercised when using an approach that emphasizes individual-level change without considering the structural limitations that are responsible for the issues faced (Coalter and Taylor, 2010). Some of the specific challenges that make evaluating the impact of S4D programmes difficult include: a lack of coherent programme theories; poorly defined outcomes; a lack of expertise and training in monitoring and evaluation (M&E); and a high turnover among NGO staff (Coalter and Taylor, 2010).

The literature also highlights M&E as an area of weakness which if improved, could strengthen the evidence-base in S4D given the formative role played by M&E (Coalter, 2006). M&E mechanisms could provide the basis for dialogue between organizations and sponsors, as well as for learning within organizations (e.g., in terms of needs analysis for capacity building), but there is a requirement for theory-driven, participatory process evaluations to understand how the programme is designed and conceptualized beyond inputs and outputs. Initial efforts by UNICEF to strengthen the evidence base in S4D for children led to the development – in collaboration with UK Sport and Magic Bus – of an M&E manual for S4D which went beyond the questions of 'why sport' and 'what works' to address

how S4D works (Coalter, 2006). The manual reviewed and synthesized case studies from India (Mumbai), Kenya, Zambia and Zimbabwe to help examine the processes that are important for effective S4D programme design, implementation, delivery and results. It provided a clear set of standards for the development and assessment of M&E systems in S4D. However, how programming officers and policymakers can implement S4D remains an area to further develop.

A UNICEF study also highlights gaps in understanding, including around types of violence such as psychological abuse and trafficking, and the need for education and training programmes for coaches, athletes and other stakeholders. The study examines the potential negative impacts of sport such as violence, seeking to demonstrate that "violence prevention, child protection and measures to safeguard the well-being of children are generally not yet embedded in sport delivery systems" (UNICEF, 2010, p. 23). Findings from the study also demonstrated the need for more research in lower- to middle- income countries and regions was needed, as well as for an evidence-based framework for violence prevention policies, particularly those relating to the protection of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer and intersex (LGBTQi) children, ethnic minorities, child athletes and children with disabilities. The report also called for data disaggregation to increase the representativeness and precision of the evidence, and for better M&E systems and research partnerships to ensure high-quality evidence.

Evidence from recent literature also finds a high risk of bias in research reporting (e.g., mismatch between research design, methods and analysis) among the evidence base in research on sport and psychosocial outcomes (Evans et al., 2017). Some research even suggests that the study methods used may have affected the results to some extent. For example, in one systematic review, qualitative studies were less likely than quantitative studies to report emotional life skills (indicating a possible disclosure issue). This is important because qualitative studies tend to dominate the field (Schulenkorf et al., 2016). But quantitative studies could also introduce bias, for example, by focusing on life skills that interest funders or on outcomes that the programme was not designed to achieve (Hermens et al., 2017).

1.2.4.2 Scope and direction of the research field

Differences in the scope and direction of S4D research create challenges for establishing greater understanding in what works and how. For example, some authors use evidence to argue that sport can contribute to development goals (e.g., diplomacy; Jackson, 2013; Nygard and Gates, 2013), and Sugden's "ripple-effect model" outlines a framework of interactions between S4D organsiations, participants and the various actors at different socio-political levels within a human rights context which aims to achieve development goals (Sugden, 2018). While other authors criticize the underlying theory that the "indoctrinating sport-related values into child athletes" will result in these values being transferred to community contexts where they can influence friends and family (Webb and Richelieu, 2015, p. 278). The expectation that sports interventions will naturally 'spill over' to have positive community effects is problematic because evidence suggests that the implicit transfer approach has not been effective in achieving S4D aims (Webb and Richelieu, 2015). Indeed, more explicit steps to achieving this transfer need to be set out along with quality evidence in regard to the transferability and generalisability of lessons learned from S4D initiatives. Simply put, for S4D to achieve its development goals, the scope of research in this field needs to be more practical, evidence-informed and focused, as well as include the voice of participants and programmes.

S4D research also tends to be dominated by psychological or sociological theories such as positive youth development, self-determination theory, achievement goal theory, social cognitive theory, identity theory and social capital theory (Jones et al., 2017; Schulenkorf et al., 2016). These theories from North America may not be the only relevant theories, however, and it is unclear whether these theories are simply driving research objectives or whether the evidence truly supports the relevance of these particular theories to S4D outcomes (Jones et al., 2017). For example, Lindsey (2017) contends that S4D has much to learn from development studies, while Schulenkorf et al. (2016) suggest there is a need for capacity building among S4D programming officers and researchers in low- to middle-income country contexts as well as for more research on disability and gender equality. Similarly, Lyras and

Peachey (2011) suggest that the framework they have set are guidelines which need to be contextualised and support programming officers to address social challenges. Furthermore, even when positive youth development has been the research focus, the study of risk behaviours and, to a lesser extent, depression dominates the field, with fewer studies about positive contributions (Jones et al., 2017).

A lack of consensus in the literature around the definition of sport further complicates these theoretical issues. For example, Coalter's for S4D programmes adopts a 'sport-plus' or 'plus-sport' approach which categorises initiatives into ones that focus primarily on sport and those which include sport as one of many approaches to achieving their social goals, such as educational outcomes or behaviour change, and use sport mainly to attract participants (Coalter, 2010, 2006). Webb and Richelieu (2015) theorize a 'sport complexity spectrum' that moves from less regulated forms of sport such as play and amateur sports to more regulated forms such as professional sport, mega-sporting events and sport used to promote nationalism. There is a need to understand the implications that these various conceptualizations of sport have for S4D outcomes among children. Nevertheless, the work undertaken in this research excludes elite and professional sport as being defined as part of S4D although some professional sports may also provide S4D initiatives.

1.2.5 Recommendations for overcoming research challenges

Despite the significant challenges, there are many options for improving the quality of evidence and the scope and direction of S4D research. To avoid what Coalter (2015) calls a 'displacement of scope' – when results from sport contexts are overgeneralized to communities and wider society – researchers should integrate sport and non-sport contexts as subjects of research inquiry *(Jones et al., 2017; see also Sugden, 2012 and Lyras and Peachey, 2011 for examples of this)*. Evans et al. (2017) also suggest modelling for complexity of participation patterns (e.g., using person-centred methods such as latent class analysis, which shows common patterns of overlap in experiences, known as 'classes' within data, and can be useful for designing targeted interventions) to better understand, and isolate from other programme effects,

the specific contribution of sport. Meanwhile, some authors also advocate examining the differences in outcomes based on implicit versus explicit transfer of skills, informal versus organized sports, and participatory approaches that involve various stakeholders (e.g., policymakers, sports organizations, coaches and parents) versus 'one-man shows' that involve a single organization or programme (Hermens et al., 2017).

According to Webb and Richelieu (2015), the following three key ingredients are required to support impactful S4D ventures: contextual intelligence, multi-level partnerships and focused targets. There is also room for more interdisciplinary approaches, and for better understanding of the surrounding context to enable available resources in communities to be tapped into through collaborative research/programme design approaches (Jones et al., 2017). Indeed, Sugden (2012), for example, explains the 'ripple-effect model' which suggests the inter-related connectedness of the different actors between the participants, communities, programming officers and other actors. The use of high-quality evidence to inform programme development and advocacy efforts is also critical (Evans et al., 2017). In particular, the development of programme theory allows for formative evaluations that better address questions of how and why, in addition to identifying entry points for capacity building (Coalter and Taylor, 2010).

The preliminary summary of the existing research evidence shows that although much more is known about what works than previously thought (at least for individual development), there remain substantial challenges facing the S4D field in terms of evidence for, coherence in and scope of practice *(see Figure 1.3)*. This leads to the identification of important research questions such as: Is the existing knowledge about what works actionable and transferable across contexts (i.e., does it include information on how it works and for whom)? And, importantly, how can this information about what is known to work be leveraged to create more efficient planning tools for designing, implementing, monitoring and evaluating S4D programmes for children? Proposing an evidence and theory-informed framework for S4D practice for children could help to begin to address such questions and provide answers for children's development through sport.

Figure 1.3 Summary of existing research evidence for problem identification

Why sport?

Social cohesion and peace
Education
Youth development
Health and psychological wellbeing
Moral reasoning
Competence
Confidence
Positive self-concept and identity
Life skills/social capital
Gender empowerment

What works?

Sport features
Team sports (alone or in conjunction with individual sports)
Less competitive sports
Greater hours of participation
Sport environment
Problem solving
Sense of belonging
Positive peer relations
Positive youth-adult partnerships (coaches, and other familial or non-familial adults)
Community environment
Community engagement
Empowerment (local ownership for sustainability)
Equitable access to sport
Social and financial safety
Programme design
Culturally sensitive approaches
Participatory approaches
Multilevel partnerships
Intentional design and targeted goals
Trained staff
Long-term funding

Challenges

Quality of research evidence
No evidence to support link to development goals
Lack of actionable evidence on what works, why and for whom
Lack of coherent program theories
Poorly defined outcomes
Lack of M&E expertise
High staff turnover
Risk of bias
Scope and direction of field
Gap between expectations and evidence
Dominance of Western theories
Need for theory generating approaches that are S4D-specific
Need for more inclusive coverage of child outcomes
Differing conceptualizations of 'sport'

Recommendations

Address complexity of participation patterns
Differentiate between explicit and implicit transfer
Interdisciplinary research
Evidence-informed advocacy
Contextual intelligence
Multilevel partnerships
Focused targets
Theory of change approach

Source: UNICEF Office of Research – Innocenti (2019). Based on evidence from literature reviewed for this chapter.

1.3 Existing frameworks

As well as the recommendations proposed by large-scale reviews of the literature, there are existing frameworks developed by international organizations that are useful in providing some direction for the improvement of S4D research (for a list of research and reports on S4D published by international organizations, *see Annex 1.B*).

As part of the United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace (formed in 2003), the Sport for Development and Peach International Working Group (SDP IWG) was established in 2004 with the mandate to deliver comprehensive policy recommendations to national governments on the integration of sport and physical activity into their

Figure 1.4 UNICEF Strategic Framework on Sport for Development

Challenges
Context and vulnerabilities, risks in and around sport

Assumptions			
Sport appeals to children	Sport has convening power	Sport is affective for achieving development outcomes for children	With appropriate design, outcomes can move to the level of families and communities

Inputs					
Sectoral policies	Resources (e.g., funding	Children and young people engaged in sport	Key sport and sectoral actors (e.g., programming officers)	Appropriately trained teachers and coaches	Infrastructure and events

Strategies, processes and activities				
Convening, collaborating and capacity-building for key actors	Strengthening the evidence base for policy and S4D programming	Designing and developing technical guidance and tools for use	Investing in and leveraging strategic partnerships	Advocating for children

Outputs				
Evidence- and rights-based advocacy and programme design	Provisions and innovative approaches for children and young people, esp. the most disadvantaged	Improved monitoring and evaluation processes, esp. formative evaluation	Iterative learning models for implementation	Strategic partnering

Outcomes	
Programme outcomes: Child development and well-being, quality education, child protection, social inclusion (esp. for girls and children with disabilities), adolescent development and empowerment	Strategic outcomes: advocacy, communication, brand building and resource mobilisation

Impact on child-focused SDGs

Source: Authors' elaboration, based on UNICEF (2011).

strategies, policies and programmes. On behalf of the SDP IWG, in 2008 Right to Play published its recommendations based on literature searches as well as the expertise and input of diverse stakeholders, included government representatives and NGOs. The Recommendations laid out in the report focus on the contribution of sport to health, education (with a focus on health as well), gender and empowering girls and women, addressing disabilities and social inclusion, and conflict prevention and peace-building (Sport for Development and Peach International Working Group, 2008).

Eight years later in 2016, the United Nations Action Plan on Sport for Development and Peace (United Nations General Assembly) identified work required in four main action areas to increase sport's contribution to the achievement of the SDGs: development of a global framework, policy development, resource mobilization and evidence generation. The main objectives of the global framework include stakeholder involvement, sharing of best practices, alignment with the SDGs, and advocacy. The aims for policy development are to integrate sport into other policies in the development

sector and to bridge the evidence gap that exists on implementation. The framework also proposes that resource mobilization should emphasize allocation of sustainable funding for multi-sector collaboration; address cross-cutting issues such as human rights, gender, disability and health; and work to effectively address the negative aspects of Sport for Development and Peace (SDP) initiatives. Lastly, the goal for evidence generation is to apply common standards and methods in research practices, the results of which should then be systematically disseminated on sharing platforms.

Following the 2017 closure of the United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace (UNOSDP), several organizations which have attempted to carry the vision forward in different forms by developing various frameworks which address child development outcomes to varying degrees, none of them were developed specifically for children.

In 2018, the United Nations Department for Economics and Social Affairs (UN DESA) was tasked with bringing together a report on the contribution of sport to the 2030 Agenda and developing a 'global framework for leveraging sport for development and peace' based on lessons learned from member states and other stakeholders.[1] UN DESA convened several experts in the S4D field to write discussion papers to inform revisions to the United Nations Action Plan on Sport for Development and Peace and its alignment with the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Kazan Action Plan.

Led by UNESCO, the Kazan Action Plan (UNESCO, 2017) aims to bridge the gap between S4D policy and implementation, acting as a "tool for aligning international and national policy … with the UN 2030 Agenda" (UNESCO, 39 C/Resolution 30, 2018, p. 37). It comprises five actions or goals to be developed/ achieved: 1) Advocacy tool, 2) Common indicators for measuring how sport, physical education and physical activity contribute to SDGs, 3) Improving international standards for sport ministers' interventions in sport integrity, 4) Feasibility study on establishing a Global Observatory for Women, Sport, Physical Education and

Physical Activity, and 5) Clearinghouse for sharing information according to the sport policy follow-up framework developed for MINEPS VI.[2]

The World Health Organisation (WHO) also has a global action plan framework that embraces a systems-based approach to increasing physical activity levels across all age groups and all settings (WHO, 2018). The global action plan – called More Active People for a Healthier World – seeks to mobilize sport, rather than S4D specifically, to mitigate the incidence of non-communicable diseases linked to inactivity (e.g., type 2 diabetes), and targets SDGs 4, 5, 10, 11 and 16 (WHO, 2018).

The International Olympic Committee (IOC) has an implementation guide for its Sport and Active Society programmes, which links to three different levels of outcomes, as supported by research evidence: individuals' physical and emotional well-being, effective public expenditure and happier communities. In collaboration with the UN, the IOC has also recognised the contribution of sport to the SDG 3, 4, 5, 8, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 16.

The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) also has an S4D implementation framework, specifically for refugees, which notes that multi-sector collaboration and participatory approaches are key to the success of S4D programmes in refugee camps (Korsik, Ivarsson, Nakitanda and Perez Rosas, 2013).

Meanwhile, the Commonwealth Secretariat has developed policy, advocacy and measurement frameworks that link sport to the SDGs (e.g., 3, 4, 5, 8, 11, 16 and 17) and is working toward the development of measurement indicators as called for by the Kazan Action Plan (Commonwealth Secretariat, 2018; Lindsey and Chapman, 2017; Dudfield and Dingwall-Smith, 2015; Kay and Dudfield, 2013).

In 2011, UNICEF developed a strategic framework for S4D for children *(see Figure 1.4)* and a guide to implementing S4D programmes, both to more widely introduce the use of sport as a tool for development for children and to map existing knowledge to avoid duplicate work (Barrie and Guerrero, 2013). In addition to

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[1] See the following link for more information: https://www.un.org/development/desa/dspd/sport-development-peace.html

[2] See the following link for more information: https://en.unesco.org/mineps6/kazan-action-plan

covering cross-cutting issues such as gender equality, social inclusion and participation, the guide outlined how the various dimensions of sport and play (physical, mental, emotional, social) have a differential impact on individual child development outcomes (e.g., the social aspect of sport contributes to trust, empathy, respect and tolerance of others) although how the programme is delivered is less clearly stated within the framework. The guide also included useful strategies for promoting inclusion (e.g., making changes to equipment, rules or environment; use of public arenas; same-sex programming; parental involvement).

An exception is the separate frameworks and guidelines developed by WHO for schools sports, children and adolescents (WHO, 2017, 2010, 2008), which recommend that children aged 5-17 years get a minimum of 60 minutes of physical activity each day. They also recommend that adolescents participate in structured physical activity in schools and communities, but sport is just one example of physical activity in those frameworks and is not the central concern. In addition, UNESCO as the lead agency on physical education and sport has developed guidelines for policymakers on quality physical education (UNESCO, 2017). One of the aims of this report is to provide more detailed and actionable programme theories tailored to specific child development outcomes associated with sport to complement the existing frameworks and develop the necessary tools to support the development of sport as a key intervention for child development.

1.4 Providing answers for children through evidence-informed S4D programming

To provide answers for children through S4D programming, this report addresses two key components of the United Nations Action Plan on Sport for Development and Peace by moving toward a global framework for children and by strengthening the evidence base. Following the review of the available literature on S4D for children and the results of the two surveys (the UNICEF Country Office Sport for Development Survey and the UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey), it was noted that there is currently no comprehensive tool

to support evidence-informed programme design, implementation and evaluation of S4D programmes that aim to specifically address issues faced by children.

To address this omission, each of the chapters of this report presents a theory of change for the relevant child outcome: education, social inclusion, child protection and empowerment. A theory of change describes and illustrates how and why change is expected to occur for a particular initiative (Rogers, 2014). More specifically, it includes a description of the inputs, activities and the various mechanisms which are identified as key for success and that may be monitored for progress lead to short-term outcomes and longer-term development outcomes (i.e. impact).

These evidence-based theories of change aims to inform the future development of a toolkit for S4D programmes serving vulnerable children and young people, based on Barça Foundation and UNICEF's Sport for Development for Children Framework. The toolkit will then serve as a planning tool to guide programme design, implementation, delivery and M&E for S4D programmes serving vulnerable children.

1.5 Methods and analytic strategy

An integrative literature review was conducted to systematically map the available across the four key outcome areas: education, social inclusion, child protection and empowerment (participation). In addition, a global UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey was conducted to examine practices among child-focused S4D programmes around the world. The survey analysis complements the evidence found in the literature.

1.5.1 Integrative literature review

In an integrative literature review, rigorous approaches are applied to problem identification, literature search, data analysis, data evaluation and the modelling of evidence synthesis (for the steps, *see Figure 1.5*). The integrative review method is particularly useful when reviewing studies that employ various methods, for example, both qualitative and quantitative research that uses diverse data sources ranging from cross-sectional and experimental data to case studies, policy reviews and conceptual papers (Whittemore and Knafl, 2005).

Figure 1.5 Integrative literature review method

Source: Adapted from Whittemore and Knafl (2005, p. 549).

Therefore, integrative reviews may be particularly suited to the study of 'emerging' fields such as S4D (Jones et al., 2017; Schulenkorf et al., 2016). Moreover, the particular strength of the integrative review that is most relevant to this report is its utility in developing models informed by evidence synthesis such as theories of change (Whittemore and Knafl, 2005), which is a major objective of this report.

More than 200 articles were reviewed for the present report, of which around 111 total were accepted and included in the final analysis for each chapter. The evidence reviewed spanned the 10-year period 2007-2017 (including some research subsequently published in 2018) and was restricted to peer-reviewed articles or studies about children and young people under 18 years of age or about programmes serving this age group.

The literature search was conducted on various research platforms, including Google Scholar and ERIC (Education Resources Information Center). Searches were also conducted on JSTOR, ProQuest, EBSCOhost, ScienceDirect, Scopus and SPORTDiscus. Additionally, the team searched archives of sport-specific journals such as *Sport in Society, International Review for the Sociology of Sport, Sport Management Review, Journal of Sport Management, European Sport Management Quarterly, Journal of Physical Education and Sport, International Journal of Sport Policy, Journal of Sport and Social Issues Politics, Journal of Sport and Social Issues, Journal of Sport for Development and Sport Education and Society.*

Articles published in a language other than English, French or Spanish were excluded. A shortlist of search terms was created, focusing on common terms related to sport, sport for development, children, youth, social inclusion, child protection and empowerment. Searches often turned up only a small number of relevant articles, however, which the team identified by screening titles and abstracts. To address this shortfall, several follow-up strategies were employed: keywords in relevant articles were used to refine subsequent searches; relevant citations found in the literature were followed up; and other specific criteria were added to help diversify the pool of articles surfaced, for example, to include a wider variety of geographical locations and intervention settings (e.g., schools, youth clubs, communities). Further details specific to each key outcome area reviewed are included in the relevant review chapter.

1.5.2 Systematic mapping and synthesis of evidence

Articles that met the inclusion criteria were read closely and systematically mapped based on specific criteria. The criteria used to categorize and analyse data included:

- primary objectives of the programme
- organization(s) responsible for enacting the programme (lead organization and others)
- origins of the programme (e.g., youth-led, community-led)

- target participants (i.e., characteristics and number)

- sport/activity employed

- way in which sport is used (sport-plus, plus-sport, sport-sport, physical education)

- location (city, country, number of sites, school vs community setting)

- evidence of M&E of programme

- study methods

- sample size

- programme theory identified

- sport policy (local, regional or national) referred to in text

- overall results achieved by programme

- alignment of programme with specific outcomes (education, social inclusion, child protection, empowerment) or cross-cutting issues (e.g., gender, health).

The quality of research evidence was evaluated using a rating scale that assessed the conceptualization, internal validity of methods and analyses, and external validity/ utility of reviewed studies (for a detailed explanation of the rubric, see *Annex 1.C*). In an integrative review, comprehensive and purposive sampling is prioritized, which can lead to the inclusion of evidence of variable quality (Whittemore and Knafl, 2005). In a few instances, articles considered to be of low quality as determined by the criteria indicators were nevertheless included because they concern research about programmes serving under-represented populations such as young people in developing countries (Nicholls, Giles and Sethna, 2011). Even though the evidence quality was low in these few instances, the programmes themselves demonstrate 'promising practices', as supported by other high-quality literature included in the review. Most articles included in the analysis (80 per cent) were of high to medium quality.

Finally, the systematic mapping of the evidence helped to determine trends and gaps in the research in regard to why sport is important for child development outcomes, what works, what challenges exist and

recommendations for addressing these challenges. Therefore, mapping the evidence led to the identification of the common assumptions, inputs, strategies, activities, outcomes and impacts associated with S4D for children, and these were then synthesized into theories of change for each key outcome area. The emphasis on theories of *change* is important. As Hartmann and Kwauk (2011) propose, S4D programmes that implement interventions should contribute to development through positive change rather than merely replicate or uphold the status quo. By building evidence-based theories of change around the existing evidence, this report seeks to directly inform planning for positive change in existing and new child-focused S4D initiatives in each of the key outcome areas.

1.5.3 Survey of S4D programmes

To further inform the analysis, an online survey of child-focused S4D programmes worldwide was conducted (UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey). Survey data were used to gather additional information about programme design, implementation strategies, M&E systems, partnerships and funding as well as participant populations. This information was then analysed using Microsoft Excel and IBM SPSS Statistics software (Version 25) to generate descriptive statistics, which are presented in Chapter 2. Sport for Development in practice: Voices from the field.

Taken together, these approaches align with the main objective of this report: to strengthen the evidence base in S4D for children in order to provide evidence-informed answers to improve outcomes for children's education, social inclusion, protection and empowerment through sport *(see chapters 3-6, respectively)*.

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Annex 1.A Target outcomes for S4D initiatives led or supported by UNICEF country offices, by UNICEF regions

UNICEF regional office area	UNICEF country office	Education	Child protection	Social inclusion	Empowerment (participation)
East Asia & Pacific	Cambodia				
	China	✓		✓	
	Democratic People's Republic of Korea (North Korea)				
	Indonesia	✓		✓	
	Lao People's Democratic Republic				
	Malaysia			✓	
	Mongolia			✓	
	Myanmar	✓			
	Papua New Guinea	✓	✓	✓	
	Philippines				
	Thailand	✓		✓	
	Timor-Leste				
	Vietnam	✓	✓		✓
	Pacific Island Multi-country Programme		✓	✓	
	Cook Islands (New Zealand)	✓			
	Fiji	✓	✓		
	Kiribati				
	Marshall Islands				
	Micronesia (Federated States of)				
	Nauru				
	Niue (New Zealand)				
	Palau				
	Samoa	✓		✓	
	Solomon Islands	✓	✓	✓	
	Tokelau				
	Tonga	✓			
	Tuvalu				
	Vanuatu	✓	✓	✓	

Region	UNICEF country office	Education	Child protection	Social inclusion	Empowerment (participation)
Eastern & Southern Africa	Angola				
	Botswana	✔			
	Burundi	✔			
	Comoros				
	Eritrea			✔	✔
	Ethiopia	✔		✔	
	Kenya	✔	✔	✔	✔
	Lesotho	✔	✔		
	Madagascar		✔	✔	✔
	Malawi	✔	✔		✔
	Mozambique	✔			
	Namibia	✔	✔	✔	✔
	Rwanda	✔			
	Somalia				
	South Africa	✔	✔	✔	✔
	South Sudan	✔	✔		
	Swaziland	✔			
	Uganda	✔			
	United Republic of Tanzania				
	Zambia	✔			
	Zimbabwe	✔			

Region	UNICEF country office	Education	Child protection	Social inclusion	Empowerment (participation)
Europe & Central Asia (ECARO)	Albania				
	Armenia			✔	
	Azerbaijan		✔	✔	
	Belarus	✔	✔	✔	
	Bosnia and Herzegovina			✔	
	Bulgaria	✔	✔	✔	
	Croatia				
	Georgia				
	Greece				
	Kazakhstan				
	Kosovo			✔	
	Kyrgyzstan		✔	✔	✔
	Moldova (Republic of)			✔	
	Montenegro			✔	✔
	Romania	✔	✔	✔	✔
	Serbia	✔	✔	✔	
	Tajikistan			✔	✔
	The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	✔		✔	
	Turkey	✔		✔	✔
	Turkmenistan	✔			
	Ukraine	✔	✔	✔	
	Uzbekistan				

Region	UNICEF country office	Education	Child protection	Social inclusion	Empowerment (participation)
Latin America & Caribbean	Argentina	✓			
	Belize	✓	✓		✓
	Bolivia (Plurinational State of)		✓		
	Brazil	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Chile				
	Colombia	✓	✓		✓
	Costa Rica		✓		✓
	Cuba	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Dominican Republic	✓			
	Ecuador		✓		
	El Salvador	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Guyana	✓			
	Haiti			✓	
	Honduras	✓	✓		
	Jamaica	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Mexico	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Nicaragua	✓	✓		✓
	Panama	✓			
	Paraguay		✓	✓	✓
	Peru	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Suriname			✓	✓
	Uruguay	✓			
	Venezuela				
	Eastern Caribbean Multi-country Programme	✓			
	Anguilla				
	Antigua and Barbuda				
	Barbados				
	Virgin Islands (UK)				
	Dominica				
	Grenada				
	Montserrat				
	St. Kitts and Nevis				
	St. Lucia				
	St. Vincent and the Grenadines				
	Trinidad and Tobago				
	Turks and Caicos Islands				

Region	UNICEF country office	Education	Child protection	Social inclusion	Empowerment (participation)
Middle East & North Africa	Algeria				
	Bahrain				
	Djibouti				
	Egypt	✔		✔	
	Iran (Islamic Republic of)				
	Iraq			✔	✔
	Jordan			✔	✔
	Kuwait				
	Lebanon				✔
	Libya			✔	
	Morocco				
	Oman			✔	✔
	Qatar				
	Saudi Arabia				
	State of Palestine		✔	✔	✔
	Sudan				
	Syrian Arab Republic			✔	
	Tunisia				
	United Arab Emirates				
	Yemen				

Region	UNICEF country office	Education	Child protection	Social inclusion	Empowerment (participation)
South Asia	Afghanistan	✔	✔	✔	✔
	Bangladesh	✔	✔	✔	✔
	Bhutan	✔		✔	✔
	India	✔			
	Maldives	✔			
	Nepal	✔	✔	✔	✔
	Pakistan	✔		✔	
	Sri Lanka	✔		✔	✔

Region	UNICEF country office	Education	Child protection	Social inclusion	Empowerment (participation)
West & Central Africa Regional Office (WCARO)	Benin				
	Burkina Faso				
	Cabo Verde				
	Cameroon				
	Central African Republic	✔		✔	
	Chad	✔			
	Congo	✔			
	Côte d'Ivoire	✔	✔		
	Democratic Republic of the Congo				
	Equatorial Guinea	✔	✔		
	Gabon				
	Gambia				
	Ghana	✔	✔	✔	
	Guinea	✔	✔		
	Guinea-Bissau				
	Liberia	✔			
	Mali	✔	✔		
	Mauritania	✔	✔		✔
	Niger		✔	✔	
	Nigeria	✔	✔		
	Sao Tome and Principe				
	Senegal			✔	
	Sierra Leone	✔			
	Togo	✔			

Source: UNICEF-Innocenti, 2019. Based on analysis of *Country Office S4D Survey* results within UNICEF
Note: All references to Kosovo in this report should be understood to be in the context of United Nations Security Council resolution 1244 (1999).

Annex 1.B International organizations which have also produced reports on S4D

International organization partner	Name of research report (Year of publication)	Research question/topic
Commonwealth Secretariat	*Measuring the contribution of sport, physical education and physical activity to the Sustainable Development Goals: Toolkit and model indicators (2019)* https://thecommonwealth.org/sites/default/files/inline/Sport-SDGs-Indicator-Framework.pdf	What are the common indicators for measuring the contribution of physical education, physical activity and sport to prioritised SDGs and targets?
	Measuring the contribution of sport, physical education and physical activity to the Sustainable Development Goals: Toolkit and model indicators – Draft for review v1.0 (2018)	How can sport policy be accurately aligned to the achievement of the SDGs, and then assessed for effectiveness?
	Sport for Development: The Road to Evidence (2018) (with Laureus Sport for Good Foundation) <http://thecommonwealth.org/sites/default/files/inline/The%2BCW%2BGuide%2Bto%2BAdvancing%2BSport%2BEB.pdf>	How do S4D interventions compare with non-sport youth development interventions, across the four outcomes of interest?
	Enhancing the Contribution of Sport to the Sustainable Development Goals (2017)	What policies should be implemented?
	Sport for Development and Peace and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2015)	What are the specific SDGs to which SDP is related?
	The Commonwealth Guide to Advancing Development through Sport (2013)	How can sport be used to advance various development objectives?
Comic Relief (2011)	*Comic Relief Review: Mapping the research on the impact of Sport and Development interventions (2011)* <http://www.framework.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/Comic-relief-research-mapping-v14-signed.pdf>	How to improve problem identification, knowledge generation and knowledge use in S4D?
Human Rights Watch	*"Steps of the Devil": Denial of Women's and Girls' Rights to Sport in Saudi Arabia (2012)* *<https://www.refworld.org/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/rwmain?page=search&docid=4f3e529b2&skip=0&query=sport>*	What are women's experiences of participation, or prevention from participation, in sport and physical activity in Saudi Arabia?
Institute for Human Rights and Business (IHRB)	*Rights Through Sport: Mapping "Sport for Development and Peace" (2017)* <https://www.ihrb.org/uploads/reports/Rights_Through_Sport_-_Mapping_SDP_IHRB_2018.pdf>	Who are the key players in SDP, and what are they up to? What has been the role of the United Nations over time? What are some human rights approaches to SDP programming?
International Labour Organization (ILO)	*Women's and Youth Empowerment in Rural Tunisia (2018)* <https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/documents/publication/wcms_627210.pdf>	What is the status of women and youth empowerment/disempowerment in Tunisia?
	Beyond the Scoreboard: Youth employment opportunities and skills development in the sports sector (2006) <http://www.ilo.int/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/documents/publication/wcms_116484.pdf>	How is sports participation associated with employable skills?

International organization partner	Name of research report (Year of publication)	Research question/topic
International Paralympic Committee	*International Paralympic Committee Annual Report (2017)* <https://www.paralympic.org/sites/default/files/document/180907123904766_IPC_Annual%2BReport%2B2017_v7_accessible.pdf>	Refers to the low incidence of doping throughout 2017 among Paralympic athletes
International Olympic Committee (IOC)	*Sport and active society programmes: A guide to implementation (n.d.)* <https://stillmed.olympic.org/media/Document%20Library/OlympicOrg/IOC/What-We-Do/Promote-Olympism/Sport-And-Active-Society/Case-Studies/SASP-Case-Studies.pdf#_ga=2.7823541.642697650.1547564288-894845313.1547564288>	What are the programme's objectives and key avenues to success? How is the programme communicated and evaluated?
	IOC Gender Equality Review Project (2017) <https://stillmed.olympic.org/media/Document%20Library/OlympicOrg/News/2018/03/IOC-Gender-Equality-Report-March-2018.pdf#_ga=2.83207441.642697650.1547564288-894845313.1547564288>	How to "push gender equality globally" with "action-oriented recommendations for change"?
	Active after schools community programmes (2015) <https://stillmed.olympic.org/media/Document%20Library/OlympicOrg/IOC/What-We-Do/Promote-Olympism/Sport-And-Active-Society/Sport-And-Active-Society-Programmes-Guide.pdf#_ga=2.83207441.642697650.1547564288-894845313.1547564288>	The small section on supporting evidence seems to ask: What are the benefits of sport and physical activity for individuals, communities and wider society?
Union of European Football Associations	*Football and Refugees: Addressing key challenges* <https://www.uefa.com/MultimediaFiles/Download/uefaorg/General/02/57/60/20/2576020_DOWNLOAD.pdf>	What are the best practices when integrating refugees into football associations, clubs and activities?
Right to Play	*Harnessing The Power of Sport for Development and Peace: Recommendations to Governments (2008, written on behalf of the Sport for Development and Peace Working Group)* <https://www.refworld.org/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/rwmain?page=search&docid=4f3e529b2&skip=0&query=sport>	How can governments use sport to address the MDGs and its targets?

International organization partner	Name of research report (Year of publication)	Research question/topic
United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)	*The Power of Sport: Mapping the impact of the Just Play Sport for Development Programmes in the Pacific (2017)*	What if we could advance play further to benefit children even more?
	Sport for Development (S4D): Global Trends, Challenges, Gaps and Opportunities (2015)	How to communicate messages about effective programming strategies without reinventing the wheel and creating duplicate work?
	Guide to Sport for Development (2013) <http://en.unicef.org.ni/media/publicaciones/archivos/Guide_S4D_UNICEF.pdf>	What are the important considerations in S4D programming for children?
	UNICEF Strategic Framework on Sport for Development (2011) <http://en.unicef.org.ni/media/publicaciones/archivos/Strategic_Framework_S4D_UNICEF.pdf>	What is the most strategic way to design, implement, monitor and evaluate effective S4D programmes for children and youth?
	Protecting Children from Violence in Sport (2010) <https://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/pdf/violence_in_sport.pdf>	What are the gaps in knowledge and child protection systems?
	Sport-in-Development: A Monitoring and Evaluation Manual (2006, with UK Sport and Magic Bus UK) <http://www.toolkitsportdevelopment.org/html/resources/56/56853A82-146B-4A3F-90D6-5FC719088AE5/Manual%20monitoring%20evaluation.pdf>	What processes are important for effective programme design, implementation, delivery and results?
	Sport, Recreation and Play (2004) <https://www.unicef.org/publications/files/5571_SPORT_EN.pdf>	What are the benefits of participation in sports, recreation and play for child development?
United Nations Department for Economics and Social Affairs (UN DESA)	*Strengthening the Global Framework for Leveraging Sport for Development and Peace (2018)* <https://www.un.org/development/desa/dspd/2018-expert-group-meetings-and-panel-discussions/sport-development-peace.html>	What direction to take in updating the United N action plan for SDP?
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)	*The Kazan Action Plan: A Foundation of the Global Framework for Leveraging Sport for Development and Peace (2018)* <https://www.un.org/development/desa/dspd/wp-content/uploads/sites/22/2018/06/10.pdf>	What bridges the gap between policy intent and implementation?
	Maximizing the Power of Sport (2017) <http://www.unescoicm.org/photocontest/download/Maximizing_the_Power_ofSport.pdf>	How to leverage sport to achieve positive development outcomes?
	World-wide Survey of School Physical Education (2014) <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000229335>	How is physical education implemented in schools, regarding curriculum, resources (teachers and equipment), equity and inclusion?
	Innovative Practices in Physical Education and Sports in Asia (2008) <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000158509>	What innovations exist to move beyond centralized national physical education curriculums in Asia and better address varying needs?

International organization partner	Name of research report (Year of publication)	Research question/topic
United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)	*Implementing Sports in Refugee Camps (2013)* <https://www.sportanddev.org/sites/default/files/downloads/aists_msa_tp_2013___unhcr.pdf>	What works when implementing S4D programmes in refugee camps, and what resources are needed?
World Health Organization (WHO)	*Global Action Plan on Physical Activity 2018-2030: More active people for a healthier world (2018)* <https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/272722/9789241514187-eng.pdf?ua=1>	A policy and advocacy framework rather than a research report
	Global Accelerated Action for the Health of Adolescents (AA-HA!) (2017) <https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/255415/9789241512343-eng.pdf?sequence=1>	Includes data and statistics but not a research report as such
	Global Recommendations on Physical Activity for Health (2011) <https://www.who.int/dietphysicalactivity/publications/physical-activity-recommendations-5-17years.pdf?ua=1>	What are the benefits of physical activity for the health and well-being of children and youth aged 5-17 years? What amount and types of physical activity are needed to reap benefits?
	School Policy Framework (2008) <https://www.who.int/dietphysicalactivity/SPF-en-2008.pdf?ua=1>	A set of policy guidelines rather than a research report

Annex 1.C Research evidence quality rating guide

Each article reviewed for inclusion in this report was assessed against the selected criteria and then categorized according to its additive score: high, 5-6 points; medium, 3-4 pts; low, 1-2 pts; and indeterminable, 0 pts. Ethics considerations were assessed separately, with studies scoring 0–3 pts based on the detail and appropriate procedures relating to a study's ethical process. The categories are explained below.

Criterion	Sub-category and score			
	High	**Medium**	**Low**	**Indeterminable**
Conceptualization	**Current study** Research questions and/or hypotheses are well defined and drawn from a sound, evidence-based theoretical or conceptual framework (3 pts)	**Literature review** The relevant conceptual underpinnings of the issue are fully explained (2 pts)	**Introduction** Topic, purpose and study rationale are clearly stated (1 pt)	None of these three sub-categories are met (0 pts)
Internal validity of chosen methods and analyses	**Methods** The research design, sampling, procedures and measures are appropriate for the study, and ethical methods have been applied responsibly and correctly, with a well-articulated rationale given for the selection of the methods (3 pts)	**Analytical strategy** Analyses conducted are suitable for answering the research questions/testing the hypotheses (2 pts)	**Results** Relevant data and evidence are presented in a clearly labelled and understandable (easily digestible) format (1 pt)	None of these three criteria are met (0 pts)
External validity and utility	**Conclusions and recommendations** A concise summary of the conclusions that can be appropriately drawn from the research evidence, and of the relevance of the research to the wider field, presented in a way that highlights utility for other researchers, practitioners or policymakers (i.e., is translatable and/or actionable) but does not overstate the study's importance or generalizability (3 pts)	**Limitations** Limitations to the interpretation of evidence presented and to the applicability of the study findings are stated transparently, and alternative interpretations are also presented (2 pts)	**Discussion** Explanations of findings are coherent and consistent with the study conceptualization, as demonstrated by reference to the specific research questions and/or hypotheses (1 pt)	None of these three criteria are met (0 pts)
Ethically responsible research ratings (3pts maximum)	In addition to a separate section on ethical considerations and procedures, researchers provide verifiable evidence (e.g., institutional review board study code and date of approval) that the study received proper oversight from an established review board (3 pts)	Includes a separate section with a clear exposition on ethical considerations and the procedures followed to ensure ethically responsible research (2 pts)	Includes very brief information (one or two sentences) on research ethics (1 pt)	No mention of research ethics in the article (0 pts)

Chapter 2
Sport for Development in practice: Voices from the field

This chapter fills the gap identified by the literature review regarding the theory of change of S4D programmes. It complements the findings from the literature review to understand how programmes aim to achieve child outcomes and impact. Using the Sport for Development Programming Survey, practitioners around the world were asked to provide details about their programmes, particularly regarding objectives, design, partnerships and funding as well as participants. This chapter reviews the key statistics and findings that emerged from the survey about where S4D is most practiced, why sport is being used as a means to help achieve development, how it is being used and by who, and importantly whether the programmes are effective. S4D programmes are found all across the world, and use sport to facilitate children's participation in a wide variety of social programmes, and although programmes self-assess as achieving the outcomes they seek, it is rare to find formal evaluations on the impact of programming. The chapter concludes with suggestions for further research and ways to deepen the findings to build and strengthen a theory of change on child-focused S4D.

2.1 Introduction

Within the field of sport for development (S4D) for children, evidence is lacking on how programmes achieve their intended outcomes and assess their impact. The existing literature reviewed across all four outcome areas (i.e. education, social inclusion, child protection and empowerment) falls short of answering the essential questions on what it takes to design and implement effective S4D programmes.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, existing research most clearly links sport participation with individual level outcomes rather than long-term development goals. For S4D to contribute to development through positive change – and to increase the likelihood of S4D being a choice intervention for achieving development goals – it is necessary to understand how programmes are designed, developed and implemented. This includes understanding the conditions and locations in which they are delivered, their goals, sport and non-sport activities, challenges, monitoring and evaluation (M&E) practices, and participant and staff characteristics.

Information on programme design and implementation serves to clarify programmes' assumptions, inputs, strategies, outputs, and outcomes, which are visually modelled through theories of change. These theories of change provide a foundation for intentional programme

design that is not only coherently aligned with specific goals but also provides an understanding of how programmes can move beyond personal outcomes to have an impact on community development. Moreover, developing theories of change enables programmes to reflect and strengthen their initiatives and the programme design through a feedback process which can help ensure impact beyond individual child outcomes.

To complement the findings from the literature review, and address the lack of evidence for informing theories of change in S4D for children, the *Sport for Development Programming Survey* provided insight into the objectives, design, partnerships, participants, and M&E practices of child-focused S4D programmes around the world. A snowball approach was used to collect responses from around the world whereby key stakeholders shared the survey within networks of practices and participants were further asked to share the survey with their networks – stakeholders were identified from UNICEF Regional and Country Offices as well as key S4D networks, practitioners and academics. 106 programmes were surveyed to find out what practitioners had to say about designing and implementing S4D in practice. Programmes were included based on the following criteria: use of sport, engagement of child participants (aged 18 and under) in activities, and development component in one of the 4 outcome areas (i.e. education, social inclusion, child protection and/or empowerment).

This chapter explores the data gathered from this survey to further understand "the game" of S4D for children. It is organized by the following sections:

- Where is the game being played? – discusses where S4D programmes are being implemented.

- What are the goals of the game? – summarises the various objectives of the S4D programmes surveyed.

- What are the rules of the game? – describes in detail characteristics of the S4D programmes.

- Who is keeping score? – describes M&E practices.

- Who are the players in the game? – includes information on the participants and staff.

2.1.1 Main findings

Analysis of the response from the *Sport for Development Programming Survey* indicates:

- Globally, over 2000 organization are delivering almost 3000 initiatives in 148 countries. The S4D survey collected information from 106 initiatives that focus on children's education, empowerment, social inclusion and protection. The majority of initiatives surveyed were found in Africa, and most commonly in middle-income countries worldwide.

- Sport (especially football) is used as the main attraction because it appeals to children and is an effective way to convene people and to serve as the entry point to deliver the development in S4D. Practitioners reported that more than simply improving children's sports participation and skills, they also sought to deliver non-sport activities to contribute to child outcomes and in some cases the community, including by: improving children's empowerment; protecting them in and through sport, such as by combatting and reducing negative behaviours; and promoting social inclusion.

- S4D programmes lie across a spectrum varying on how their design encompasses a broad range of practices that seek to achieve a similar set of social goals, their use of sport, the percentage of time they spend on sport and non-sport activities. Understanding the key mechanisms that form part of S4D programmes is important for intentional design and building the components of a theory of change that can be monitored and measured to better lever change and adapt programmes to achieve programme outputs and child outcomes.

- Programmes surveyed typically reported serving both boys and girls in the phase of early adolescence (ages 10 to 14), while coaches were mostly males. Coaches tended to be both young and highly educated, although a smaller share were full-time, paid staff. Importantly, only a small percentage of programmes use coaches who come from outside of the community where the programme is implemented.

- Programmes reported being very effective overall in meeting their sport and non-sport objectives. Yet, this perception was mostly based on self-evaluation rather than on more objective external evaluation, and the need for more measurable targets was apparent. The survey did show that programmes were reported using M&E in a variety of ways, and mainly for strategic planning, providing feedback and reporting to funders. Additionally, it was through the M&E process that initiatives gained insights about the need to strengthen family and community ties.

- With regards to the main delivery challenges, while programmes recognized the need to increase engagement with families and schools and to improve infrastructure and staff quality, they also reported challenges at the community and system level, such as the need for longer-term and alternative funding sources.

- Despite regional differences, schools were most frequently named as the sites where S4D programming takes place. The survey also showed that alignment between programme sites and programming goals is needed so that participants do not drop out of the programme for reasons related to the initiative site, such as distance or accessibility. Although participants' primary reasons for dropping out were related to work or home responsibilities or family disapproval, approximately one third of reasons could potentially be lessened or eliminated by more careful consideration of programme site.

2.2 Where is the game being played?

Most of the S4D programmes who responded to the Sport for Development programming survey were located in Africa (42 per cent), with 35 per cent of the total located in the Eastern and Southern Africa region and seven per cent each in West and Central Africa and Middle East and North Africa. Among the 56 countries where programmes were located, the country with the largest number of S4D programmes to respond to the survey was South Africa with 16 programmes in total. In addition, seven other countries had five or more programmes: Kenya (8), India (6), Brazil (5), Colombia (5), Uganda (5), the United Kingdom (5), and the United States (5) *(see Figure 2.1)*.

Additionally, while 59 per cent of programmes indicated their initiatives where located in one city/town/village, 41 per cent of programmes had multiple implementation sites, with 25 per cent of programmes operating in multiple regions or cities within one or more countries and 22 per cent of programmes operating in multiple countries. It is important to note the variety in experience that this implies among survey respondents, who not only came from international organizations with multiple initiative sites but also from small, grassroots organizations operating at the local level.

A similar variety is seen among the income levels of countries where programmes are operating. Most programmes (70 per cent) surveyed for this report were

Figure 2.1 Location of S4D programmes surveyed by the UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey

1   No. of programmes   16

Notes: Programmes responding to the Sport for Development Programming Survey were asked to choose one initiative that they implement and provide responses based on experiences with that initiative. The initiatives depicted in the map include the locations of these single initiatives. In addition, programmes had the opportunity to list other locations where they operate initiatives, and these are not depicted in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.2 Income rankings of regions and continents by income level of countries (comparison of Beyond Sport global sample to UNICEF S4D Programming Survey sample)
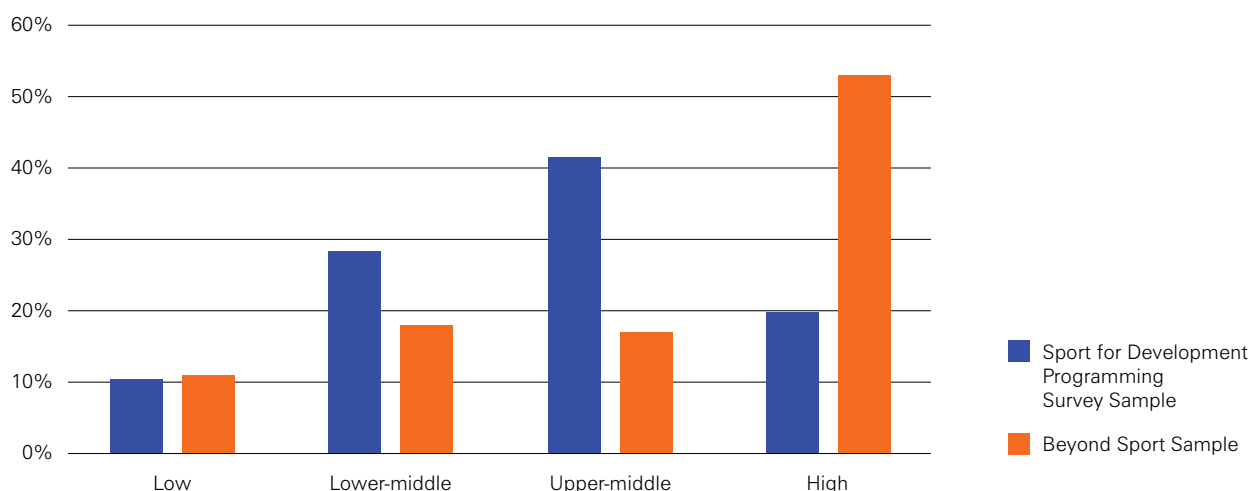
Source: Sport for Development Programming Survey (2018) and Beyond Sport (2018).

located in upper middle-income countries (42 per cent) or lower middle-income countries (28 per cent), with only 20 per cent located in high-income countries and just 10 per cent in low-income countries.[1]

The distribution of programmes by the region and income-level of the countries in which they operate varies to the global sample of programmes in the Beyond Sport online database, which lists 2,140 unique organizations operating 2,985 S4D initiatives across 148 countries.[2] Within this global sample, 51 per cent of programmes are located in high-income countries where UNICEF National Committees[3] are found, followed by 23 per cent located in Eastern and Southern Africa, and eight per cent in Latin America and the Caribbean. In comparison, the sample from the Sport for Development Programming Survey used in this analysis had a larger percentage of programmes from East Asia and the Pacific, Eastern and Southern Africa, Europe and Central Asia, Latin America

and the Caribbean, the Middle East and North Africa, South Asia, and West and Central Africa.

Additionally, the sample from the Sport Programming Survey had a higher percentage of programmes from countries other than those that are high-income. In the Beyond Sport sample which is a broad representation of S4D initiatives as it includes programmes targeting children and adults and varied objectives of sport and non-sport objectives the majority (54 per cent) of programmes are located in high-income countries, with 17 per cent in upper middle-income countries, 18 per cent in lower middle-income countries and 11 per cent in low-income countries. In comparison, the sample of child-focused S4D programmes collected by the Sport for Development Programming Survey is more limited in terms of scope and includes a larger percentage of programmes from middle – income countries (*see Figure 2.2*). Therefore, by conducting a cross-regional analysis, this study takes a

[1] The World Bank defines low-income countries as those with a Gross National Income (GNI) per capita below 995 USD, lower middle-income countries as those with a GNI per capita between 996 and 3,895 USD, upper middle-income countries as those with a GNI per capita between 3,896 and 12,055 USD, and high-income countries as those with a GNI per capita of 12,056 USD or more in 2017. Country income rankings based on World Bank, 'World Bank Country and Lending Groups', <https://datahelpdesk.worldbank.org/knowledgebase/articles/906519-world-bank-country-and-lending-groups>, accessed 15 March 2019.

[2] A total of 26 of these programmes were pan-regional and thus omitted from further regional analysis. Not all S4D programmes in the Beyond Sport sample served the target age group of children under 18 years of age. See: Beyond Sport, <www.beyondsport.org>, accessed 10 March 2019.

[3] UNICEF has 34 National Committees which work as independent local non-governmental organizations to raise funds from the private sector, promote children's rights and advocate for the most vulnerable children.

methodological step toward increasing the knowledge base on how S4D programmes targeting children and young people operate across regions both globally and with important emphasis on countries from non-high-income areas (Collison et al., 2017; Giulianotti, 2010).

2.3 What are the goals of the game?

For S4D to have an impact on long-term, sustainable development that goes beyond individual-level outcomes, programmes should set goals that are measurable and achievable. Understanding these goals to create a theory of change for child-focused S4D requires an understanding of why sport is used and what objectives programmes aim to achieve.

2.3.1 The draw of sport itself serves as a common tool for recruiting children.

Programmes were asked to describe how they recruit children to participate in S4D initiatives, and 91 per cent of programmes indicated the most common way was the draw of sport itself. This was followed by safe and secure spaces (78 per cent), field trips (42 per cent), and nutrition (29 per cent). Financial incentives were used

much less frequently, by just four per cent of programmes overall. Respondents also mentioned other recruitment strategies (23 per cent), including the possibility for participants to improve their educational achievement; the offer of psychosocial support and counselling; the opportunity to build friendships; access to materials including bicycles and clothes; opportunities to compete locally, nationally and internationally; and rewards such as prizes and trophies.

2.3.2 Sport is also seen as a tool for convening people and achieving development outcomes.

Beyond the use of sport to recruit children to participate, programmes chose to use sport to achieve development outcomes primarily because it appeals to children (named by 72 per cent of programmes overall). Programmes also see sport as a powerful tool to convene different groups of people (70 per cent of programmes) and perceive it as effective in achieving development outcomes (68 per cent of programmes), although a much smaller share (25 per cent) of programmes in Europe and Central Asia gave this reason which could suggest their perception of the role of sport as only a tool for engagement (*see Figure 2.3*).

Figure 2.3 Reasons for choosing sport to achieve development outcomes, by region
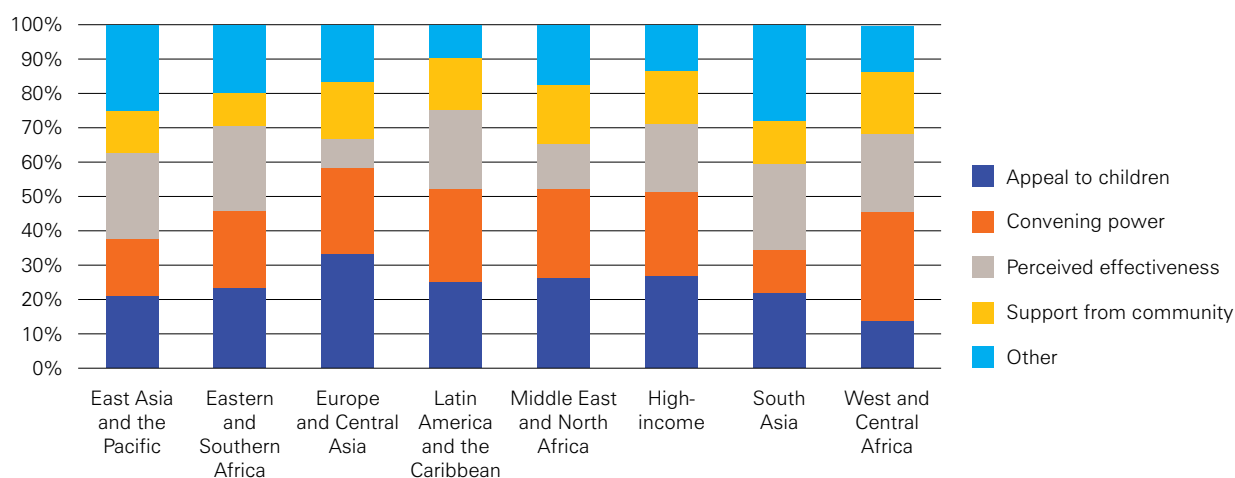
Notes: Percentages refer to all of the reasons for choosing sport named per region. Responses included under 'Other' refers to reasons, such as research and/or evidence is available on sport; S4D is considered a low-cost intervention; potential donors express interest in sport programmes; and that government stakeholders play a role. Respondents also named, among many other reasons, that sport can be used to address trauma, that sports can teach life skills, that it can increase the physical literacy of girls who have few opportunities to develop this, and that famous athletes are seen as role models among children.
Source: Sport for Development Programming Survey (2018).

Figure 2.4 Types of sport and non-sport objectives S4D programmes set, by region
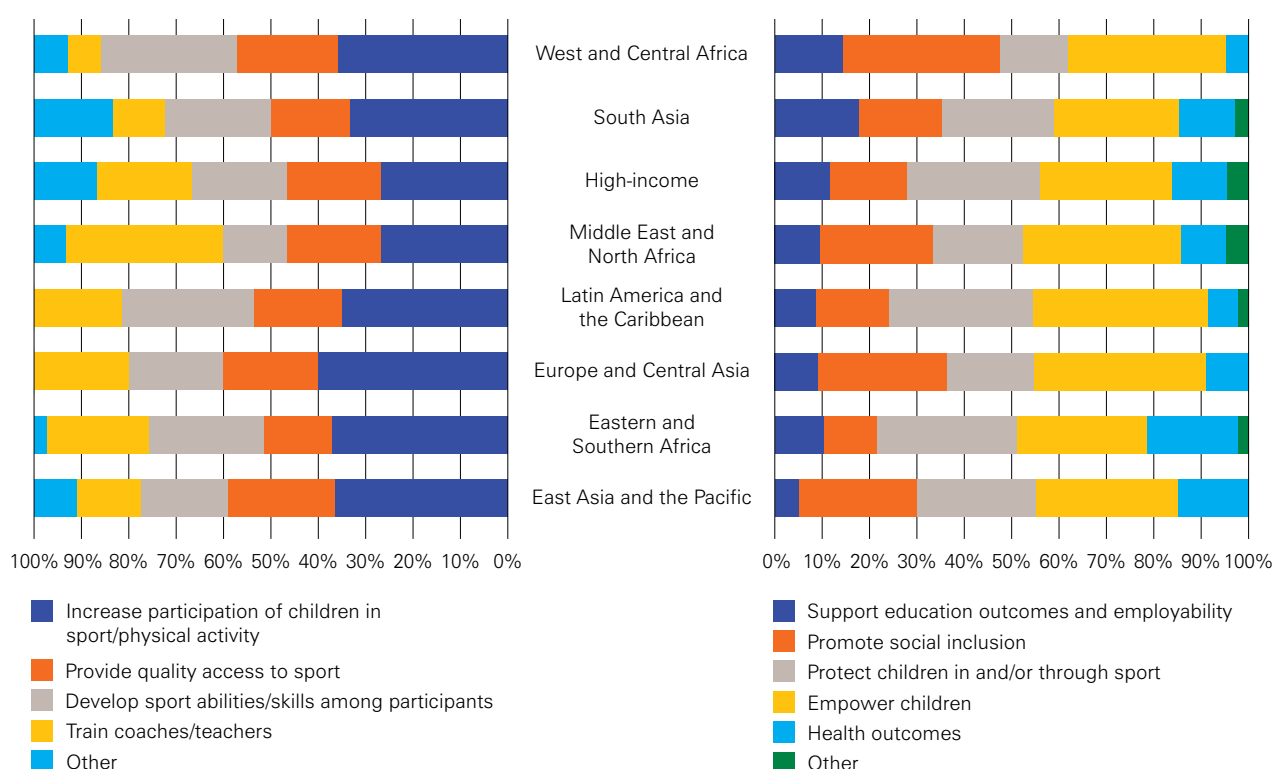
Note: Percentages refer to all objectives named per region.
Source: Sport for Development Programming Survey (2018).

Furthermore, while 41 per cent of programmes named support from the community as a reason that sport is chosen, this was lower among programmes in East Asia and the Pacific (38 per cent of programmes) and Eastern and Southern Africa (30 per cent of programmes). Community support, however, may be essential to effective programming, as well-designed S4D programmes should aim to engage families and communities to not only contextualise programmes (see *Key findings from Chapter 6. Empowerment and Sport for Development*).

2.3.3 Programmes aim to increase children's sport participation and also empower them.

Respondents to the Sport for Development Programming Survey provided both sport and non-sport objectives that S4D programmes aim to achieve . Their sport objectives

most frequently related to increasing children's participation in sport (83 per cent of programmes), followed by developing children's sport skills (55 per cent) and training coaches or teachers (46 per cent). These patterns were relatively consistent across all regions (*see Figure 2.4*). Programmes also responded that they aimed to provide quality access to sport (43 per cent), and other sport objectives (14 per cent total) included strengthening sports clubs' outcomes, enhancing leadership within sports and offering children leisure rather than work opportunities.

Non-sport objectives most frequently involved empowering children (87 per cent), protecting children in and through sports (75 per cent), and promoting social inclusion (51 per cent). Health outcomes and supporting education outcomes and employability were named by fewer programmes (36 per cent and 31 per cent,

Figure 2.5 The different uses of sport by organizations implementing S4D programmes.
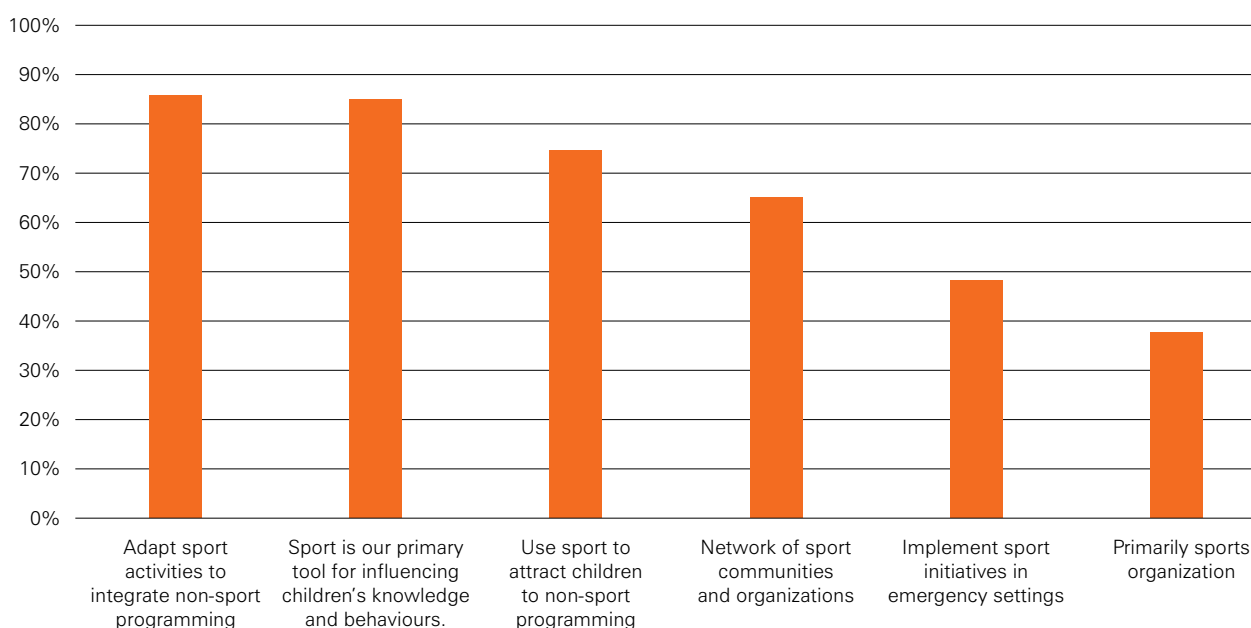
Note: Percentage represent programmes who agreed or strongly agreed with the statements shown in the figure.
Source: Sport for Development Programming Survey (2018).

respectively). Other non-sport objectives were named by just seven per cent of programmes and included promoting commitment to environmental protection and increasing awareness of issues such as girls' education and the SDGs.

When comparing across regions, sport objectives were consistent while non-sport objectives varied by region. Regional differences were notable, such as in Western and Central Africa and Europe and Central Asia, where only 43 per cent and 50 per cent of programmes, respectively, named protecting children as a non-sport objective. In South Asia, a much higher percentage (67 per cent) aimed to support educational outcomes and employability skills. These regional differences suggest that context matters much more for non-sport programming and the development aspect of S4D. In other words, regional differences in non-sport objectives highlight the versatility of S4D as an intervention to address various issues, but also show the necessity for theories of change to consider local and specific priorities that allow for contextualizable S4D programming.

2.3.4 Sport delivers non-sport programming and influences knowledge and behaviour.

The survey also aimed to understand the nature of the organizations that are implementing S4D programmes. Overall, the majority of organizations agreed that sport is their primary tool and serves multiple purposes: it is adapted to implement non-sport programming (86 per cent of programmes); it is their primary way of influencing children's knowledge, attitudes and behaviours (85 per cent); and it is used to attract children to non-sport programming (75 per cent); however, a minority (38 per cent) of programmes identified as primarily a sports organization (*see Figure 2.5*). Sport can also be implemented in emergency settings and close to half of the organisations (48 per cent) agreed that they do so. This percentage was much higher in East Asia and the Pacific (75 per cent) and Middle East and North Africa (71 per cent). This could show that S4D is not only able to be implemented in various contexts but that it is also a choice intervention in places particularly exposed to natural disasters or humanitarian crises.

Within S4D research, a commonly cited dichotomy distinguishes sport-plus organizations – which focus primarily on sport and supplement it with other activities – from plus-sport organizations – which use sport as one of many approaches to achieving social goals (Coalter, 2007). Interestingly, however, 75 per cent of survey respondents agreed *both* that their programmes adapt sport activities for the sake of integrating non-sport programming *and* that sport is their primary tool for influencing children's knowledge, attitudes and behaviours.

Furthermore, findings imply that sport is likely conceived differently as a development tool depending on the type of organization using it. The organisations responsible for the S4D programmes varied and included: non-governmental organizations (22 per cent), community-driven organizations (16 per cent), sport organizations (15 per cent), youth-led initiatives (13 per cent), international organizations (9 per cent), and initiatives begun by individual or philanthropists (7 per cent).

Considered together with the variation in responses regarding the percentage of time spent on sport versus non-sport activity (see *Section 2.4.2*), this underscores the possibility that organizations using S4D lie more on a spectrum than as two distinct types of organizations regarding the degrees to which they use sport to achieve non-sport goals. This supports a shift in how S4D initiatives are analysed by moving away from a

focus on the type of sport programmes implementing them and toward a focus on the "families of mechanism – the processes, experiences and relationships which might achieve desired outcomes" (Coalter, 2012, p. 596). This report aims to support this shift by analysing the experiences of a wide array of organizations and informing process-focused theories of change.

2.4 What are the rules of the game?

To support the development of process-focused theories of change, it is necessary to understand which activities, strategies and processes enable S4D programmes to achieve specific outcomes despite particular challenges (i.e., the 'how' of S4D). To understand how S4D programmes designed for children work, the Sport for Development Programming Survey explored the types of sport and non-sport activities, session design – including where and how often they occur – and challenges facing children and programmes on a larger scale.

2.4.1 Football is the most popular but not the only sport used in S4D programming

Overall, the most commonly used sport was football (45 per cent of all programmes), followed by multiple sports (19 per cent, *see Figure 2.6*). 13 per cent of programmes use other sports (13 per cent), such as hiking, jump rope, and skateboarding; general physical

Figure 2.6 Sport besides football used by S4D programmes
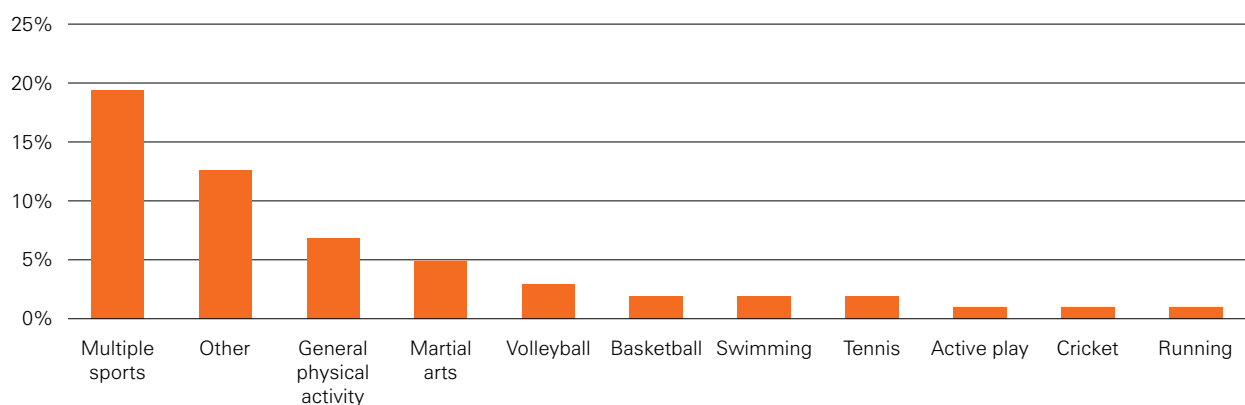
Note: Multiple sports refers to programmes which used more than one type of sport activities. Other sports included jump rope, skateboarding, sailing, rugby, surfing, and netball.
Source: Sport for Development Programming Survey (2018).

activity (7 per cent); and five per cent of programmes use martial arts). In addition, organizations which use S4D often implement programmes in multiple locations, and respondents that described the use of sport in other initiatives indicated similar patterns but covered a wider range of sports, including – in just one case each – handball and indigenous sport or games.

Regional patterns underscore the importance of considering local context when deciding which sports are used. For example, football was much less common in Asia, used by just 25 per cent of programmes in East Asia and the Pacific (EAP) and 20 per cent of programmes in South Asia (SA), although in the latter, 40 per cent of programmes used multiple sports, which may have included football. In Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC), just 33 per cent of programmes used football, while martial arts were used by 22 per cent of programmes and other sports were used by 22 per cent of programmes as well. Because sport serves both to attract participants and as a means for implementing non-sport programming, choosing the right sport, based on interests of the children and communities, may make a difference in successfully attracting participants and achieving non-sport goals. Moreover, choosing the right sport is key to avoiding further normalising certain norms, attitudes and behaviours, especially in the case of addressing gender inequities (see *Chapter 5. Child Protection and Sport for Development*).

2.4.2 Programmes spend close to one-third of their time on non-sport activities

S4D is more than just sport, as evidenced by the fact that only three programmes reported spending all their session time on sport. Most frequently programmes (25 per cent of programmes) spent between 21 and 30 per cent of session time on non-sport activities. On average, programmes indicated that they spent approximately 68 per cent of time on sport activities and 32 per cent on non-sport activities. The session time across regions is divided differently between sport and non-sport objectives. In the Middle East and North Africa (MENA), and Europe and Central Asia (ECA), time spent on non-sport activities was slightly lower than the average for all regions (an average of 14 per cent and 20 per cent of session time, respectively). However, in

West and Central Africa (WCA) and SA, programmes spent a slightly higher percentage of time on non-sport activities (an average of 41 per cent and 39 per cent of session time, respectively). This could be explained by the sites of S4D initiatives in these regions, as WCA and SA had the highest percentage of programmes taking place in schools (67 per cent of programmes in both regions, compared to 34 per cent of programmes overall). Programmes located in schools may use school staff to offer non-sport activities, such as academic or life skills lessons, for example (see *Section 2.4.3*).

Regarding the types of non-sport activities, lessons on empowerment were the most common (69 per cent of programmes), followed by lessons addressing antisocial behaviour, such as bullying or violence (64 per cent of programmes), and activities specifically aimed at promoting social inclusion (59 per cent). When exploring the responses by region, findings indicate an alignment between these programmes' objectives and the activities they use to achieve them. For example, a higher percentage of programmes in Eastern and Southern Africa (ESA), SA and EAP reported implementing lessons on health (89 per cent, 67 per cent, and 50 per cent of programmes, respectively) (*see Figure 2.7*). The topic of these lessons align with the objectives of programmes in these regions – they named health outcomes as their non-sport objectives more frequently than programmes in other regions (53 per cent, 44 per cent, and 38 per cent of programmes, respectively, compared to 36 per cent of programmes overall) (see *Section 2.3.3*).

2.4.3 Sessions mostly occur in schools, multiple times per week, for 1 to 2 hours.

Schools were the most frequently named sites of S4D programmes (34 per cent), followed by community centres (20 per cent) and public spaces, such as a park (15 per cent). Schools can be key sites as this could potentially provide S4D programming with access to human, material and financial resources, including infrastructure and teachers.

Sites must be carefully chosen to ensure that they are safe, accessible, and inclusively designed, as the location where the programme occurs may unintentionally perpetuate the exclusion of certain marginalized populations. Thus, it is also important to

consider regional differences (*see Figure 2.8*) in how initiative sites align with their objectives. For example, a higher percentage of programmes in SA and WCA (67 per cent and 43 per cent, respectively) than in other regions named education outcomes as their non-sport goals. Similarly, a higher percentage of programmes in SA and WCA (67 per cent in both regions) used schools

as sites to deliver their initiatives. However, for education-focused S4D programming to reach the most marginalized children, programmes may need to consider other sites, as it is likely that children who are already excluded from school may not benefit from programmes that take place primarily in schools.

Figure 2.7 Non-sport activities across regions
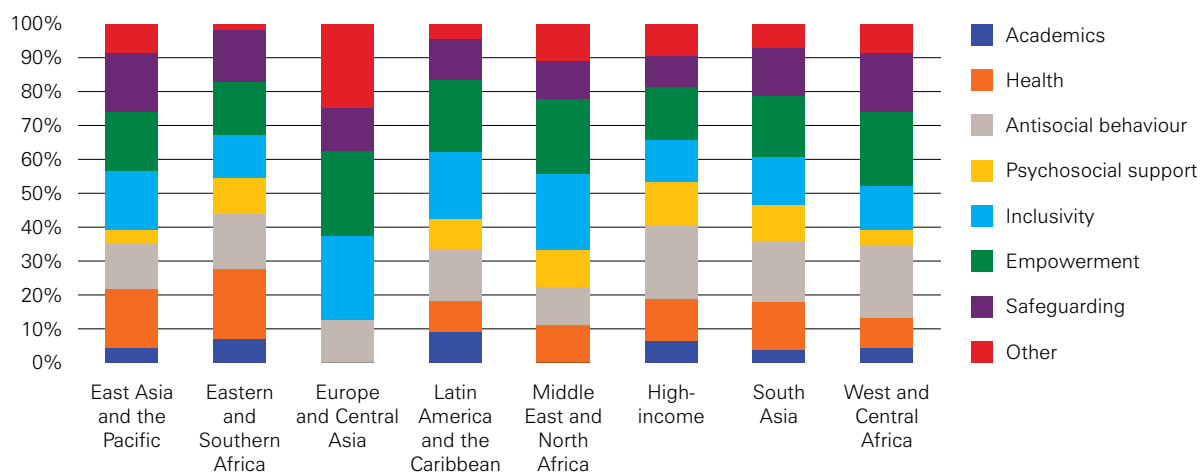
Note: Data represents percentages of the total number of non-sport activities listed by region.
Source: Sport for Development Programming Survey (2018).

Figure 2.8 Sites of S4D programmes
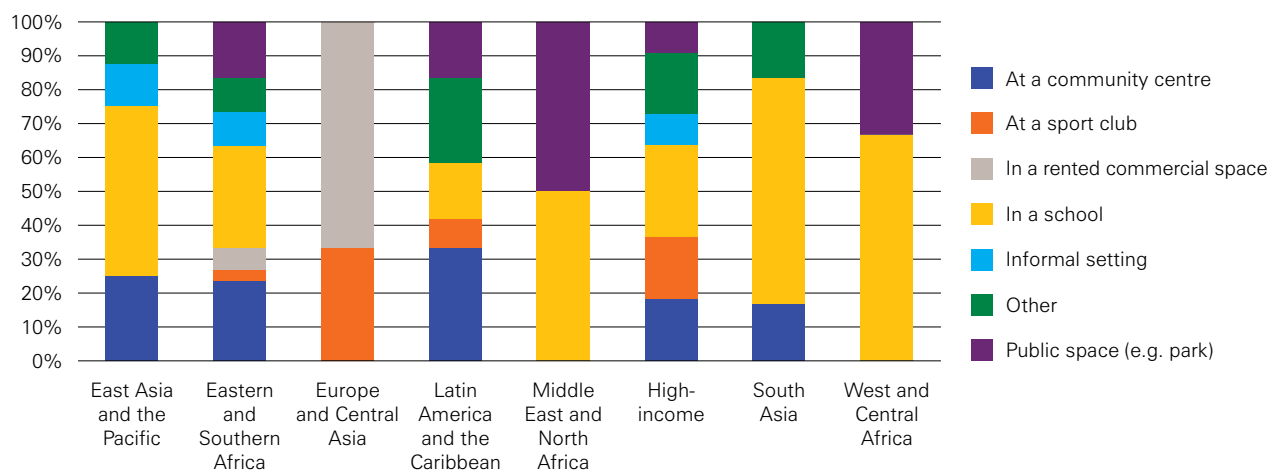
Source: Sport for Development Programming Survey (2018).

Figure 2.9 Reasons why participants drop out of S4D programmes
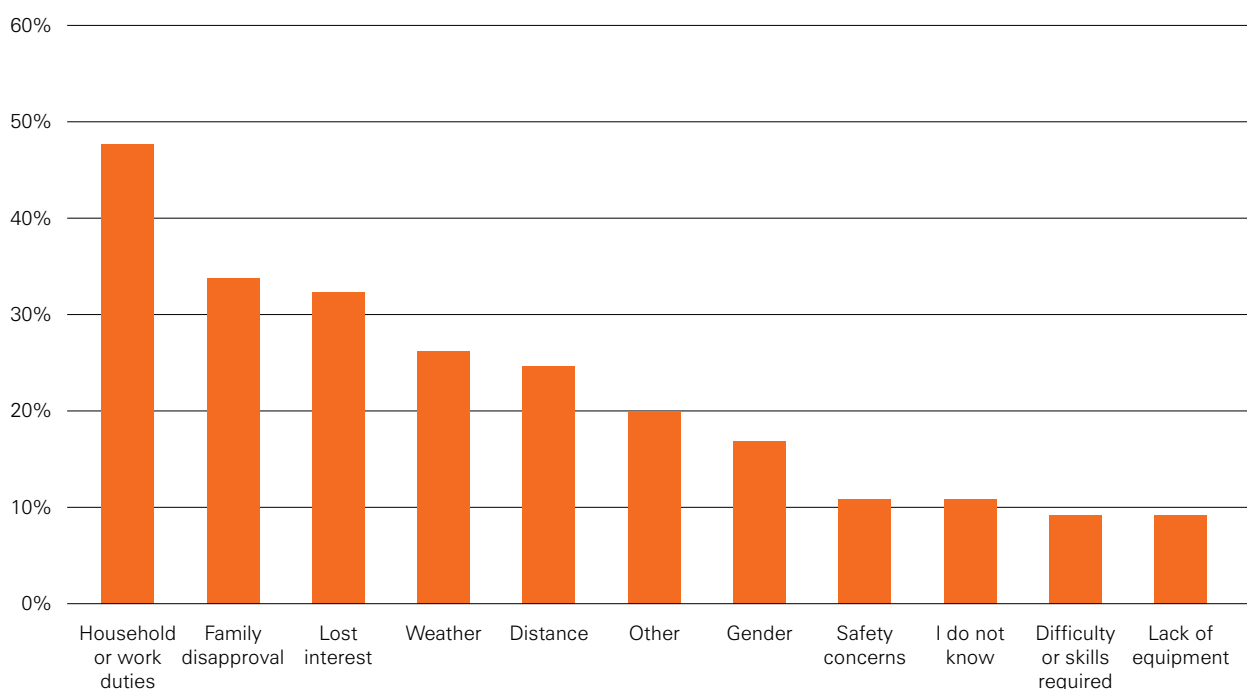
Source: Sport for Development Programming Survey (2019).

Designing S4D programmes also means deciding the number of sessions to hold and their duration. Programmes most frequently reported having sessions from twice to six days per week (51 per cent of programmes), followed by those who offered daily sessions (24 per cent) and those who offered one session per week (23 per cent). Only two per cent of programmes reported having sessions less than once per week. These sessions most frequently lasted 1 to 2 hours (64 per cent), although a much smaller percentage of programmes reported sessions that lasted less than an hour (16 per cent), or longer than two hours (16 per cent).

Intentional design also suggests deciding on age limits for participants which can affect the composition of the target group and provide key information to build the theory of change which can enable a better understanding of the particular mechanisms that can be monitored and measured to better lever change and adapt programmes to achieve programme outputs and child outcomes. Only 36 per cent of programmes

reported a limit on the age at which participants must leave the programme. Among these which specified age limits, participants were most frequently required to leave at age 18 or 19 (42 per cent), or between ages 15 and 17 (24 per cent). 13 per cent of programmes set an age limit below 15 years, while five per cent set an age limit of 20 or older.

2.4.4 Participants mainly drop out because of other responsibilities and family disapproval.

While participants may leave because they have reached the age limit set by the programme or because they complete the programme, they may also face other barriers that impede their attendance and lead to dropout. Programmes most frequently reported that participants leave because of responsibilities at home or at work (48 per cent), followed by family disapproval (34 per cent) and loss of interest among participants (32 per cent) (*see Figure 2.9*).

Of the reasons named by programmes for participant dropout, approximately one third (33 per cent) fell into categories which could be addressed with the right response. These include the difficulty of the sport activity chosen, distance to the programme facility, lack of equipment, weather during the season in which the programme occurs and safety concerns. Consideration must therefore be given not only to the safety of neighbourhood where the programme occurs, but also, for example, to infrastructural barriers which might prevent children with disabilities from fully participating, to risks from bad weather or natural disasters during the season when the programme takes place and to programme times which hinder the participation of children and young people who have responsibilities at home or at work. Importantly, 11 per cent of programmes reported that they did not know why participants left which suggests a need to survey participants before, during and after the programme to identify and resolve challenges as they occur.

Further analysis of data attempted to identify possible links between participant dropout and the duration of sporting and non-sporting activities. Respondents who indicated that the S4D organisation spent more time on non-sporting activities had, on average, a smaller proportion in the last year, but a larger proportion of children withdrawal in the past seven days and month. These survey results give an initial indication that S4D programmes that spend a greater proportion of time on non-sport rather than sport activities tended, in the short-term, to report more children withdrawing from the S4D intervention. However, the results are mixed, and the sample size is small. Therefore, further analysis of child-focused S4D programming data would need to be done to better understand the relationship between these two variables (for instance, why the number of dropouts in one year is not consistent with the two shorter periods) to strengthen this finding.

To address challenges programmes face, respondents shared potential ways to improve programming to retain participants. Most respondents (86 per cent of programmes) indicated a greater engagement with families and schools was needed while 65 per cent named improvements to infrastructure and/or staff quality was necessary, and 49 per cent said that

coordination with government partners or funders could address these challenges. Such improvements may help to address certain reasons respondents mentioned participants dropout such as family disapproval, safety and lack of equipment, but ways to address challenges related to weather, distance and the difficulty of activities, for example, are needed. Better understanding why participants leave the programme could help target responses and improve retention.

Respondents also indicated challenges facing S4D programmes go beyond the level of the participant. One such challenge is, perhaps unsurprisingly, related to funding sources – 89 per cent of programmes reported needing longer-term funding, 70 per cent reported the need to develop alternative funding streams, and 46 per cent reported needing more government funding. The technical skill of grant writing was reported as an area where further support is needed by only 40 per cent of programmes. These patterns point to an opportunity for advocacy in S4D to target governments and other funders with the aim of increasing investment in S4D interventions, as well as potentially creating opportunities for public-private partnerships.

2.5 Who is keeping score?

While it is possible to understand which outcomes S4D programmes achieve, it is often more difficult or, in some cases, impossible to understand which strategies, activities and processes facilitate this (Coalter, 2010; Jones et al., 2017). A systematic approach to monitoring and evaluating progress toward a programme's objectives is key in understanding to what degree the programme is achieving its desired impact and how it can be strengthened.

Monitoring and evaluation (M&E) systems play a formative and foundational role in S4D by providing the basis for dialogue between organizations and sponsors, as well as within organizations (Coalter, 2006). It also informs evidence-based decision-making and results in recommendations for improving programme design. Furthermore, lessons learned through M&E can inform the design of other programmes (Save the Children, 2014). Evidence from M&E provide the substance needed to draw across the theory of change – a clear path from inputs (specific actions, interventions, and

activities), to outputs (often an enumerable value such as the number of participants) and finally to outcomes (larger scale changes, such as to the economy or the environment, as a direct result of activities implemented through policies, interventions, or initiatives) (Commonwealth Secretariat, 2018) (see *Section 1.2 in Chapter 1. Child-focused Sport for Development*).

2.5.1 Programmes report effectively meeting their objectives and target goals.

When asking programmes about their effectiveness the majority of programmes evaluated themselves as either very or extremely effective in meeting sport objectives (73 per cent of programmes), non-sport objectives (79 per cent), and target goals (76 per cent). While much lower percentages of programmes perceived themselves as slightly or moderately effective (15 per cent for sport objectives, 14 per cent for non-sport objectives and 17 per cent for target goals) – this slightly higher percentage for target goals may be important. Furthermore, some programmes had no opinion on whether they had met their sport objectives (12 per cent), non-sport objectives (5 per cent) and target goals (5 per cent).

These findings suggest that understanding how to effectively meet objectives and target goals and how to improve programmes might be easier to detect with clearly defined and measurable goals rather than with objectives which remain abstract and vaguely defined. Unlike sport and non-sport objectives (see *Section 2.3.3*), target goals were much more concrete such as, for example, having a specific number of children demonstrating a specific skill at a set proficiency level, for all participants to attend a set percentage of sessions or a set number of coaches to be trained as leaders. This underscores the necessity that programmes' theories of change not only include their desired long-term outcomes and impact but also clearly defined and measurable outputs that enable them to identify challenges and adapt programming as needed.

2.5.2 Most S4D programmes conduct self-evaluations using data collection tools and surveys

The need for measurable goals implies that M&E must be high-quality, consistent, reliable and connected to a

programme's theory of change, and therefore, it must be credible and that requires impartiality and independence (United Nations Evaluation Group, 2017). Moreover, programme evaluations should not be influenced by an evaluator's own interest in the programme and should, instead, be objective, absent of bias and, preferably, conducted by someone who is not responsible for designing or managing the programme.

However, findings from the Sport for Development Programming Survey indicates that 89 per cent of all programmes design and conduct their own M&E procedures, compared to just 30 per cent who use external evaluations by research or academic institutions. Programmes in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) had a notably higher percentage of programmes (60 per cent) that use external evaluations while programmes in South Asia (SA) were more frequently evaluated by donors or funders. This could be related to funding source and resources available to certain S4D programmes.

Self-evaluations should not be excluded from a programme's M&E processes, and S4D programmes can benefit from and should be engaging in ongoing reflection on their assumptions, programme design and activities. Such self-reflection allows programmes to understand if the goals they set are relevant to the communities in which they are operating, to identify ways to improve, and to update their theories of change based on lessons learned from their experience and evidence they have gathered to better meet the needs of their participants. Thus, it is necessary to balance ongoing self-reflection with external evaluation to ensure quality, improvement and accountability.

S4D programmes also indicated that the most frequently used tools were for the purpose of data collection, such as attendance monitoring (96 per cent), and most programmes used surveys or interviews with participants (93 per cent) and with staff (89 per cent). Parent surveys or interviews were used by 75 per cent of programmes, while research studies were conducted by 64 per cent. However, only half (54 per cent) of programmes indicated that research studies, such as impact evaluations, were conducted as both pre- and post-tests, which may raise important concern regarding the

credibility of their M&E procedures. Such studies should not only be independent and impartial but should also employ rigorous methodologies which involve gathering baseline data where possible to serve as a basis for comparing change (Save the Children, 2014). It is important to note that conducting such high-quality programme evaluations can be limited by both financial resources and staff capacity, and thus M&E should be a key element in S4D budgeting and planning.

How programmes use M&E tools and information is key to understanding how they progress towards achieving their objectives and target goals. Programmes used the information gathered for strategic planning (81 per cent), providing feedback to staff or participants (79 per cent), for the organization's annual reporting (76 per cent) and for writing grant proposals (71 per cent) (*see Figure 2.10*). Only 30 per cent of the programmes said they shared the results of these evaluations on their websites, despite the fact that sharing reports with stakeholders – such as parents, communities and, importantly, children – plays a crucial role in ensuring accountability (*see Section 2.4.4 for information on improvements S4D programmes may wish to make to address challenges based on the results of these evaluations*).

2.6 Who are the players?

The participants are at the heart of S4D programming and this section discusses key characteristics of the children who are participating in these programmes. This section also describes the peer leaders, coaches and trainers who are implementing the sport and non-sport activities to achieve the objectives and target goals of S4D programmes. Overall, programmes mostly serve children early adolescents (10-14 years-old), and, while they are generally gender-inclusive in terms of their target populations, those working on the delivery of the initiatives were found to be less representative of such diversity.

2.6.1 S4D initiatives mainly target both boys and girls ages 10-14.

82 per cent of all initiatives served both boys and girls, while just five per cent served mostly boys and one per cent mostly girls. Gender exclusive programmes comprised just 11 per cent of all programmes (eight per cent only girls and three per cent only boys). Overall, 48 per cent of programmes served children ages 10-14, 25 per cent targeted young people ages 15-18,

Figure 2.10 Use of M&E information by S4D programmes
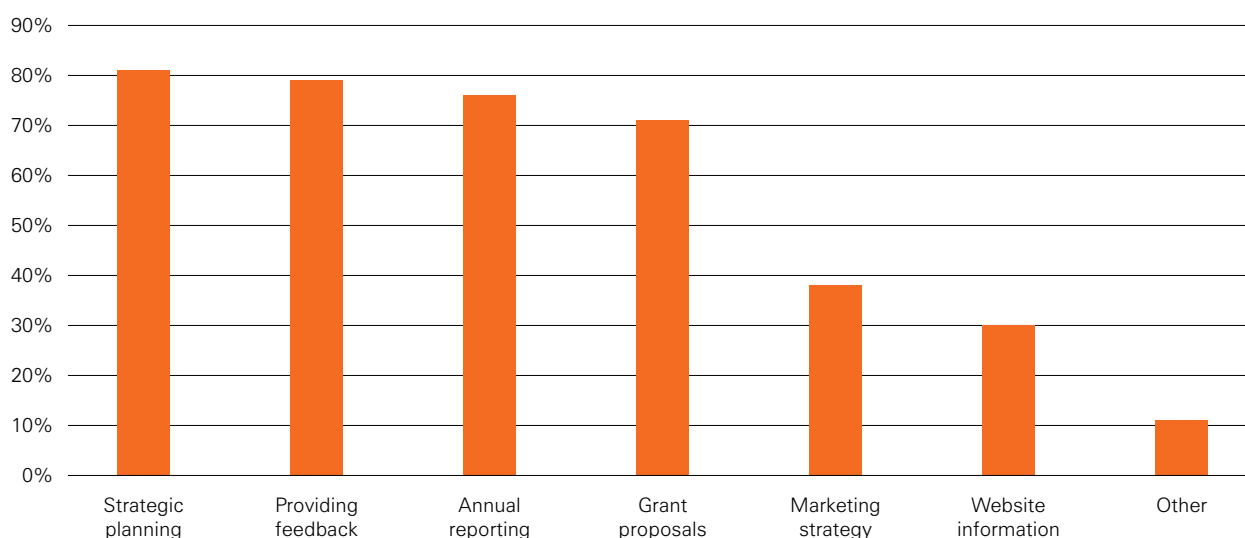
Source: Sport for Development Programming Survey (2018).

Figure 2.11 Ages of participants across regions where S4D programmes are located

Legend:
- 0-4 years-old
- 5-9 years-old
- 10-14 years-old
- 15-18 years-old

X-axis categories: East Asia and the Pacific, Eastern and Southern Africa, Europe and Central Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, Middle East and North Africa, High-income, South Asia, West and Central Africa
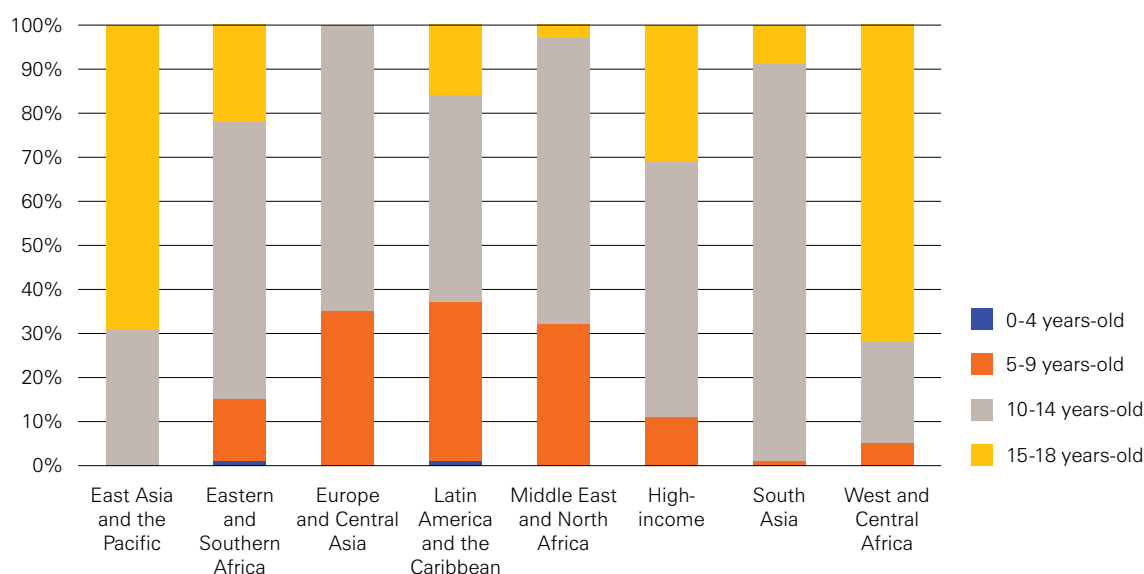
Source: Sport for Development Programming Survey (2018).

and 21 per cent targeted children ages 5-9. Just one programme served children between the ages of 0 and 4 years, while five per cent of programmes served young people over the age of 18. These patterns were consistent within the total number of participants across all programmes, as 52 per cent fell into the age group of 10- to 14-year-olds, followed by 36 per cent of all participants in the 15- to 18-year-old age group and 12 per cent ages 5-9 years. Less than one per cent of participants across all programmes were ages 0-4 years.

Across the eight regions used for this analysis,[4] some noticeable patterns appear regarding the ages of participants. A higher percentage of younger participants (5- to 9-year-olds) were in S4D programmes in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) (36 per cent of participants), Europe and Central Asia (ECA) (35 per cent) and Middle East and North Africa (MENA) (32 per cent). A particularly higher-than-average percentage of 10- to 14-year-olds were indicated to participate in programmes

in South Asia (SA) (90 per cent of all participants), and 15- to 18-year-olds represented a higher percentage of participants across West and Central Africa (WCA) (72 per cent) and East Asia and the Pacific (EAP) (69 per cent) (*see Figure 2.11*). Additionally, participants over 18 were mostly concentrated in Eastern and Southern Africa (ESA) and WCA.

S4D programmes can – and in the majority are clearly aiming to – provide critical support during their adolescence. Although young people between the ages of 10 and 19 – adolescents- are, in general, healthier and stronger than young children, dedicating greater attention and resources to the second decade of life to complement investment in the first can support and lead to sustainable change (UNICEF, 2011). While it can be more costly to reach adolescents, these efforts are needed to overcome challenges facing this particularly vulnerable population, such as lower school attendance rates and higher dropout rates than for children of

[4] The eight regions include the seven regions where UNICEF has regional offices [Latin America and the Caribbean(LAC), East Asia and the Pacific (EAP), Eastern and Southern Africa (ESA), Europe and Central Asia (ECA), Middle East and North Africa (MENA), South Asia (SA) and West and Central Africa (WCA)] and one region which includes 'high-income' countries that have UNICEF National Committees.

primary school age and early child marriage. Adolescence is also the pivotal age when addressing poverty is most crucial to breaking its intergenerational transmission (UNICEF, 2011). Furthermore, for 10-14 year-olds, rapid physical, emotional, and mental changes during this period of early adolescence may lead many to experience or perpetrate bullying and social exclusion, making it particularly important for them to have access to spaces that are safe, inclusive, and supportive. As young people transition into late adolescence (ages 15 to 19 years-old), they may still be prone to risky behaviours, such as alcohol consumption and drug use, as well as gender-based discrimination and violence (see *Chapter 5. Child Protection and Sport for Development*).

2.6.2 Participants primarily interact with peer leaders and coaches.

Programmes reported that participants interacted with a variety of staff and volunteers, which included coaches, teachers, peer leaders, community athletes, and parents. Some programmes may also work with others on programme delivery, including police officers, pedagogical experts, cultural mediators, and psychologists. When considering only sport coaches, teachers, and peer and community leaders, peer leaders accounted for both a higher percentage of the total number of individuals working on programme delivery (38 per cent), outnumbering coaches and teachers, who represented 31 per cent and 20 per cent overall, respectively. This high percentage of peer leaders was consistent across most programmes, which could be a positive indication that S4D programmes are building connections with the communities they serve and engaging young people not only as participants but also as key members of the team that delivers activities. Thus, it must be mentioned that these peers must also be properly and adequately trained on the same issues that coaches must be, namely, child safeguarding (see *Chapter 3. Education and Sport for Development, and Chapter 5. Child Protection and Sport for Development*).

2.6.3 Coaches are mostly young, highly educated males.

Most programmes (58 per cent) consistently across regions used coaches who were between the ages of 25 and 34, followed by 30 per cent whose coaches were primarily between the ages of 18 and 24. Just 11 per cent of programmes had coaches 35-years-old or older. These coaches overall tended to be highly educated, with 48 per cent of programmes reporting that coaches had tertiary education, and 35 per cent upper secondary education. A higher percentage of programmes in Latin America and the Caribbean (86 per cent) and South Asia (60 per cent) had coaches with a tertiary level of education or higher, while programmes in the Middle East and North Africa had greater variety in the education levels of their staff. This may be attributable to the fact that a higher percentage of programmes in Latin America and the Caribbean (79 per cent) and South Asia (83 per cent) reported hiring paid staff, while no programmes in the Middle East and North Africa reported hiring paid staff, compared to 42 per cent of programmes overall. 40 per cent of all programmes reported that those working on the delivery of initiatives were volunteers.

Regarding the gender of staff working on S4D programme delivery, 40 per cent of all programmes reported that coaches are mostly males. While all male coaches were reported by 11 per cent of programmes, just four per cent reported all female coaches and nine per cent mostly female coaches. In ECA and WCA, however, 67 per cent and 50 per cent of programmes, respectively, reported all male coaches, while in SA 50 per cent of programmes reported mostly female coaches and in MENA, 40 per cent reported all female coaches.

The composition of coaches delivering S4D programming suggests that S4D programmes could have a more diverse staff (see *Chapter 4. Social Inclusion and Sport for Development*). In order to create environments that are inclusive and empowering for children and young people, it is important that they see diversity and the inclusion the programme promotes reflected in the coaches who work on the delivery of the programme. For example, S4D programmes in ECA and WCA indicated the highest percentage of programmes naming social inclusion as an objective (75 per cent and 100 per cent of programmes, respectively), and 100 per cent of programmes in both regions also reported empowerment as an objective (see *Section 2.3.3*). Gender may not necessarily be an intentional aspect of the hiring process and may instead be

reflective of other factors, such as persistent cultural norms that preclude or stigmatize girls' and women's participation in sport. Programmes may thus consider leveraging the interest of young women who have themselves participated in the programme by encouraging them to return as peer leaders, mentors, and coaches.

In addition, considering that having coaches as positive role-models is a key element of S4D programmes that aim to achieve outcomes in education, social inclusion and child protection (see *Section 5.4 for a discussion on how coaches as positive role models contribute to the development of social capital*), ensuring that these coaches come from the communities they serve is critical. Overall, 40 per cent of initiatives indicated that coaches come from the communities in which the programme is implemented, while 52 per cent indicated that they were a mix of local and non-local community members. Only seven per cent indicated that coaches were not from the community, which could reflect a high degree of community participation and ownership in the programme design.

2.7 Conclusions

This chapter has reviewed data gathered from the Sport for Development Programming Survey of 106 S4D programmes for children around the globe. Findings provide a mapping of the current state of the field of child-focused S4D in terms of regions, countries and communities where S4D programmes are implemented; why and how these organizations have chosen to use sport to achieve development goals; the outcomes these programmes aim to achieve and the activities they use to do so; where, when and how often programming takes place; challenges faced by participants and practitioners; how M&E is used to contribute to programme improvements; and the demographics of both participants and those delivering programming.

By gathering information from the perspective of practitioners and comparing these experiences across regions, this analysis enhances the understanding of how S4D works in practice and to contribute to its use as a choice intervention for achieving not only personal-level outcomes but also community development goals.

In order to translate this knowledge into practicable action that moves beyond the level of the individual, it must be used to inform theories of change which help programmes consider their own assumptions and design through continuous reflection and targeted improvements. This opportunity to include voices from the S4D field – particularly from the Global South where many S4D programmes operate – is a key step in developing a theory of change for child-focused S4D.

The results presented in this chapter suggest room for further research, particularly regarding how these findings can be further explored to build and strengthen a theory of change on child-focused S4D. These include a deeper understanding of the mechanisms through which these programmes operate, i.e., the strategies, processes, activities, experiences, and relationships that enable S4D programmes to draw coherent connections between inputs, outputs, outcomes, and impact. To do so, research may further explore:

- The structure of the organizations and differences in programming among them to develop a spectrum of organizations implementing S4D programmes;

- The differences and commonalities in the challenges these organizations face to develop contextualizable theories of change and tools specifically designed to meet their needs;

- The perspectives of children who participate in S4D programmes, as well as other children from the communities they serve, to understand how programmes' assumptions and strategies can be better aligned with their contexts; and

- The individuals working on the delivery of initiatives, particularly their own backgrounds and experiences, to leverage their potential to better meet the needs of participants and achieve S4D programming objectives.

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Annex 2.A Methods

Sample, procedures and measures

Using a cross-sectional survey design, a snowball sample of S4D program practitioners (N=106) from around the world was obtained. An online questionnaire was created for the survey in consultation with subject matter experts in the S4D field. Additionally, feedback was provided by the research management committee for the project and approval of an internal ethics review team was obtained to ensure ethical research conduct and protection of research participants.

The survey comprised 6 sections (Organization profile; Programme description and objectives; Programme design; Partnerships and funding; Programme participants; and Additional information), and there were a total 66 questions (see final word version in Annex B). The online survey is currently still open, as the research team aims to increase the sample size for upcoming Phase 2 of the research. The survey is available in multiple languages and can be accessed via the following links:

- English: https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/ Sport4DevSurvey (Through this link the survey can be found in multiple languages, including Chinese, French, Hindi, Portuguese, Russian and Spanish).

- Arabic: https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/ Sport4DevSurveyArabic (Note that this is a separate link from the other languages.)

The questionnaire design was tested by respondents from four existing programmes and was then translated and back-translated into 8 different languages (Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Hindi [Urdu], Spanish, Portuguese and Russian) to facilitate reaching as broad a global audience as possible.

The online programming survey was distributed via email to contacts in UNICEF regional and country offices, who then helped to widely distribute the survey with programming partners in the S4D field. In addition, the survey was also distributed to programmes that arose in the literature review and those learned of through networking at international S4D meetings and events.

The purposes of the survey were explained at the beginning at the questionnaire. Participants were also informed that the survey would take 35-40 minutes to complete online.

Analysis plan

First – to assess the representativeness of our sample and to determine to what extent the sample was successful in including the experiences of practitioners in locations that are often underrepresented in S4D research – the proportions of programmes by region and country income rankings were compared to a publicly available global listing of S4D programmes. Then descriptive statistics were calculated to present cross-regional comparisons for information on where programmes were located, populations served by the programmes, practitioners' perspectives on what works and why, M&E practices, as well as details on how programmes are run and how sport is used by S4D programmes.

Strengths and limitations

The survey sample was compared to a sample from the global Beyond Sport database to determine to what extent this UNICEF global mapping of S4D for children programmes contributes to the knowledge base through regional comparisons which may be underrepresented in S4D research. Analysis of the distribution of programmes by region and country income ranking showed that the Sport for Development Programming Survey represented a higher proportion of programmes from East Asia and the Pacific, Eastern and Southern Africa, Europe and Central Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, the Middle East and North Africa, South Asia and West and Central Africa (i.e., all regions that are not high-income), as well as a higher proportion of programmes from lower and upper-middle income countries than the global Beyond Sport sample. Furthermore, Linear-by Linear Association tests showed that these differences in proportions were statistically significant ($p < .000$), and thus, the information gathered from this survey likely represents to a greater extent the experiences of programmes from all regions of the global South and from lower and upper-middle income countries.

As much S4D work occurs in the Global South but is driven by the Global North (Giulianotti, 2010), there is the need to ensure that voices of practitioners from the Global South are adequately represented. Additionally, much S4D research focuses on projects within single geographical settings (Giulianotti, 2010). Thus, this study's design contributes to filling two needs: 1) the need to understand the experiences of S4D practitioners from the Global South, and 2) the need to compare across multiple regions to produce a broader knowledge base on S4D (Collison et al., 2017; Giulianotti, 2010).

However, certain limitations are important to highlight. First, the present sample was relatively small, in that the 106 responding programmes comprise only approximately 4% of the global sample of S4D programs documented in the Beyond Sport online database of S4D programmes. Second, the Sport for Development Programming Survey sample would have been compared in terms of its representativeness to an existing global database of S4D programmes around the world which specifically target children, but no such *comprehensive* global database currently exists. Furthermore, existing databases, such as the Beyond Sport online database of S4D programmes, may be limited in their representativeness of the S4D field, in that they rely on programmes' knowledge of, access to, and voluntary self-registration in such databases.

A third limitation of this sample suggests that while purposive sampling methods helped to a reach a broader number of countries where S4D programmes operated, this sampling method may have contributed to disproportionate numbers of programmes regionally (e.g. 37 programmes in Eastern and Southern Africa but only 4 programmes in Europe and Central Asia). Nevertheless, this disproportionate regional distribution of programmes is consistent with that in the global sample of S4D programmes, and realistically reflects the S4D landscape.

The length of the survey may have also limited the results. Because in trying to gather information related to each aspect of a theory of change (i.e., assumptions, inputs, activities and strategies, outputs, outcomes and impact), the survey was longer than perhaps

recommendable for ensuring complete responses. Items in the beginning sections of the survey often had higher response rates than items in the final sections of the survey. To address this, non-essential items can be removed and the order of items randomized by section to increase consistency in the response rate across the entire survey for future data gathering exercises.

Chapter 3
Education and Sport for Development for Children

Sport and education are closely interlinked through physical education curricula, sports teams in schools, or participation of children in sport activities beyond the school yard and in community settings. Evidence suggests that sport can be used as a tool to achieve quality education (SDG 4) by designing and implementing education-focused sport for development (S4D) initiatives for children and youth. These initiatives can also support the achievement of decent work and economic growth (SDG 8) for youth. Education-focused S4D initiatives can benefit students, schools and families and communities through student engagement in school; improved attendance; better relationship with teachers; enhanced reputation of the school; and support the transition of youth beyond school to work. Despite these positive findings, education-focused S4D initiatives face several challenges, including further exacerbating negative behaviours, attitudes and norms already set in the school and community; objectives which are too ambitious and beyond the capacity of the available resources; and a lack of research on the role of education with and through sport. This chapter provides several recommendations to address these challenges.

3.1 Introduction: Education and sport

Since 2008, there has not been a great deal of improvement in the (re-)engagement of school age children into the education system: the share of out of school children of primary school age has decreased by half a percentage point in the past 10 years – from 9.4% (2008) to 8.9% (2018), and recently, the share of out of school adolescents of lower secondary school age has only declined by 0.4 percentage points from 16.1% (2012) to 15.9% (2018), remaining almost stagnate across the years (UNESCO-UIS, 2018). Most recent figures estimate 258.4 million children ages 6-17 continue to be out of school (2018), and more than half are between the ages of 15 and 17 (138 million) (UNESCO-UIS, 2019). Moreover, many students are at-risk of dropping out of school for many reasons, including a lack of school engagement, difficulty in accessing school, disenchantment with future opportunities, opportunities or obligations outside of school (e.g. child labour), or violence in and around their schools. Countries also face the challenge of ensuring that their children and young people develop the competencies and skills through a quality education to transition into life beyond school. As policymakers, academics and practitioners aim to address these issues, finding new and innovative approaches to teaching and learning are needed to achieve better educational outcomes.

The evidence on sport for development (S4D) reviewed in this chapter indicates that sport is an innovative approach that can be used as an effective tool to contribute towards achieving educational outcomes for children and youth. Well-designed education-focused S4D initiatives are shown: to increase student engagement in school; to improve the attainment of life skills, such as empowerment, leadership skills and self-esteem; and, to foster better relationships with teachers and adults, including their families. Some evidence also indicates that S4D programmes can support academic performance and young people's transition to employment, but this is less clear from the available evidence and may be related to contextual factors, such as the quality of the school and its learning outcomes or education system (Bailey et al., 2009). Yet, despite the availability of some evidence, robust research on the extent to which sport can effectively be used to achieve quality education (SDG 4) and a decent work and economic growth for young people (SDG 8, Target 8.6. Reduced proportion of youth not in employment, education or training (NEET)) is still lacking.

3.1.1 Key findings

Drawing from the evidence reviewed in this chapter:

- Education-focused S4D initiatives have the potential to address the challenges education systems face by contributing to positive educational outcomes, such as student engagement, attendance, their overall enjoyment in school, and improved behaviour and relationship with teachers and peers which is key for a positive teaching and learning environment.

- In high-income countries evidence indicates a positive link between education-focused S4D and academic performance, while other evidence reviewed suggests that indirect positive outcomes may also impact better academic performance, such as better concentration and more alertness in class as well as better health.

- *S4D programmes that work for education are those that:*

  - Create a positive teaching and learning environment where participants and educators have the opportunity to engage in problem identification and problem solving to enable critical thinking around the challenges, they and their communities face.

  - Recruit, train and develop quality educators – whether they are teachers, coaches, mentors or volunteers. They need to be able to facilitate positive relationships, support youth and teach the key competences and skills. Their professionalisation and benefits (including stipend or salary) are also key factors that need to be considered.

  - Meaningfully engage key stakeholders and local experts, including participants, families, communities and schools, to meet programme goals. In one example, a programme brought participants back again as mentors and coaches, to apply their contextual knowledge and experience.

- *Challenges to S4D programmes' educational outcomes include:*

  - Design and deliver without local experts and stakeholders, such as schools, can prove challenging. For example, learning materials may not meet the needs of participants or learning standards, teachers or implementing educators may not be adequately trained to deliver the programme correctly, or grouping of children in S4D programming may exacerbate negative experiences children face in their classroom and schools, such as bullying.

  - Overreach in setting objectives and attempts to meet multiple social goals rather than prioritizing realistic goals based on target-group needs. Education interventions, coupled with other goals, can create challenges for the S4D organization in terms of staff capacity and resources available. Moreover, the quality of S4D initiatives and ability to effectively achieve educational outcomes can be affected by the quality of staff and schools.

  - Lack of research on and clarity around how sport can play a larger role in achieving educational outcomes, particularly in regard to academic performance, can result in understanding of how S4D initiatives can achieve educational outcomes.

- *Policymakers and practitioners seeking to improve education can trial the following promising practices:*

  - Strengthen capacity of organizations to deliver pedagogy aligned to clear, realistic objectives which reflect the financial, human and material resources available as well as the expectations and conditions of participants and educators. To this end, encourage engagement with local schools – physical education in alignment with or as part of S4D initiatives may provide a platform with which to strengthen the achievement of child outcomes and in particular educational ones.

  - Experiment with the design, delivery, implementation and funding of programmes to sustain long-term educational engagement and ensure ownership of the projects by seeking to achieve long-term outcomes. S4D initiatives should also better understand how to continue positive outcomes with post-programming activities.

- Fine-tune the available research tools to better understand how organizations achieve educational outcomes (by type of outcome, such as learning) and promote a culture of evidence-informed practice which aligns and feeds into the improvement of S4D initiatives. Longitudinal research can also be aligned with practice to assess sustained impacts and effects and to support S4D initiatives as well as participants' learning.

3.2 What is education in the context of S4D?

Education is defined as the ability to learn and gain knowledge, skills and competences that children and youth need to achieve and succeed, regardless of their gender, ethnicity, socioeconomic background or other circumstances. Educational outcomes can refer to the levels of proficiency in academic or non-academic subjects, enrolment and completion rates, out-of-school rates, and attainment levels of life skills, among others. To understand how outcomes can be achieved, education can be framed around four key components:

- **Content (what):** Education can be focused on 'traditional' subjects such as literacy, mathematics and sciences, and can include technical knowledge for specific trades and life skills, such as leadership and autonomy. In addition, content can also include sport education as well as learning and understanding physical literacy which is related to movement, physical activity and ability to participate in different environments, including the community (The Aspen Institute, 2015; Roetert and Jefferies, 2014). For the purpose of this chapter the focus is on traditional content while life skills are covered in Chapter 6. Empowerment and Sport for Development.

- **Pedagogy (how):** This refers to how the knowledge, skills and competencies are taught and transmitted to the learner. It can refer to the learning opportunity of sport to provide children with experiential and action-based learning opportunities that differ from learning in traditional classroom settings (*see section 3.4.2.1*). How information and concepts are taught can vary depending on the capacity of the teacher and the materials available.

- **Teacher (by who):** Teaching or the guidance towards and facilitation of acquisition of knowledge and competencies can occur between a learner and a teacher or a mentor, trainer, coach or even peers.

- **Setting (where):** Learning can happen anywhere, at any time and at any age or education level. It can occur in formal settings, such as schools and learning centres, or in non-formal settings, such as on the field among players, in the home or on the job.

Understanding these components as well as education models can provide a foundation within which to discuss education-focused S4D initiatives and the characteristics which can facilitate positive educational outcomes (*see section 3.4.2.1*).

In defining education, it is important to discuss its role and approach within the context of development. To achieve development, Sen (1999 in Rossi and Jeanes, 2016) suggests that people, including children, youth and the community at large, need the capabilities to understand what they "can do and what they can be" (Rossi and Jeanes, 2016: 485). To do so, several authors in the S4D literature reviewed for this chapter suggest a context-focused approach to development and to education, such as Paulo Freire's critical pedagogy (Mwaanga and Prince, 2016; Rossi and Jeanes, 2016; Spaaij, Oxford and Jeanes, 2016; Nols et al., 2018).

Although critics have acknowledged the faults of critical pedagogy (see Nols et al., 2018), it provides an approach which the authors noted can be found in S4D initiatives. This type of education requires both the learner and the teacher to engage in dialogue and learning through reflection of their own situation and conditions to identify and solve a problem: in short, to build agency and become leaders of change. Sport is used as an educational tool for behavioural change (Hartmann and Kwauk, 2011), and according to Giulianotti (2011) the most effective approach to S4D programming tends to occur in small community-based organisations where the reflection on the wider context is needed to be better able to address the structural social issues children and youth face. Such programmes work by creating a connection to context and allowing an active and meaningful engagement of the child in their learning – and in the programme design – for more transformative

action to take place which can also create a pathway towards development. A close reflection on context, of course, has consequences for the way the teacher, coach or mentor engages and teaches participants which is further explored in section 3.4.2.

3.3 How are sport and education linked?

The most obvious link between sport and education can be found in most schools which ensures an expansive reach to students around the world. In many countries, physical education forms part of the school curriculum. According to a recent survey by UNESCO (2014), almost 99% of primary schools globally have compulsory physical education for both boys and girls. This figure slightly drops to 88% in secondary schools. However, in practice the share of schools implementing physical education might be much lower depending on several factors, such as the resources available to a school, including teachers, space and time, funding and the value decisionmakers place on physical education when compared to other subjects and activities (UNESCO, 2014), indicating a clear need to strengthen this link (UNESCO, 2015). This factors into the schools that may not be able to offer physical education and might contract outside services, such as NGOs or private companies that create an opportunity for different type of programming available to schools (Svensson et al., 2016).

The evidence also links education and sport by looking at the diverse ways that education has been used alongside sport activities. Education for sport can refer to personal knowledge and skills being gained, social learning occurring alongside peers/adults, and in many cases about topics such as health, gender, inclusivity, equality (Spaajji et al, 2016). How this occurs with sport can be summarized by the work of Peter J. Arnold who explored education and movement and has since been applied to sport and physical education (Brown, 2013). Arnold suggests that education and movement are linked in three forms: education about movement (i.e. the learning about movement); education through movement which refers most closely to physical education and uses physical activities as a tool to reach another objective, such as social learning; and finally, education in movement (i.e. the learning of the body and movement while participating in a physical activity)

(Brown, 2013; Svensson et al., 2016). This chapter will focus on education through sport as well as an additional term that comes from analysis of the different initiatives – education with sport. This term reflects a weaker connection between education and sport to convey a lower degree of integration than initiatives labelled as education through sport.

At the international level, sport and education were linked during the 58th session of the United Nations General Assembly when member states considered "the role of sport and physical education as a means to promote education, health, development and peace" (United Nations, 2003). This raised the profile of sport as a key instrument for the attainment of development goals, including those in education, and contributed to the proliferation of S4D initiatives (Svensson et al., 2016). The resolution called for governments and stakeholders to promote sport and physical education "as a tool for health, education, social and cultural development", as well as to strengthen the cooperation and partnership between key stakeholders, including family, school and communities (United Nations, 2003). In 2008, Right to Play on behalf of the Sport for Development and Peach International Working Group (SDP IWG) also recommended governments explore sport as a tool to contribute to education from early development through play to increasing school enrolment and retention as well as fostering academic achievement (Sport for Development and Peach International Working Group, 2008). In addition, UNICEF developed a strategic framework for S4D for children in 2011 which underlined the contribution of sport to education (UNICEF, 2011).

3.4 What does the evidence say?

Identifying what the evidence says on education and sport can ensure a clearer understanding of how decisionmakers around the world can use the power of sport as a new and innovative tool to effectively achieve educational outcomes. This section addresses the evidence on education and sport by bringing together the findings from 30 articles (all identified as medium- to high-quality evidence, see Chapter 1, Annex 1.C) in the literature on education and sport. The articles included focused on high income countries, including Belgium, Germany, Israel, the United Kingdom, and the

United States. Other articles identified focused on initiatives for low-to middle income countries including Belize, Cameroon, Kenya, Papua New Guinea, Peru, Samoa, South Africa and Zambia. Two of the 30 articles had a global or regional focus.

Some key characteristics of the articles emerged from the review of this literature. As is common amongst S4D literature, most of the articles used qualitative methods and, in some cases, also used mixed-methods by analysing data from surveys or baseline results. Further details regarding the articles included can be found in Annex Table 3.A.

Not all the articles reviewed for this chapter focused directly on traditional education subjects such as mathematics or literacy, or aimed to achieve educational outcomes, such as attendance rates and academic performance. Some articles looked at education-focused sport initiatives which had health education as a key objective, and many articles also focused on life skills and more specifically the soft skills (which are also a focus of Chapter 6). Several of the articles reviewed also had a focus on the training, pedagogy and development of coaches, mentors and trainers, given the importance their role and training have on the success of S4D initiatives.

3.4.1 Why is sport important for education?

As countries, policymakers and key stakeholders aim to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), exploring the role of sport in achieving educational outcomes may provide a new tool that decisionmakers can use to attain key targets, such as those under SDG 4. Quality education:

- **Target 4.1:** ensuring that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education;

- **Target 4.2:** ensuring that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood education;

- **Target 4.4:** by 2030 increasing the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship;

- **Target 4.7:** ensuring that by 2030 all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality; and

- **Target 4.c:** substantially increasing the supply of qualified teachers.

Sport can also be a useful tool to respond to the challenges that youth face to attain decent work and economic growth (SDG 8) and to support the attainment of Target 8.6. – by 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training.

Some S4D initiatives aim to achieve educational and employment outcomes, but evidence suggests that the use of academic activities is not as common as other non-sport activities. Of the 106 programmes surveyed in the *Sport for Development programming survey*, 18 stated that they aimed to achieve an educational outcome and 14 aimed to 'develop employability skills' among their target participants. It is important to note that survey participants were also asked if programmes included a non-sport activity and academic lessons or tutoring were the least common non-sport activity (17%). In addition, UNICEF engages in several different programmes and 122 of the 263 programmes in 99 country offices were identified as having some sort of education-focused S4D programme, and about 24% of all programmes were located in Eastern and Southern Africa. It is clear from the programmes identified that sport is being used for educational purposes in many programmes.

From the evidence available, well-designed S4D programmes create positive experiences for children and youth in school and beyond the schoolyard. The evidence indicates several educational outcomes and non-educational outcomes that can be achieved from education and sport linked initiatives (*see Chapter 4, Section 4.2.1* also discusses the importance of initiatives focused on education and employment to address social inclusion):

3.4.1.1 Improved engagement in school

The available evidence indicates a link between participation in sport and engagement in school. Using 2014 data from the Health Behaviour in School-aged

Children, Badura, et al. (2016) found that adolescents in the Czech Republic who participated in sport and another activity, such as arts, performed better on education-related outcomes, including school engagement, handling school-related stress, and academic achievement. Data on adolescents who only participated in sport also indicated better educational outcomes, although these were not statistically significant. An analysis of data from the United States from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health (the Add Health study), indicated that all adolescents enrolled in Grades 7 through 12 (ranging in age from 12 to 19 years) who participated in sports had a higher sense of school belonging over a 1-year period (Toomey and Russell, 2012).

Moreover, an analysis of the Korea Youth Panel Survey (KYPS) between 2003 and 2006 also found that adolescents who participated in extracurricular activities related to sport showed lower levels of aggression over time, compared with those who only participated in physical education (Park, Chiu and Won, 2017). This was particularly relevant in the case of females (ibid.). Reduced aggressive behaviour in school can translate to better engagement in school and in the classroom with peers and school staff.

Participants in S4D initiatives also indicated their enjoyment in participating in the programme and in school. For example, a preliminary study of a rugby initiative in Papua New Guinea indicated that both staff and students enjoyed their classroom rugby league sessions, as well as the literacy resources provided. They indicated the context was both fun and engaging (Sherry and Schulenkorf, 2016). Sandford, Duncombe and Armour (2008) also indicated that students participating the programmes, the HSBC/Outward Bound project and Youth Sport Trust/BSkyB 'Living For Sport' programme, were happier in school and showed engaged behaviour in lessons. However, it is important to note that the authors cautioned that some of the findings might be context specific and individualized (Ibid.). Further indicating that children participating in S4D programmes might be those who are high achievers in schools – understanding who are the children attending S4D programmes and the context in which S4D programmes occur is key to better understanding how to achieve positive educational outcomes.

3.4.1.2 Attendance and academic performance

Analysis of available data from high-income countries indicates positive links between sport, academic performance and other educational outcomes. According to Coakley (2011), much of the evidence positively linking sport participation to academic achievement and other educational outcomes has been undertaken in the United States where sport participation is institutionally linked, and therefore, results might be strongly linked to a context in which playing sport is a part of the school culture which can be a major constraint to inform the S4D sector. This review identified several initiatives in the United States. For example, a 5-month S4D initiative in a high school which involved participation in a sports club and attendance monitoring reduced absenteeism among truant students (Marvul, 2012). Svensson et al. (2016), after a review of S4D organisations in urban settings, also found positive educational results among participants although individual results varied based on teacher evaluations.

Similarly, another article analysed evidence from Germany on the effect of sports club participation on skill development of children 3-10 years-old using data from the German Health Interview and Examination Survey for Children and Adolescents (KiGGS). This analysis also found positive effects of sport on their cognitive skills, in terms of overall school grade (Felfe, Lechner and Steinmayr, 2016). Not all the results from studies in high-income countries are as clear; Resaland et al. (2016) found that while there was no clear link between more physical activity and educational outcomes in core subjects, there was some indication that children who were academically weak benefited from the combination of physical activity and learning (*see also Domazet, et al., 2016*). A study from Finland comparing the academic achievement of children in Grades 1-3 (6-8 year-olds) who spent time in different types of physical activity and sedentary behaviour indicated that all time spent in the various activities including sedentary behaviour are related with better academic skills (Haapala et al., 2014). Better understanding of the link between sport and academic achievement is needed.

The evidence is ambiguous from other parts of the world. Analysis of panel data from the Young Lives

survey in Peru, Pawlowski et al. (2018) found there was no significant statistical effect between participation in sport and improved education indicators (i.e. reading and school enrolment) for children. As the authors suggest, the differences in outcomes might be related to the quality of school systems and sport activities in Peru – children might not have access to quality infrastructure or sport classes. Moreover, the authors suggest that outcomes measured might be individual whereas those achieved are related to group outcomes.

Evidence from S4D initiatives also indicates indirect links between sport and academic achievement. Burnett (2014) suggests that the relationship between S4D initiatives and improved school attendance can be due to better health and fitness outcomes that children and youth achieve from participating in sport – i.e. children feel better and they can go to school. Evidence from S4D initiatives also indicates that participation in S4D initiatives can improve levels of concentration and enable children to be more alert which may affect their academic performance (Bailey et al., 2009; Burnett, 2014). However, the quality of the schools and education systems which participants of S4D programmes attend might also affect these positive outcomes.

3.4.1.3 Better relationship with teachers

S4D initiatives indicated that a better relationship with teachers was a key component of an effective teaching and learning environment. Teachers participating in the Mighty Metres programme in South Africa, a school-based running initiative, reported 'better relationships' with the participants as well as trust and enjoyment as they had to be outside to deliver the activity (Burnett, 2014). Sandford et al. (2008) also found that participants in UK-based programmes to target disaffected youth had improved relationships with teachers as well as with other peers. This also reflects findings from the literature on physical education which also finds that physical education teachers are central to the experience of the child participants and important as role models of positive behaviour (Bailey et al., 2009). The relationship teachers develop with students is further explored in Section 3.4.2.1.

Schools can also benefit from participation in S4D initiatives. For example, Burnett (2014) found that schools in South Africa branded as Jointly Achieving Growth (JAG) Schools were recognised for sport activities and gave school staff a positive image, particularly when a farm school competed against more affluent communities which were predominantly 'white' – which, given the history of apartheid in South Africa, can mean a lot.

Families can also benefit from child-focused S4D initiatives which engage in education activities. For example, Jeanes (2013) described how families were also engaged in different ways so that they too could learn about the programme and the topics covered, in this case HIV and AIDS. The Mighty Metre programme in South Africa as a school-based sport programme awarded students with medals and certificates which were then shared with parents who would also display with pride their children's accomplishments with neighbours, family or friends. This recognition from parents and family members can boost children's confidence levels and their self-esteem. The initiative also provided parents with the opportunity to join the community and engage in fun day activities (Burnett, 2014).

Despite the possibility of positive links between sport and education, Burnett (2014) highlights the importance of reflecting upon negative unintended consequences that can develop, such as "having to share incentives with family members and experiencing conflict in communities where gang activities create a context of ubiquitous violence" (Burnett, 2014).

Moreover, previous studies have linked sport participation with substance abuse and delinquency (e.g., Fauth, Roth and Brooks-Gunn, 2007 in Toomey and Russell, 2012. *Also see Chapter 5*). Participation in sport as well as sport culture may provide negative and hostile cultures that can hurt youth, especially those who are vulnerable. This would suggest that instead of achieving educational outcomes it may do the opposite. There are opportunities to adapt programmes for specific participant groups and therefore, it is important to understand the context in which this is occurring.

3.4.2 What works when using sport for educational outcomes?

Key characteristics of education-focused S4D initiatives identified in the literature could help strengthen S4D initiatives and the effect they can have on the education

of children and youth. The following section brings together lessons learned from the literature on sport and education and complements the findings with some examples. The sections focus on: 1) learning from education-focused S4D initiatives; 2) teaching by quality coaches, trainers and mentors; and 3) engaging local expertise and stakeholders.

3.4.2.1 Learning from education-focused S4D initiatives

Key factors that the literature suggests are effective when designing programming for education through and with sport. The three areas should be part of the theory of change for S4D initiatives as part of the inputs and processes of well-designed education-focused S4D initiatives, and they include:

Learning environment of S4D initiatives

The learning environment in which S4D initiatives are delivered can be a factor in how effectively the initiative can achieve educational outcomes. For example, partnering with schools to develop S4D initiatives (even as a part of physical education) can provide access to resources (e.g. qualified teachers, field space) as well as supplement and complement what is learned in both the S4D initiative and in the classroom (Spruit et al., 2016; Schulenkorf et al., 2016). When S4D initiatives are set within schools where participants also attend, this can influence the extent to which information on participants can be shared. However, Armour and Duncombe (2012) suggest that school-based programmes should be critically vetted and evaluated by schools and teachers before being used in schools with students.

Some of the literature reviewed for this chapter also indicated that child-focused S4D initiatives which are not school-based can provide participants with a different learning environment than a traditional classroom. Young people who might be disengaged from schooling or at-risk of dropping out could be more interested in participating in S4D initiatives aiming to achieve educational outcomes if they are not taking place in traditional classroom settings (Armour et al., 2013). One such programme which also aims to improve employability skills of young people in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, "Vencer" (to win) programme uses football to

create an active learning environment to transfer knowledge to young people. While creating teachable moments on the field, this is then transferred to a classroom setting although experiential learning activities, a key component of the programme (Spaaij, 2013).

The learning environment also refers to the relationship between participant, teachers and peers which can support children's and youth's personal development and provide opportunities for collaboration and engagement. The learning environment within S4D initiatives, such as team sport or group activities, can provide the opportunities for these types of relationships to develop. This could be especially true for teacher-student relationship as sport can be helpful in diminishing the barriers that exist between them in the classroom (Kay, 2009). The literature highlights the importance of ensuring children and youth have the opportunity for collaborative work as well as reflection (Armour, Sandfrod and Duncombe, 2013; Spaaij, Oxford and Jeanes, 2016). Team or group activities within sport can provide the space for dialogue, discussions and exchanges to occur which are part of the process through which S4D initiatives can achieve change among participants. For example, in an HIV and AIDS education initiative, participants were given the space to recognise and discuss the problem they faced as well as to think of solutions together as a group which encouraged awareness and reflection of the participant's circumstances. Participants suggested that the team sport enabled this to naturally occur (Jeanes, 2013).

Giving participants the ability and tools to be able to develop strong relationships is key. This includes working with participants to empower them to choose activities and set and review their progress in order to give them ownership and increase their active participation in the programme (Armour et al., 2013; Mwaanga and Prince, 2016). Sanders, Phillips and Vanreusel (2014) also indicate the need for school-based S4D initiatives to strengthen the relationships between coaches and teachers as well as to overcome school structures to ensure that information on participants such as the progress made from S4D initiatives is shared with teachers. Moreover, it is important to highlight the need for safe spaces, in particular when addressing marginalised youth (*see Chapter 5*).

Curriculum and learning materials

The way information is delivered can play a role in how children and youth engage with the material and ultimately how well they achieve the educational objectives of the initiative. For example, a rugby S4D programme in Papua New Guinea, League Bilong Laif (LBL), used reading books which included rugby-related stories and mathematics examples which used rugby players' statistics and other relevant league data (Sherry and Schulenkorf, 2016). However, one of the challenges of the programme was the material was Australian-designed, which teachers did not find suitable for their context. This example illustrates the importance that S4D initiatives must give to the context as well as the importance of working with teachers, coaches and others (e.g., Elders from Indigenous groups) to ensure the educational needs of the target audience are being met – a key feature of an S4D education-focused theory of change.

Child-focused S4D initiatives use different types of pedagogies and education models to deliver content and support participants' learning as well as actively engage them in non-sport activities. These types of models can include but are not limited to experiential education or action-based learning, which refer to activities which can enhance the learning of children and young people through applied learning opportunities, such as peer leadership opportunities or the learnings during a sport session which can be learned and apply them to practical examples. For example, Halsall and Forneris, (2016) explore Reflect Connect Apply (RCA), a learning practice which aims to achieve positive youth development and deliver education content by encouraging participants to reflect on the lesson, connect it to an experience and apply it. Similarly, game-based approach to learning requires teachers and coaches to facilitate and guide participants in sports by asking the right higher-order questions which drive participants to think about the sport and their actions (Harvey and Light, 2015; *see also Light and Harvey, 2017*). Sport education is also used by coaches and teachers of physical education which focuses on the teaching of sport although this was not a focus of the literature reviewed for this chapter.

Several other models focus on empowering young people. For example, positive youth development approach to S4D initiatives encourage young people, especially those who might be disengaged to focus on their strengths, talents and potentials to make the change that they seek (Armour and Sandford, 2013). Teaching personal and social responsibility (TPSR) is another education model which are discussed in section 3.4.2.3 as well as in-depth in Chapter 6 as a key component of empowerment-focused S4D initiatives.

Play-based learning is another education model used by S4D initiatives which may focus on children at earlier stages of development as it refers to learning that occurs usually through their exploration of different objects and materials within their environment. Bardid et al. (2017) explore a community-based 30-week motor skill intervention for 3- 8 year-olds which found that a multi-move initiative can lead to change in motor skills of children which is key for their development and learning. *Box 3.2* also describes the work of Right to Play which has focused on play-based learning to improve educational outcomes for children around the world. However, much of the literature reviewed for this chapter as well as the S4D programmes included in the *Sport for Development Programming Survey* focused on children and young people of school-age.

Schools and initiatives may be given the opportunity to adapt education models and programme to best fit their needs. In South Africa, the school-based running initiative, Mighty Metres was implemented in different ways. Schools and teachers could adapt the programme to be integrated into the school curriculum or include it as an extra-curricular activity (Burnett, 2014). In addition, S4D initiatives and their programmes can benefit from building the curriculum around the themes and conditions of people's lives as defined by the principles of critical pedagogy rather than based on standardised frameworks which may not take into account learning methods used within the community (e.g., the role of oral storytelling or dance) (Spaaij and Jeanes, 2013).

While most of the literature reviewed in this chapter does not address physical education, it is important to note that it may provide an avenue to impact not only on the health outcomes of students but also their educational outcomes. A study on the adaption of physical education activities with second language

Box 3.1 Mathare Youth Sports Association: Learning to Drive Change

Since 1987, Mathare Youth Sports Association (MYSA) has been using sports for social improvement and community development outcomes in Kenya. It continues this mission by currently engaging over 30,000 children and young people in sports activities (in particular football) through a range of interventions, which include, among others, work readiness and employability programs. These aim to help youth participants develop knowledge and skills to access employment opportunities after education through career guidance, skills training, internships, career fairs, and job placements. The organization has extended to other countries in the region, including Botswana, Sudan, Tanzania and Uganda.

For each programme, MYSA links inputs with activities, programme outcomes, and community outcomes framed within their theory of change, in addition to M&E procedures and learning questions. For example, in partnership between MYSA and International Youth Foundation (YFI) the Work Readiness Program aims to help its youth participants (10-11 years-old and 16-25 years-old) develop knowledge and skills to access employment opportunities through career guidance and skills training, career fairs, internships and job placements. MYSA elected leaders or coordinators are selected and trained to deliver the activities and support MYSA members. MYSA poses questions to assess the impact of this programme and uses data to show progress in their participants' knowledge in identifying career paths, opinions on the difficulty of identifying job opportunities, and perceived understanding of the application process.

The MYSA approach encourages ongoing learning, and engages in a high degree of self-reflection to improve the organisation's programmes. It identified a need for improvement, for example, in participants' development of skills and knowledge for accessing employment. Reflection and focus group discussions further illuminated the type of support participants needed. MYSA then responded by increasing the focus on the availability of work readiness resources, such as CV writing and job interview preparation, in addition to providing mentors for their job search process. Through this ongoing process of monitoring, evaluation, and learning, MYSA is continually building stronger links between implemented activities and desired outcomes in its S4D programming.

Find more information at the following link: http://www.mysakenya.org/.

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acquisition exercises found positive learning outcomes among young refugee students in Germany although given the small sample size further research could strengthen this finding (Kruger, 2018). The analysis of data from South Korea on adolescents indicates that physical education did not reduce their aggressive behaviour which may be related to the focus given to other school subjects as well as to the quality of the physical education classes which may be monotonous and activities may be limited to just sport (Park, Chiu and Won, 2017). Ensuring quality physical education curriculum might provide an opportunity for decisionmakers to improve the impact that it has on child outcomes, including education.

Feedback and reflection

While all S4D initiatives need to ensure that S4D initiatives are reflective on their practice and adapt the initiatives to learning needs, this could be particularly important for education-focused S4D initiatives as teachers, coaches, trainers and mentors should have the capacity to adapt programmes to their context, student needs and their abilities. A review of education-focused initiatives in the United States found that directors highlighted the flexibility of their programming to address the needs of participants, by using differentiated instruction and individualized support (Svensson et al., 2016). Armour et al. (2013) also highlighted the flexibility offered to schools and teachers in the two UK programmes to address disaffected youth. A key feature of the programmes allowed teachers to select the students who would participate in the programmes as well as to tailor the activities to best meet their needs. However, this requires educators to have the skills to do so.

Flexibility in planning and teaching also requires educators to be reflective on their practice in order to improve their teaching and coaching as well as the implementation of

the S4D initiative. Reflective practice which can form part of critical pedagogy requires educators to think about the problem and find solutions through group discussions – it aims to move thinking and discussion beyond technical aspects of the initiative to more engaged discussions of learning and teaching (Wright et al, 2016). Such type of reflection could require strong links between teachers and coaches if the S4D initiative is being delivered from NGOs or non-school staff. Evidence from South Africa points to the need to formalise the work between coaches and teachers so that the curriculum from the classroom and the S4D initiatives can be better aligned to achieve key child development outcomes educational outcomes (Sanders et al., 2014).

Box 3.1 provides another example from the S4D Programming Survey of how Mathare Youth Sports Association uses monitoring and evaluation to improve its model, delivery and implementation.

3.4.2.2 Teaching by quality teachers, coaches, trainers and mentors

Providing a quality education whether through traditional teaching methods or through sport initiatives requires quality educators – i.e. teachers, coaches, trainers and mentors. They are responsible for transmitting knowledge and competencies, facilitating engagement and providing direction and guidance which is key to the objectives of the S4D initiatives. Furthermore, to achieve academic performance also requires educators to understand the teaching and learning environment, such as subject knowledge or curriculum, learning standards and teaching strategies. This section reviews two areas that should be kept in mind when designing quality S4D initiatives: recruitment of staff, and training and development.

Recruitment of teachers, mentors, coaches or trainers

Recruiting a key role model and leader, such as a teacher, coach or trainer, with the right qualities and competencies is key for the success of S4D initiatives (Bailey et al., 2009; Schulenkorf et al., 2016). For example, one initiative from Israel which aimed to address Arab children's educational needs through football faced some challenges as volunteers interviewed indicated that many found it difficult to teach through an informal education model and many were not interested in football (Wahrman and Zach, 2016).

Educators should have the characteristics that will facilitate positive relationships, support children (e.g. through mentoring and guidance), teach the key competences and skills the initiative aims to achieve. These are key component which form part of the theory of change. According to a qualitative study of sport-based interventions, coaches/educators in S4D initiatives must be sensitive to participants and their contextual needs; they must have the ability to gain participant's trust as well as the commitment to the project (Morgan and Bush, 2016). This can be a challenge particularly for educators who may not be from the same community or who may not understand the types of communities where the S4D initiative is implemented. For example, Rynne (2016) explored S4D initiatives across Australia which used surfing to build community social relationships and teach participants from Indigenous communities about the social and physical environments. Results from the study found that achieving the goals of the progamme required 'surf-specific knowledge' which was usually provided by non-Indigenous programme providers, and relevant Indigenous knowledge from the participants when listened to as well as Indigenous and non-Indigenous programme providers with knowledge (Rynne, 2016, p. 615).

S4D initiatives recruit educators using different approaches which may present diverse challenges. While school-based S4D initiatives might use teachers whether those from traditional subjects or physical education teachers, other types of S4D initiatives may use peer-educators. S4D initiatives have sought out former programme participants as educators because of the experience they have in the programme and their ability to act as strong, positive role models and to relate to participants which could be valuable when aiming to contextualise programmes and engage local communities (Svensson et al., 2016; Spaaij, Oxford and Jeanes, 2016). Child-focused S4D initiatives seek out peer educators given the belief that "young people are more likely to listen to and believe the information of trusted peers, and that peers who are respected and looked up to can have a strong influence over the behaviour of young people" (Kerrigan, 1999; Luna & Rotheram-Borus, 1999; Turner and Shepherd, 1999 in Jeanes, 2013, p. 391). In another example, a programme in the United Kingdom used celebrities and sports stars

Box 3.2 Right To Play: Training teachers

Right to Play (RTP) operates across the globe, focusing on education, social inclusion, gender equality, well-being, child protection and peace. Their initiatives focus on four types of play – games, sport, creative play, and free play – in a variety of contexts, including schools, sports centres, refugee camps, migrant communities, and youth detention centres. One initiative, Play for Advancement of Quality Education (PAQE), aims to improve education outcomes for children ages 2 to 15 by training teachers, education officials, administrators and coaches on play-based learning through RTP's Continuum of Teacher Training (COTT) model. It is implemented by RTP country offices in Benin, Ghana, Liberia, Mali, Mozambique, Pakistan, Rwanda, and Tanzania, which collaborate with government and civil society partners to promote play-based approaches within the education system. Additionally, PAQE aimed to raise awareness of and implement interventions to address education barriers, especially for girls.

COTT is based on foundational training, teaching the curriculum through play-based learning (PBL), and creating a positive learning environment with attention to gender, inclusion, and child protection. The training helps them to design their classrooms as safe spaces where students trust teachers and are motivated to participate, contributing to learning outcomes. At the conclusion of the training, teachers are observed by RTP staff, district education officials, and school administrators to assess their implementation of play-based learning approaches. The COTT is just one of four core elements of the PAQE program, the others of which include addressing educational barriers, collaborating and advocating with education authorities, and forming youth-led clubs and initiatives by coaches

In addition, Right to Play uses a clear PAQE Performance Measurement Framework for the purpose, use, and rules of M&E, centred on providing evidence for performance indicators. M&E procedures and indicators align with the pillars described for the delivery of the program and thus display relevance to its objectives. A local consulting firm conducts data collection to ensure impartiality. M&E procedures show rigor, involving the collection of baseline data and an assessment design that is comprised of reviewing historical evidence, collecting feedback from stakeholders, using both long-term data from the life of the program and smaller scale primary data collection, and triangulating results through mixed-methods data collection. They can then reflect on the evidence and on how to improve these procedures. With attention to inclusiveness and ethics, RTP works with local teams to contextualise the data collection methods. Findings are discussed regarding how they can inform the adaptation of the program to better achieve its objectives and to suit the needs of the environment in which they work, showing attention to utility. For example, the results of baseline assessment informed RTP's decision to address existing gaps by redeveloping the program.

Find more information at the following link: https://www.righttoplay.com/en/our-work/.

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to act as role models and while this can be positive based on feedback from students and teachers, it could also present a challenge, particularly if the celebrity sport star is found to have engaged in negative behaviour (Armour and Duncombe, 2012). Other initiatives may also seek peer-educators to implement the programme.

Staff training and development

As in any classroom, the capacity of the teacher, coach or mentor to engage children and youth in the programming is key and in order to do so they need effective training and development. While this is a key characteristic and process for all child-focused S4D initiatives, this section provides key learnings from the literature on teachers/mentors/coaches given their importance to a child-focused S4D theory of change. The knowledge, competencies and skills needed for education-focused S4D initiatives is particularly important as teachers/mentors/coaches should have subject and pedagogical knowledge, along with an understanding of child development and sport.

The evidence available is scarce on the pedagogy needed to train educators and on how these trainings can help them achieve the objectives of the S4D initiative (Wright et al., 2016). However, some of the evidence

reviewed suggests that training educators in critical pedagogy could provide them with the tools needed to carry out their work (Wright et al, 2016). *Box 3.2* provides another example of teacher training implemented by The Right to Play. In addition, the International Council for Coaching Excellence (ICCE) along with the Association of Summer Olympic International Federations (ASOIF) and Leeds Beckett University (LBU) in 2013 published the International Sport Coaching Framework which can help guide the development of all types of coaches, including those in S4D programmes (ICCE, ASOIF and LBU, 2013).

One example from the literature also highlights the need to ensure that any training plans meet the needs of the programme, as well as those of the educators. For example, in Papua New Guinea teachers were trained to deliver on a rugby-based methodology, however teachers expressed a need for further follow-up to the training provided as many faced challenges implementing the programme (Sherry and Schulenkorf, 2016). Furthermore, once the initiative was implemented teachers felt that the delivery was the responsibility of the development officers responsible for the initiative which made delivery of the initiative difficult (Sherry and Schulenkorf, 2016).

The training and development received can be particularly important for S4D initiatives which seek to recruit volunteers and educators from the communities in which S4D initiatives are implemented. In some cases, these can be vulnerable communities where the volunteers and educators willing to participate in S4D initiatives face multiple challenges. For example, Burnett (2013) undertook a qualitative study of participants in the Youth Development through Football (YDF) programme which was implemented in ten African countries. Youth who were trained to become peer-educators, were found to have low levels of education, come from low socioeconomic backgrounds and have scarce opportunities for employment. Findings suggest the importance of training focused on the skills needed to carry out the programme as well as the skills needed to support their employability in future jobs (Burnett, 2013).

Moreover, the salary and benefits of S4D staff can also play an important role, particularly in vulnerable communities. One programme which formed part of the YDF, Lesotho (Kick4Life), provided volunteers with access to a scholarship to complete their schooling (Burnett, 2013). This can be particularly important for initiatives in areas of high-poverty and those that face high levels of turnover among staff. Supporting educators, particularly if they are young and out-of-school, can be an important step in providing them with the needed social mobility.

Also, vitally important to note is the safeguarding of children and youth when training coaches, trainers and teachers (*See Chapter 5*).

3.4.2.3 Engaged stakeholders in the design and delivery of S4D initiatives

Having strong teachers, coaches and trainers should be complemented with a strong contextual understanding of the needs and capacities of the communities in which education-focused S4D initiatives are implemented. The rationale for this is two-fold: first, the review of the literature indicates that educational outcomes achieved in sport activities are dependent on context (Sanford et al., 2008; Bailey et al., 2009); and second, the success of an S4D initiative and any development programme is dependent on the buy-in and engagement from local stakeholders (Burnett, 2015a; Kidd, 2011; Svensson et al., 2016).

Engagement requires creating a participatory decision-making process at all stages (e.g. design, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation) and involve children and youth along with local stakeholders (Armour et al., 2013; Bailey et al., 2009; Svensson et al., 2016; Schulenkorf et al., 2016). It may also require having credible leadership and a key figure or role model can be effective in the design and delivery of S4D initiatives (Bailey et al., 2009; Schulenkorf et al., 2016) who has links with the community and can build trust and optimism with child participants, especially if they are out-of-school or have a negative experience with school (Morgan and Bush, 2016). While this might be the case for all S4D initiatives, education-focused S4D initiatives involving education stakeholders, such as teachers, could support links and complement the learning that is occurring in the classroom (ibid) although the evidence from the literature reviewed on this was scarce.

Rather than a top-down approach to programme design and implementation, the literature suggests the

importance of ensuring that participants have agency and meaningful engagement of stakeholders, such as teachers and local community. Similar to a critical pedagogy approach, S4D programme and all of its components should reflect the lives and conditions of the children and youth who will benefit from the programme. In other words, the programme needs to have a clear understanding of who the participants are, their background and needs. This also requires that pedagogy, learning processes and curriculum align with the needs of participants to promote effective learning (Wright et al., 2016). For example, the Teaching Personal and Social Responsibility (TPSR) model has been used as a flexible approach which empowers participants, creates meaningful relationships with and for the participants and provides the adaptability teachers need to match the model to their context (*See Chapter 4, Box 4.3*). Moreover, Mwaanga and Prince (2016) argue that participants should be included in the programme design process, to help the programme better address their needs and expectations although the type of involvement might depend on the age of the child.

Furthermore, the engagement of families in education-focused initiatives can be critical as they can shape behaviours, norms and attitudes of children and youth – whether in positive or negative ways. While families can be part of the problem that children and youth face, families can also reinforce the learning that children and youth have gained (Jeanes, 2013). Families may also be supported by S4D initiatives. For example, in Zambia, the Go Sisters initiative engages parents through family committees to debate and problem solve. Engagement of families is meant to gain the trust of the family and facilitate girls' empowerment, as participants may be seen as defying tradition and their culture (Mwaanga and Prince, 2016). The fact that the women in the Go Sisters initiative played football was met with scepticism that needed to be addressed. S4D initiatives have integrated families using different approaches. For example, three S4D initiatives in Kenya – two outside of Nairobi and one in a rural coastal town – aim to empower youth by using play to address community issues. The programming officers encourage government officials and local leaders to discuss the programme with parents as well as the importance of girls' education. They then meet monthly.

In addition, each of the initiatives organises: collective discussions with community members, co-educational movie nights to include young men, and weekend tournaments where information booths are set up to share resources (Spaaij, Oxford and Jeanes, 2016).

Schools also play a vital role – whether as the setting of the S4D initiative or as key stakeholders. For example, a South African school-based running initiative is delivered in partnership with 39 primary schools in the Western Cape Province and 4 schools in the Eastern Cape Province as well as a local foundation. At each level of delivery, the programme aimed to engage stakeholders (e.g. participants, implementers and others) in order to ensure their interaction for delivery – the initiative incorporated a management system to enable coordination between the regional and cluster programming officers and the implementing teachers (Burnett, 2015a). Furthermore, partnering with organisation such as the education ministries or other agencies in sectors related to children and youth can support S4D initiatives and enhance their capacity to better meet the needs of children, youth and communities (Sherry and Schulenkorf, 2016; Jones et al., 2017).

Fostering positive relationships can help ensure that design, development and delivery of programme is pragmatic and focused on education (Armour et al., 2013; Bailey et al., 2009; Svensson et al., 2016; Schulenkorf et al., 2016). However, forging these relationships can also be a challenge.

3.4.3 What are the challenges of education-focused S4D initiatives?

Literature reviewed for this chapter indicates several key challenges that education-focused S4D initiatives face, including: context-sensitivity in design, setting realistic goals, and limited available evidence to support design and practice.

3.4.3.1 Ensuring context is integrated, particularly where culture, norms and behaviours may be at odds

S4D initiatives can "either reinforce or challenge existing power structures", hindering the capacity to achieve education outcomes (Giulianotti, 2011; Spaaij and Jeanes, 2013; Wright et al., 2016). While there is a need

to understand the context when designing and implementing programming by engaging with local experts and stakeholders, this can also prove challenging.

For example, some communities may find the content of some initiatives difficult to discuss, such as girls' education or HIV and AIDS education. This requires working with communities over time and using different strategies to be able to achieve the objectives of the S4D initiative (Jeanes, 2013). Additionally, organisations external to the communities may bring in their own values, behaviours and norms that might not align with the volunteers or educators being hired to deliver them as well as the participants and community (*see Waherman and Zach, 2016 and Sherry and Schulenkorf, 2016*). As mentioned in the previous section, this requires reconciling different assumptions and perspectives as well as including local expertise and possibly additional planning and resources that need to be accounted for in the design and development of the S4D initiative.

Furthermore, the socio-economic context of the communities might mean that participants may face other challenges than those to be addressed by the initiative. This suggests the need for coaches and programmers to be reflective and adaptable to these types of challenges. Evidence from an S4D initiative in Cameroon, which works with teenage girls to become changemakers within their communities by providing a safe platform, indicated that while the organisation wanted the girls to be on the field participating in the sport, the coaches found that participants would come to the game hungry. Other would not be able to come at all because of lack of money – and some would borrow from volunteers who might also be facing financial difficulties (Spaaij, Oxford and Jeanes, 2016). Similarly, children's extreme vulnerability was also described to researchers regarding the Mighty Metres programme in South Africa. Many children would come to school hungry and would not be able to participate in the programmes – increasing the levels of absenteeism. More importantly, cases of child abuse and other forms of neglect were indicated, suggesting a need to ensure safeguarding in S4D initiatives (Burnett, 2014).

Working in and with schools might also present its own challenges to integrating context. Teachers and school leaders need to be engaged in the process in order to have ownership of the content and to deliver it effectively. Moreover, programmes being implemented in schools and in communities may not be aware of the relationship between a child and their peers. For example, the Mighty Metres initiative in South Africa was delivered by teachers, and testimony from a 15-year-old participant indicates that children were grouped with bullies (Burnett, 2014). Although this might not have been the intention, S4D initiatives can reinforce existing challenges without intent, especially in contexts where high levels of violence occur (Ibid.).

All levels of design and delivery need to be contextualised. The materials and strategies used can also present a challenge to implementation, particularly when they are not developed with the users (e.g. the educators and the participants). This was the case for the S4D initiative in Papua New Guinea which used Australian centric materials (Sherry and Schulenkorf, 2016). It is therefore important for S4D initiatives to engage local expertise when developing learning materials.

3.4.3.2 While applauding ambitious goals it can also hinder success

Where sport can be the solution to many social issues, including that of education, setting too many objectives or failing to prioritise realistic objectives can be challenging to accomplish. Initiatives should set objectives which can meet the expectations of participants, programmers and other key stakeholders, such as funders; as well as their organisational capacity. However, while ambitious goals should be applauded, they can also present a risk and undermine the success of the S4D initiative.

For example, aiming to address wider societal issues – such as empowering girls through education – can be difficult to achieve through S4D initiatives although may be encouraged by stakeholders, such as donors, seeking to be overly ambitious and obtain impact results which may not be possible. As mentioned in the previous section the context from which participants come can limit the attainment of goals promised by S4D initiatives. Participants may have limited agency, authority and status to become change agents due to the dynamics in their families and communities, particularly when it comes to girls' issues (Jeanes 2013; Mwaanga and

Prince, 2016). One education-focused programme for underperforming boys in Samoa suggests that rather than supporting the boys it might have led to their further marginalisation. Participants focused on the sport component in the hopes of becoming professional rugby athletes, and while a few may have, many returned home without the added skills to enter employment (Kwauk, 2016).

Realistic goals should be based on the human, material and financial resources available to the initiative. Working with schools, the evidence from the LBL programme in Papua New Guinea indicates that the programming officers were concerned with the infrastructure of the education system. LBL identified key challenges in the education system, including under-resourced and over-enrolled schools. Moreover, the teaching staff were poorly paid and unreliable, which was a major concern as the programming was delivered by the teaching staff (Sherry and Schulenkorf, 2016). Despite the commitment by implementing actors, the contracts, salaries and benefits of educators working on the delivery of S4D initiatives, is a key concern particularly when working with educators from vulnerable communities (Burnett, 2013). In addition, the quality of the education system, including teachers' capacity, are also important to note when developing objectives.

Realistic goals should meet the timeline of participants in the programme and have a post-programme plan for participants. Some programmes may be designed to follow the child through their life course from early primary school all through to the end of upper secondary schooling (Grade 12) as was the case with initiatives in the United States (Svensson et al., 2017). However, some programmes may have shorter participation timelines that may make attaining specific goals more difficult. For example, teachers participating in a UK-based programme for disaffected youth discussed the importance of ensuring links to an activity post-programme in order to maintain positive outcomes attained while in the programme and to achieve impact in the long-term (Armour et al., 2013). Creating post-programme pathways can provide participants with an alternative to the programming activities offered by the initiative and in some cases can include the resources to transition beyond school and to a job (Spaaij, Magee and

Jeanes, 2013). It can also provide children and youth with the opportunity to transfer their learned skills and abilities to other settings beyond those created within the initiative (Burnett, 2015a). However, resources needed to implement this might need to be further explored.

S4D initiatives need to ensure that goals set also meet the expectations of participants as it can pose a challenge to engagement and may make participants feel as though they have been deceived. For example, the Go Sisters initiative in Zambia included a training component in small business to help participants transition to employment. While some participants found this positive, others expressed their disappointment with being trained on skills that they would not be able to use, given that they felt as if there were no jobs available (Mwaanga and Prince, 2016). It is key that participants, programming officials and other key actors discuss the programme, its objectives and curriculum to reflect the conditions in which the participants live.

The final point suggests that outside actors such as government officials or policymakers as well as funders, donors and other funding sources play a critical role in the survival of S4D initiatives. They provide funding and at times influence the objectives S4D initiatives set which may leave organisations having to prioritise between the needs of the participants and community, and that of the funding sources. Additionally, funders and outside actors may require S4D initiatives to provide proof of how successful the programme is in achieving certain measurements and indicators which may not be aligned with the needs of the organisation – making the challenge of meeting their objectives even more difficult (Burnett, 2015b; Spaaij, Oxford and Jeanes, 2016).

3.4.3.3 Lack of research around the extent to which S4D initiatives can achieve educational outcomes

Despite the literature reviewed for this chapter, there is a lack of evidence on education-focused programmes and their link to educational outcomes. Whitley et al. (2018) indicated that few articles were found to focus on education or employment when compared to articles referring to health and other sectors. Coalter (2007) has also discussed the limitations of the research on the link between sport and academic achievement, such as the difficulty in isolating the role of sport and physical activity

Figure 3.1 Theory of change on Sport for Education

Challenges
The quality of the education system; Not involving local experts and stakeholders, such as schools; lack of clearly outlined educational goals based on target groups; lack of pedagogical knowledge among practitioners; lack of research on sport's role in educational outcomes (particularly academic performance)

Assumptions		
Children and young people are attracted to sport activities	In S4D programmes, designed and delivered according to developmental and educational principles, can achieve educational outcomes for children	Education-focused S4D programmes can also positively affect families and communities

Inputs		
Learning environment with context-specific materials	Teachers, coaches, trainers, mentors, volunteers who are trained in pedagogy and development	Human, material and financial resources to achieve objectives

Strategies, processes and activities			
Engaging key stakeholders (i.e., schools, families, community members)	Feedback systems: Identify and solve problem through group discussion	Team sport activity that facilitates dialogue, exchange and experiential learning	Mentoring

Outputs			
Number of participants	Attendance, retention and completion rates	Number of families and community members involved	Number of local educators

Outcomes					
School attendance	Better engagement	New content and learning experience for students	Improved relationships with teachers and peers	Improved academic performance, skills acquisition and, thus, employment prospects	Improved physical fitness, mental alertness and stress management (which facilitate school attendance and engagement)

Impact on SDGs	
SDG 4: Quality education for all	SDG 8/Target 8.6: Substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training

in improving academic outcomes. In addition, the study by Armour and Sanford (2013) which used teacher reporting to assess students participating and evaluate the S4D initiative could limit consistency across reported data. However, it is important to note the limitations of this review which did not include grey literature. Quality evaluation reports of S4D initiatives may have provided some additional findings on education-focused S4D (Chapter 2 has provided supplementary information on S4D programming).

Focusing research on some specific areas could strengthen the understanding of how S4D initiatives can better achieve outcomes, including educational ones. For example, more diverse, quality evidence from low- and middle-income countries can provide a more contextualised understanding of how S4D programming can be designed and delivered in different contexts (Sherry and Schulenkorf, 2016). As Nicholls et al. (2010) suggest, this might require actively and purposefully engaging S4D practitioners in research. Moreover, prioritising the views of children and young people from different backgrounds can also be valuable in improving current initiatives and designing future S4D interventions (Jeanes, 2013). To better understand the outcomes and impacts of S4D initiatives, authors point to a need for empirical evidence and systematic, longitudinal evaluation research (Sandford et al., 2008) while at the same time there is a need for research and evaluation to be used for local learning rather than external accountability (Svensson et al., 2017). Furthermore, research and evaluation in S4D should seek to understand the underlying structural issues that affect the impact of S4D initiatives (Mwaanga and Prince, 2016).

3.5 Conclusions and Recommendations

Despite the challenges, education-focused S4D initiatives can promote educational outcomes as well as other key outcomes that can improve the lives of participants, families and schools. Several characteristics should be considered by key stakeholders (i.e. programming officers, funders and donors, educators, and participants) during the different stages of the design, delivery and implementation. *Figure 3.1*.

summarises these characteristics in a theory of change which is a preliminary framework to be reviewed, modified and contextualised for future research.

To strengthen the evidence-base on education-focused S4D initiatives key recommendations emerge from the findings in this chapter, including:

- S4D initiatives need the organisational capacity to address the needs of participants and community in their programme. This requires setting the right goals that reflect the financial, human and material resources available as well as the expectations of key stakeholders including participants and educators. Funders and donors should also be mindful to ensure the right balance between accountability and the contextual needs and conditions in which initiatives are working.

- Throughout the design, implementation and delivery of the programming all key stakeholders should be involved – the voice of children, youth and teachers should be heard to ensure ownership and contextualisation of programming. S4D initiatives use different strategies such as management committees, community or family forums and participation in activity days. Furthermore, S4D initiatives should also better understand how to continue positive outcomes with post-programming activities.

- Meaningful activities that give participants and educators the opportunity to engage in problem identification and problem solving can lead to dialogue and critical thinking around the key challenges facing communities. This also requires quality educators – whether they are teachers, coaches or mentors- their recruitment, training and development is important. Policymakers may want to also explore ways to ensure physical education can also achieve educational outcomes.

- Strengthen the available research tools to better understand how organisations try to achieve educational outcomes (by type of outcome) and promote a culture of evidence informed practice in the field. Longitudinal research should be aligned with practice to assess sustained impacts and effects.

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Annex 3.A Summary of literature on education and sport

	Study information			Program design/delivery method			
Citation	**Study method**	**Sample**	**What sports were used?**	**How were sports used?**	**Where?**	**For whom?**	
Armour and Duncombe (2012)	MM	▲ *n*=2552 students who participated in CL *n*=2701 students who did not participate in CL Data from 2005 to 2008	Multiple (e.g., football, aerobics, skiing, skate boarding, rugby, judo, orienteering or rock climbing)	Changing Lives (CL) programme uses successful sports people to deliver activities to young people who were identified as disengaged	United Kingdom	Students	
Armour and Sandford (2013)	MM	▲ *n*=595 students (310 boys and 285 girls) *n*=7 school staff (e.g., teachers, youth workers or learning mentors) *n*=51 for HSBC mentors and lead contacts	Not specified	HSBC/Outward Bound (HSBC/OB) in 5 secondary schools aims to encourage and re-engage students in schools using sport or physical activity	London, United Kingdom	Students (11-16 years-old)	
Armour, Sandford and Duncombe (2013)	MM	▲ *n*=4700 students in SSLfS *n*=540 students in HSBC/OB in 5 participating secondary schools	Multiple	Two physical activity projects: (HSBC/OB and Sky Sports Living For Sport (SSLfS)) to address youth disaffection and disengagement from school through sports and outdoor activities	United Kingdom	Students who are disengaged or disadvantaged (13-14 years-old)	
Badura et al. (2016)	QT	▲ *n*=10,483 adolescents (49.2% boys)	Not specified	Use of organised leisure-time actibities (OLTA) to assess various educational outcomes	Czech Republic	Young people 11, 13 and 15 years-old	
Bailey et al. (2009)	n/a	n/a	Not specified	Role of physical education and school sport in the achievement of educational benefits	Global	Young people	
Bardid et al. (2016)	QT	▲ *n*=523 children (53.5% boys)	Motor skills	60-minutes of motor skill session and how it can improve the fundamental motor skills (FMS) of typically developing young children	Flanders, Belgium	Young children 3-8 years-old	

	Inclusion			Empowerment						Education	Child protection				Health and well-being			Other
What are the results?	Sense of belonging	Increased inclusion	Change in perceptions	Empowerment, self-determination, agency	Social capital	Cultural capital	Skill development	Engagement	Motivation, initiative, goal-setting.	Education (general)	Security, safe space	Reduced violence; conflict resolution	Bystander behaviour	Decreased drug/alcohol use	Health and well-being (general)	Increased sport/activity	Psychosocial benefits	Other
				+				+		+								Teachers' views on need to clarify role of mentors and develop programmes to include mentors in the classroom
				+			+		+	+								Relationships with key adults; Schools embrace project
	+			+	+		+											The context outside the schools can support students
								+		+								Lower levels of school-related stress; 11-13 year-olds were more likely to have a non-familial person to help with schoolwork
			+												+			Some evidence to link physical activity and children's concetration and arousal
										+								"Girls demonstrated a higher gain in locomotor skills than boys. The possibility of implementing this initiative in different settings (e.g., schools, sport clubs, childcare settings)."

Study Method		Study Participants/Sample			
Symbol	Meaning	Symbol	Meaning	Symbol	Meaning
QL	Qualitave	●	practitioners (volunteer or professional)	◎	project leader/office
QT	Quantitative	▲	participants	▷	Parents
MM	Mixed Methods	◇	Community members (not practitioners)	☑	Program
Op	Opinion Paper	◧	other professionals (e.g., multicultural workers)	▨	Other program partners or stakeholders
n/a	Not applicable	◈	community leaders		

Study information			Program design/delivery method			
Citation	Study method	Sample	What sports were used?	How were sports used?	Where?	For whom?
Burnett (2013)	QT	▲,●,◨ *n*=51 participants (16 primary school; 35 secondary school) *n*=21 managers *n*=51 other stakeholders *n*=231 research participants in 36 focus group discussions	Not specified	Youth Development through Football aim to include young people as drivers of social and economic development	10 African countries including South Africa	Children and young people (7-25 years-old)
Burnett (2014)	MM	▲,●,◨ *n*=57 interviews (15 school leaders, 15 school coordinators) *n*=35 focus group sessions (75 teachers, 176 learners) *n*=159 questionnaires to students *n*=29 questionnaires to school and cluster coordinators	Athletics	The school-based Mighty Metres programme which aims for students to run and set goals	Western Cape and Eastern Cape Provinces, South Africa	Students in improverished communities
Burnett (2015a)	MM	▲,●,◨ *n*=33 interviews (12 school leaders, 3 deputy principals, 15 school coordinators) *n*=35 focus group sessions (75 teachers, 176 students) *n*=309 questionnaires to students in grade 6 (138 boys and 164 girls) *n*=159 questionnaires to teachers (129 women and 30 men)	Athletics	Focus on running as a way to address poverty at the grassroots level	Western Cape and Eastern Cape Provinces, South Africa	Students in improverished communities
Felfe, Lechner and Steinmayr (2016)	QT	▲ Dataset 1 (KiGGs): *n*=5,632 participants Dataset 2 (German Child Panel): *n*=1,449	Multiple	Participation of children in sports clubs (estra-curricular activities)	Germany	Children (0-17 years-old)
Halsall and Forneris (2016)	QL	●,◇ *n*=12 (11 Community Mentors and 1 Elder)	Not specified	Within the Promoting Life Skills in Aboriginal Youth (PLAY) programme, the Youth Leadership Programme (YLP) which uses sport for positive youth development	Canada (Ontario, Manitoba, British Columbia and Alberta)	First Nation, Métis and Inuit youth

	Inclusion			Empowerment						Education	Child protection				Health and well-being			Other
What are the results?	Sense of belonging	Increased inclusion	Change in perceptions	Empowerment, self-determination, agency	Social capital	Cultural capital	Skill development	Engagement	Motivation, initiative, goal-setting	Education (general)	Security, safe space	Reduced violence; conflict resolution	Bystander behaviour	Decreased drug/alcohol use	Health and well-being (general)	Increased sport/activity	Psychosocial benefits	Other
							+			+								Peer-educators experienced upward social mobility with small improvements in their overall employment opportunities
		+			+					+						+		Improved image and recruitment capacity for schools
		+			+					+		+				+		Improved status of the school Increased parental support
					+					+					+			
				+	+		+	+		+							+	Better community development and partnerships

Study information			Program design/delivery method			
Citation	**Study method**	**Sample**	**What sports were used?**	**How were sports used?**	**Where?**	**For whom?**
Jeanes (2013)	QL	▲ *n*=young people (8-19 years=old; 29 females and 39 males) in 6 focus group discussions	Not specified	Using a peer leadership model, this programme uses sport to deliver HIV and AIDS education	Lusaka, Zambia	Young people from communities facing social issues, such as unemployment, and alcohol and drug abuse
Kay (2009)	QL	▲,● *n*=130 young people (8-20 years-old) *n*=48 adults	Netball	Sport to support young people from acutely disadvantaged communities	Delhi, India	Young people from disadvantaged communities
Kruger (2018)	QT	▲ *n*=61 (7-10 years-old)	Not specified	Combining physical education and second language learning activities	Germany	Young refugees
Kwauk (2016)	MM	▲,●,◇ *n*=51 formal and informal interviews *n*=659 survey data from secondary school students	Rugby	Using sport to provide young people with an alternative to traditional education	Samoa	Young males who are identified as 'at risk'
Morgan and Bush (2016)	QL	● *n*=8 (community sport coaches)	Multiple	Community-based sport for development initiatives aiming to reduce school disengagement	United Kingdom	Sport coaches
Mwaanga and Prince (2016)	QL	● *n*=6 (interviewed after the programme completed)	Football	Go Sisters programme works with women and girls to empower them through peer-led workshops and sport	Zambia	Women and girls
Nols et al. (2018)	QL	▲ *n*=10 male participants (14-22 years-old)	Basketball	Antwerp Wolf Pack Basketball Club (Wolf Pack) provides young people with an opportunity to participate in sports	Belgium	Young people
Pawlowski et al. (2018)	QT	*n*=658 children	Not specified	The relationship of sport participation on child development	Peru	Children
Rynne (2016)	QL	●,▲,◇ *n*=23 surfing participants 15-25 years-old *n*=26 programme operators employed and some unpaid 22-50 years-old *n*=23 surfing participants 15-25 years-old	Surfing	The local S4D initiatives use surfing to promote social, education and health goals and a connection to participants' social and physical environments	Australia	Indigenous communities

	Inclusion			Empowerment						Education	Child protection				Health and well-being			Other
What are the results?	Sense of belonging	Increased inclusion	Change in perceptions	Empowerment, self-determination, agency	Social capital	Cultural capital	Skill development	Engagement	Motivation, initiative, goal-setting	Education (general)	Security, safe space	Reduced violence; conflict resolution	Bystander behaviour	Decreased drug/ alcohol use	Health and well-being (general)	Increased sport/activity	Psychosocial benefits	Other
				+	+										+			The important role families play in deterring risky behaviours
				+						+					+		+	
										+								
																		Highlights the challenges faced with education-focused S4D initiatives, particularly in vulnerable communities
										+								
				+														The important role of families to support women's and girls' participation
											+					+		
					+										+			As opposed to findings from high-income countries, there were no statistically significant effects related to well-being and education
					+	+												Learning of surfing culture

Study information			Program design/delivery method			
Citation	**Study method**	**Sample**	**What sports were used?**	**How were sports used?**	**Where?**	**For whom?**
Resaland et al. (2016)	QT	▲ *n*=1129	Not specified	The children in the intervention group had three periods of physical activity per week: physically active education lessons (90 min/week) in Norwegian, mathematics and English; physically active breaks in the classroom (5 min/day); and physical activty homework (10 min/day)	Sogn og Fjordane County, Norway	Children in Grade 5 (10 years-old)
Sanders, Phillips and Vanreusel (2014)	QL	Interviews not specified; Focus group discussions with 8 coaches and 20 teachers.	Not specified	One of the initiatives adapts soccer with a curriculum to education youth on HIV and AIDS. The second initiative works with schools to train and develop staff to provide extra-curriculars, including sport	Capetown, South Africa	Children and teachers
Sanford, Duncombe and Armour (2008)	MM	▲ *n*=146 (Year 1), 149 (Year 2), 145 (Year 3) – HSBC/OB n=384 (Year 1), 2318 (Year 2), 4041 (Year 3) – SSLfS	Multiple	Two physical activity projects: (HSBC/OB and Sky Sports Living For Sport (SSLfS)) to address youth disaffection and disengagement from school through sports and outdoor activities	London, United Kingdom	Young people
Sherry and Schulenkorf (2016)	QL	●,◇,▮,◯,◧ SSP: *n*=27 participants, *n*=11 staff, *n*=13 stakeholders; *n*=2 focus groups NCS: *n*=24 participants, *n*=3 staff; and 3 groups of interviews = 2 groups of current participants and 1 group of former participants	Not specified	The programmes use sport combined with education to support youth in the Netherlands: Sport Steward Programme (SSP) and the United Kingdom: the NEET Stoke Challenge (NSC)	Rotterdam, the Netherlands; and Stoke-on-Trent, United Kingdom	Unemployed young people
Spaaij, Oxford and Jeanes (2016)	QL	Not specified – Case study methods	Soccer	Cameroon: uses an 8-week football programme to educate women and girls on themes such as sexual health and leadership Kenya: studies multiple initiatives which aim to addresses issues such as sexual and reproductive health in the community through play	Cameroon and Kenya	Women and girls

	Inclusion			Empowerment						Education	Child protection				Health and well-being			Other
What are the results?	Sense of belonging	Increased inclusion	Change in perceptions	Empowerment, self-determination, agency	Social capital	Cultural capital	Skill development	Engagement	Motivation, initiative, goal-setting.	Education (general)	Security, safe space	Reduced violence; conflict resolution	Bystander behaviour	Decreased drug/alcohol use	Health and well-being (general)	Increased sport/activity	Psychosocial benefits	Other
										+								
																		NGOs can support schools to strengthen physical activity programmes; Partnerships with government also key
				+						+							+	Improvement in anti-social behavior, but multiple factors involved in maximising benefits
							+			+								Value of sport to attract young people; Limitations of sport to address complex social issues hindering employability
							+			+					+	+		Strengthening ties with the community, local leaders and parents as well as young men through collective discussion

Study information			Program design/delivery method			
Citation	**Study method**	**Sample**	**What sports were used?**	**How were sports used?**	**Where?**	**For whom?**
Svensson, Hancock and Hums (2016)	QL	◎ *n*=17 (executive directors of S4D organisations)	Not specified	All organisations used sport as a 'hook' or to teach life skills, in particular to re-engage youth in school	USA (urban settings)	Youth
Wahrman and Zach (2016)	QL	●, ▮, ◎ *n*=10 (2 Jewish managers, 2 Arab male principals, 6 Arab female volunteers)	Football	Uses sport to promote a value-based education curriculum	Israel	Children from disadvantaged backgrounds in Arab communities
Wright et al. (2016)	QL	● *n*=8 coaches (2 females and 6 males; 24-45 years-old)	Not specified	Belizean Youth Sport Coalition (BYSC) trained coaches and others to use sport as an educational tool for youth development	Belize	Coaches

	What are the results?																
	Inclusion			Empowerment						Education	Child protection				Health and well-being			Other
	Sense of belonging	Increased inclusion	Change in perceptions	Empowerment, self-determination, agency	Social capital	Cultural capital	Skill development	Engagement	Motivation, initiative, goal-setting.	Education (general)	Security, safe space	Reduced violence; conflict resolution	Bystander behaviour	Decreased drug/ alcohol use	Health and well-being (general)	Increased sport/activity	Psychosocial benefits	Other
							+			+					+			
																		Emphasises the importance of bringing in the community when designing the programme
																		Long-term training with external funding; Link to community to ground training on the TPSR model

Chapter 4
Social inclusion and Sport for Development for children

Well-supported by the available evidence, sport can be used as tool for social inclusion of marginalised children and young people as well as towards achieving the SDGs. Benefits for social inclusion include: an increased sense of belonging and acceptance; enhancement of knowledge, skills and understanding; social mobility; empowerment; and greater physical participation in social life. However, several challenges limit these benefits, such as structural inequalities within societies; cost and access to sport; culture of exclusion in mainstream sports; and approaches to diversity. To overcome these challenges, the evidence indicates strategies and processes used in sport for social inclusion which work, including: team sports, supportive environments, public recognition, adapted sports, subsidized access, child participation approaches, and access to physically safe, convenient, and appropriately equipped sport facilities.

4.1 Introduction: Social inclusion and sport

Sport, being a naturally social activity, is assumed to have many social benefits, one of which is fostering an atmosphere of inclusivity among social groups. However, simply getting a group of children and young people from diverse backgrounds to play a sport together may not be enough for social inclusion and integration to emerge. Further exploration of the connection between sport and social inclusion is needed to better understand the mechanisms by which participation in sport is associated with social inclusion of marginalised children and young people.

Better understanding how sport can help achieve social inclusion in communities is particularly important for the work of UNICEF and partners on two fronts. First, Article 2 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child: which states that children and youth have the right to protection from discrimination,

> *"irrespective of the child's or his or her parent's or legal guardian's race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national, ethnic or social origin, property, disability, birth or other status…. activities, expressed opinions, or beliefs of the child's parents, legal guardians, or family members."* (UN General Assembly, 1989).

Every child has the right to grow up in a safe and inclusive environment. This belief is reflected in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which include various target areas that aim to address social inclusion: no poverty (SDG 1), quality education (SDG 4), gender

equality (SDG 5), reduced proportion of youth not in employment, education or training (NEET) (SDG 8, Target 8.6), reduced inequalities (SDG 10), sustainable cities and communities (SDG 11) and responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision-making (SDG 16, Target 16.7). Specifically, activities undertaken to promote social inclusion of children address issues such as: child poverty and social protection for minorities, children with disabilities, empowerment of children and young people, and gender equality (UNICEF, 2017).

To strengthen and understand the diverse ways that sport can lead to greater social inclusion, this chapter: 1) defines social inclusion for the purposes of this work and S4D programming; 2) looks at how sport and social inclusion are linked; and 3) analyses the literature and a sample of current initiatives to assess the quality of the evidence. This section contains three sub-sections which ask three critical questions: 1) why is sport important for each dimension of social inclusion? 2) what strategies work in sport for each dimension of social inclusion? and finally, 3) what challenges arise when using sport for each dimension of social inclusion? The consideration of challenges and contextual factors is important because to adequately assess the effectiveness of sport as a tool to promote social inclusion, the belief that sport can be used to foster social inclusion in any context as a sort of panacea must first be problematized. Knowing the limitations of sport for social inclusion will only help to strengthen the design and implementation of S4D initiatives.

The final section of the chapter summarises the main conclusions across a proposed theory of change for social

inclusion-focused S4D, as well as recommendations for practitioners, policymakers and research groups. Main messages are summarised immediately below.

Key findings

- The multidimensional model of social inclusion comprises three dimensions: the relational, the functional and the physical, and can be used to better understand sport for social inclusion.

- Sport for social inclusion is most closely linked to SDG 10 – 'reduced inequality', but also no poverty (SDG 1), quality education (SDG 4), gender equality (SDG 5), and sustainable cities and communities (SDG 11).

- The benefits of sport for social inclusion include: increased sense of belonging and acceptance; enhancement of knowledge, skills & understanding; social mobility; empowerment; and greater physical participation in community life.

- *S4D programmes that work for social inclusion are those that:*

  » Develop team sports that are participatory and yet can be adapted to meet the needs of all children and youth (in terms of format, rules, kit, equipment and facilities, etc.).

  » Create supportive, participatory environments that also publicly recognize the accomplishments of individuals from marginalized groups.

  » Promote sports that challenge norms of ability and gender suitability, to remove social barriers that prevent marginalized children and young people from participating in sport.

  » Build the capacity of marginalized young people and facilitate their participation in all aspects of the programme.

- *Challenges to S4D programmes' using sport for social inclusion include:*

  » Sports cultures (e.g. masculinization of sport) that promote elitism and exclude certain children and youth (e.g. a specific gender or LGBTQi youth), thus acting as a barrier to inclusion.

  » Family or community (societal) views that sport is not for marginalized children who historically have been excluded from sports or are new to sports.

  » Pervasive structural inequality, deprivation and inaccessible sites that limit inclusion – whether because of cost or because of physical disability.

  » A lack of good research on the effectiveness of different approaches to diversity.

- *Policymakers and practitioners seeking to improve social inclusion can trial the following promising practices:*

  » Mix teams rather than having homogeneous ones.

  » Hire a diverse workforce of coaches and trainers and train them to be fair, to justly address discrimination incidents, and to meet the needs of participants, especially children and young people with disabilities.

  » Set up an inclusive system. For example, programmes can introduce culturally sensitive policies/adaptations; establish systems for reporting and fair adjudication; or develop reward systems.

  » Recognize that context matters by having a multisectoral collaboration to provide wrap-around services (e.g. education, health, social protection agencies) and involve the community, for instance, through consultation forums.

  » Emphasise more and better-quality studies on what works and what doesn't work when using sport as a tool to promote relational, functional, and physical social inclusion.

4.2 What is social inclusion in the context of S4D?

Social inclusion refers to addressing the marginalization of groups based on ethnicity, migrant/refugee status, physical and mental disabilities, gender, socioeconomic status, and sexual orientation[1] or other. These types of categories are often used in the literature to organize

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[1] The term gender and sexual minorities (GSM) is used in this chapter as a more inclusive term to refer to the LGBTQi community.

information on social inclusion, and many sport-for-social-inclusion programmes tend to focus on inclusion of specific target groups such as martial arts for girls, football for disadvantaged young people, or rugby for children and young people with disabilities (Corazza and Dyer, 2014; Hayhurst, 2014; Spaaij, 2013). In contrast, thinking about social inclusion through a multidimensional concept can result in an approach with a broader scope, with the potential to simultaneously benefit multiple marginalised groups. Further, focusing too narrowly on targeted groups which can have the unintended opposite effect of perpetuating exclusion (Kelly, 2001; Block and Gibbs, 2017; Collison, Darnell, Guilianotti and Howe, 2017; Collins and Haudenhuyse, 2015).

Social inclusion in its multidimensional conception (Bailey, 2007; Collison, Darnell, Guilianotti and Howe, 2017) is applied in this review, adapted from Bailey (2007), and focuses on three key dimensions:

- **Relational dimension of social inclusion** which pertains to ensuring "a sense of belonging and acceptance" through interactions with peers or other social groups which can shape attitudes and behaviours as well as increase social capital, value gained through reciprocal social networks.

- **Functional social inclusion** encompasses equity[2], power and social and economic mobility, such as through the improvement of skills and increased agency.

- **Physical social inclusion** is a new addition, which refers to the availability and suitability of safe spaces for marginalised groups to convene, interact and participate in social life, as well as to address the physical needs or preferences of marginalised children and young people.

Applying a multidimensional conceptualization of social inclusion for the way in which sport may be used to achieve social inclusion leads to a more nuanced interpretation of how place and conditions, and people and relationships factor into achieving socially inclusive outcomes. Such considerations have important implications for theories of change, as well as implementation, in policy and practice.

4.3 How are sport and social inclusion linked?

Using the multidimensional concept of social inclusion ensures the relationship between sport and social inclusion is not limited to specific groups but can provide a basis with which to understand the strategies that work and what is key for multiple groups. For example:

- Sport programmes that address the **relational dimension of social inclusion** will likely facilitate expanded social networks and increased social capital for persons with disabilities, ethnic minorities, migrants and refugees, such as through team sport (Block and Gibbs, 2017; Cockburn, 2017; Corazza and Dyer, 2017; Hayhurst, Giles and Radforth, 2015; Kelly, 2001; Rossi and Pereira, 2014).

- Research suggests that through increased participation in sport, members of marginalised groups experience relational social inclusion (Grandisson, Tétreault and Freeman, 2012; Hancock, Cooper and Bahn, 2009; Kelly, 2011). These sport settings include for example, a project for culturally and linguistically diverse young people (especially those of African and refugee origins) in Western Australia (Hancock et al., 2009); a rehabilitation centre for young people with intellectual disabilities (Grandisson et al., 2012); and the Positive Futures programme for young people from disadvantaged communities in the UK (Kelly, 2011). The specific psychosocial benefits that are associated with experiences of relational social inclusion in and through sports include feeling a greater sense of belonging to communities, increase in social capital, and development of a positive sense of self or identity (Cárdenas, 2012; Cooper and Bahn, 2009; DeMartini and Ugolotti, 2015; Hancock et al., 2009; Spaaij, 2015; Toomey and Russell, 2013). Additionally, members of the dominant group also experience a change in perceptions about persons from marginalised groups which challenges stereotypical or prejudicial ideas (Corazza and Dyer, 2017; Devine et al., 2017; Galily et al., 2013; Grandisson et al., 2012; Lyras, 2012; McConkey et al., 2013).

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[2] This dimension was originally referred to as 'spatial' in Bailey's (2005) article. Name changed to 'equity' in this report to better reflect the meaning and avoid confusion with the newly added 'physical' dimension.

Table 4.1 Summary of outcomes, strategies/processes, and challenges associated with for sport and social inclusion in the literature, across *different* dimensions

Dimension of social inclusion		Marginalized groups mentioned in literature	Outcomes	Strategies and processes	Challenges
Relational		All	Sense of belonging; mutual respect; trusting relationships; social capital; positive identity; changes in others' perceptions	Sport-sport model; team sports; supportive environment; norm-challenging sports; public recognition	Sport culture; Approaches to diversity; Structural inequality; Cost and inequity access to sport; Location features
Functional	Skills	Young girls; disadvantaged young people	Education; employability skills and training	Sport-plus model; capacity building; participatory approaches	
Functional	Equity	Persons with disabilities; young girls; disadvantaged young people	Increased equity in access; social mobility		
Functional	Power	Persons with disabilities; young girls	Empowerment		
Physical		Young girls; persons with disabilities; GSMs	Increased active participation in social life	Sport-sport model; adapted sports	

Source: UNICEF Office of Research – Innocenti, 2019.

- Sport programmes that address the **functional dimension of social inclusion** can do so by 1) focusing on skills through services that provide education, employment, and capacity-building to disadvantaged individuals and communities (Rossi and Pereira, 2014) (*See Chapter 3*); 2) reducing socioeconomic inequality faced by disadvantaged children and young people and especially young girls, for example, through providing opportunities for social mobility (Spaaij, 2013); or 3) focusing on empowerment and participation in decision making among young girls and persons with disabilities, for example (Collison et al., 2017; Devine et al., 2017; and Hayhurst, Giles and Radforth, 2015 – *see also Chapter 6 on empowerment*).

- Sport programmes that address the **physical dimension of social inclusion** are likely to pay attention to details such as perceptions of suitability, convenience, and safety of sporting locations for marginalised groups like young girls and GSM children and young people, as

well as to provide access to appropriate physical environments, and/or adapt sporting rules to physical adaptations (Palmer, 2009; Roult, Brunet, Belley-Ranger, Carbonneau and Fortier, 2015).

Moreover, sport *for* social inclusion (i.e. the use of sport to promote social inclusion) is defined through a broad conceptualization that encompasses both inclusion in sport and through sport (Collins and Haudenhuyse, 2015). Inclusion in sport refers to the aim of increasing sport participation among underrepresented groups, e.g., persons with disabilities, young girls, the disadvantaged, and GSM children and young people. Meanwhile, inclusion through sport refers to the aim of addressing wider social, economic and political inequalities as well as issues of prejudice and discrimination such as that faced by ethnic minorities, migrants, and refugees. Both are related concepts. To achieve inclusion through sports, there must first be inclusion in sports, for marginalised groups.

4.4 What does the evidence say?

Most of the 38 studies included in the review were based on programmes and populations located in Western countries (e.g. Australia, the UK, the US and Canada – see Annex 4.A for full details). A much smaller number of studies were located in Africa, South America, and at least one in the Middle East. Most studies (68%) included in this chapter used qualitative methods, with a smaller proportion using quantitative methods (24%) or mixed methods (8%). Research on specific sport programmes and interventions comprised approximately 61% of the studies included. The marginalised groups targeted by these programmes and interventions were: ethnic minorities, migrants and refugees (6); persons with disabilities (3); disadvantaged young people (7); and young girls (7); but no sport interventions focused specifically on GSM. In addition, although the 'sport-sport' model was common to many of the articles reviewed, interventions were more likely than non-intervention research to use sport-plus (10) or plus-sport models (4). In the following sections, the results of the literature review are organised in order of relational, functional and physical social inclusion, and are summarized in *Table 4.1*.

4.4.1 Sport and relational social inclusion

Defined as "a sense of belonging and acceptance" (Bailey, 2015), relational social inclusion is one of the most-well studied phenomena across all marginalised groups. The literature reviewed for this chapter finds that the challenges to sport for relational social inclusion are almost as substantial as the benefits cited in the literature. The literature review demonstrated that the benefits that arise out of participation in sport for relational social inclusion are mainly at the individual and relational level and may not always extend beyond the field or influence the wider community or society. Furthermore, while a lot is known about the benefits (why sport is important for relational social inclusion) and to some extent the challenges (what doesn't work in sport for relational social inclusion), not enough known about strategies and processes used (what works in sport for relational social inclusion). Thus, it might be difficult to create theories of change that connect inputs with outputs and outcomes via clearly understood mechanisms. As a result, scaling and replicating the positive benefits associated with sport for relational social inclusion might prove challenging until more is known about what works across different sporting

Figure 4.1 Sport for relational social inclusion

Why sport?
Benefits

Sense of belonging | Mutual respect | Trusting relationships | Social capital
Positive identity | Change in others' perceptions

What works?
Strategies and processes

Sport-sport model | Team sports | Supportive environments
Public recognition

What are the challenges?

Mainstream sport culture | Approaches to diversity
Evidence on 'how-to' (e.g. creating supportive environments)

contexts. *Figure 4.1* summarises key findings, and this section further explains why, how and what might stop sport from influencing this outcome.

4.4.1.1 Why is sport important for relational social inclusion?

To develop a sense of belonging

Feeling a sense of belonging – developing bonding social capital – is a key precursor to marginalised groups' experience of relational social inclusion (Cárdenas, 2012; Cooper and Bahn, 2009; DeMartini Ugolotti, 2015; Hancock et al., 2009; Spaaij, 2015; Toomey and Russell, 2013). This is often in stark contrast to the other everyday experiences that marginalised children and young people have with prejudice, discrimination, and exclusion. Research on a programme for Somali Refugees in Australia found that in some cases mono-ethnic community sports clubs offered greater sense of belonging than multi-ethnic clubs with respondents suggesting that being among others with similar experiences helped the adjustment process (Spaaij, 2015). However, 'belonging' proved to be a gendered process, meaning that Somali girls and women were not afforded the same level of social inclusion through sports as boys and men due to traditional gender roles and social norms or expectations regarding the (in)appropriateness of the participation of women in sports. In general, there were fewer opportunities for women to participate in sports through local sports clubs, though multicultural clubs in the community offered a few options for women-only sport. These strong in-group bonds among male refugees, which seem to have further ingrained the exclusion of women in this context, is reflective of research which warns that exclusively relying on bonding social capital, rather than also developing bridging social capital to connect these individuals with resources outside of their community, may actually contribute to exclusion (Block and Gibbs, 2017).

In comparison, research on migrant males (mainly from Africa) in Turin, Italy, found that recreational practice of parkour and capoeira in public places helped youth to craft narratives of belonging (DeMartini Ugolotti, 2015). Similarly, at the *Goles por la Paz programme* in Cuidad Bolivar, Colombia, a sense of belonging and purpose contributed to disadvantaged youths' relational social

inclusion and their ability to coexist and interact peacefully with others (Cárdenas, 2012). In addition, GSM youth's participation in sport was associated with increased school belonging (Toomey and Russell, 2012).

To encourage mutual respect

Principles of good sportsmanship that encourage mutual respect among teammates and competitors help to create a supportive sporting environment conducive to relational social inclusion (Cárdenas, 2012; Collins and Haudenhuyse, 2015; Morgan and Parker, 2017; Spaaij, 2013). Marginalised children and young people may not be shown the same levels of respect as others, which can lead to experience of social exclusion or lack of acceptance. Research suggests that, for example, coaches' influence and opportunities to develop teamwork skills in the *UK Positive Futures* programme represented part of the unique contribution that sport made toward instilling values of mutual respect among disadvantaged youth (Collins and Hadenhuyse, 2015). Specifically, when the values of respect, trust and recognition are a prominent part of coaches' relationships with young people, it can help to compensate for some of the disadvantages that young people face and motivate them to push to develop their skills not just in sport but also in other areas of their lives (Morgan and Parker, 2017). At the *Goles por la Paz* football programme for disadvantaged youth, both in Cuidad Bolivar, Colombia, and Bais City, Philippines, moral values such as good sporting conduct and respect for others were instilled, for example, through creating an agreed upon set of rules for cordial communication. As Cárdenas (2012), reports "The children were committed to these rules and succeeded in doing so." Furthermore, at the *Vencer* programme in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, mutual respect among teams and teamwork were among some of the core values that contributed to disadvantaged youth's increase in employability, showing one way that relational social inclusion can potentially lead to improvement in functional social inclusion (Spaaij, 2013).

To engender trusting relationships

Sport provides an environment where trusting relationships can be built among peers, creating an atmosphere of acceptance and cohesion (Galily, Leither and Shinnon, 2013; Lyras, 2012; Oliff, 2008; Spaaij, 2015).

A cohesive society depends on trust among various groups, but due to prejudice, discrimination, and intergroup conflict, marginalised children and young people might find it difficult to trust, and gain trust, from other members of society. However, research suggests that specifically in the case of historic conflicts between ethnic minority and majority groups sport can help to build trusting relationships. For example, at Mifalot organisation's *Get to Know Your Neighbour* football programme in Israel, Palestinian and Jordanian children reported lower levels of mistrust and hatred for Jewish persons after one year of being in the programme (Galily et al., 2013). Similarly, research on the *Doves Olympic Movement Summer Camp*, which enhances simple participation in sport through a residential stay in a 6-day sports camp, found that Greek and Turkish Cypriot children reported greater cross-cultural interactions, friendships and collaborations after their stay (Lyras, 2012). Sport was also seen as a realm of social participation that can transcend deep-seated clan boundaries among Somali/Somali-Australian participants, when members of multiple clans play on the same team (Spaaij, 2015). Research by the Centre for Multicultural Youth Issues in Australia also found that for refugee and migrant youth, sport was considered a site for building trust but that this depended on culturally sensitive delivery of sport interventions (Oliff, 2008).

In other cases of non-ethnic-related marginalization, being able to build trusting relationships contributes positively to the perception of social inclusion (Cárdenas, 2012; McConkey, Dowling, Hassan and Menke, 2013; Super et al., 2017). For example, in the *Youth Unified Sports* programme friendship bonds between persons with and without disabilities was a major social inclusion outcome,

> *"Unified Sports offered the opportunity for inclusive and equal bonds to be forged among the two sets of participants [athletes with disabilities and partners without disabilities] that extended into friendships beyond the playing field. When these bonds were absent, there was less evidence of mutual participation in community settings."* (McConkey et al., 2013, p. 930).

Trusting relationships with coaches and peers also made significant contributions to the creation of supportive atmospheres and positive experiences for disadvantaged youth at local sports clubs sponsored by The Youth Sports Fund in the Netherlands (Super et al., 2017). Similarly, young boys in the *Goles por la Paz* football programme in the Philippines experienced positive peer relationships and friendships, because of their participation (Cárdenas, 2012).

To build social capital

Being part of a sports team, club, or association can contribute to relational social inclusion through increased social capital (Block and Gibbs, 2017; Cockburn, 2017; Corazza and Dyer, 2017; Hayhurst, Giles and Radforth, 2015; Kelly, 2001; Rossi and Pereira, 2014). Since Putnam's (2000) seminal work 'Bowling Alone' – which coincidentally uses a sport analogy of bowling – social capital has become a central concept in the study of civic/socio-political development and social relationships. As a result, many studies reviewed for this chapter on social inclusion focused on the link between sport participation and increases in social capital.

The idea of social capital is based on the premise that "networks and the associated norms of reciprocity have value" (Putnam, 2001). In this way, social capital is related to concepts of trusting relationships, mutual respect, and sense of belonging. However, too often social capital is used as an all-encompassing term that can lose its distinctive meaning. In this chapter, social capital is defined using Putnam's conceptualization of reciprocal social networks.

Social capital has been conceptualized to include bonding capital (cohesion within networks), bridging capital (cooperation across ethnic, class and other divisions) and linking capital (community-level collaboration between individuals and institutions) (Block and Gibbs, 2017; Burnett, 2006). Research suggests that the ability to build these various forms of social capital with similar and dissimilar others in the community and wider society tends to increase feelings of belongingness and inclusion (Block and Gibbs, 2017; Cockburn, 2017; Hayhurst et al., 2015 – *see Box 4.1*: Spotlight on Football Club of Barcelona: Embedding social inclusion in the local context). For example, young British Pakistani boys in multi-ethnic neighbourhood cricket and football clubs in North England acted as bridge-builders by facilitating interactions and

connections between themselves and other children from diverse backgrounds, playing active roles in their own development of social capital (Cockburn, 2017). Additionally, young people with disabilities who played on mixed-ability rugby teams such as *Chivaso Rugby* in Italy or *Bumble Bees RFC* in the UK, gained increased social capital through expanded social networks (Corazza and Dyer, 2017). However, although mixed teams figure prominently in the research on sport and social inclusion, some research suggests that bonding social capital (e.g., gained through participation in mono-ethnic teams, which are perceived as exclusionary in nature), could in some cases act as a prerequisite for establishing linking and bridging social capital (e.g., acquired through integration with multi-ethnic or mainstream teams) among refugee youth (Block and Gibbs, 2017).

To address issues of crime and delinquency, the Positive Futures programme in the UK sought to increase disadvantaged youths' social capital through encouraging community participation (Kelly, 2011). Similarly, the 'Segundo Tempo' programme for disadvantaged youth in Bahia, Brazil found that participants benefited most from socialization opportunities with peers and adults from the community (in addition to health and education) (Rossi and Pereira, 2014). In comparison, female participants of the "Because We're Girls" group at an aboriginal community sports programme in Vancouver, Canada demonstrated increases in linking social capital and support networks (Hayhurst, Giles and Radforth, 2015). (*See Chapter 5* for more on sport and reduction of crime as a key outcome of child protection)

Box 4.1 Football Club of Barcelona Foundation – Embedding social inclusion in the local context

FC Barcelona Foundation (FCBF), also referred to as the Barça Foundation, was created in 1994 and focuses strategically on education, social inclusion and violence prevention. Among the Barça Foundation's many efforts to improve the lives of vulnerable children is its FutbolNet Methodology, a sports-based social intervention programme which annually benefits more than 120,000 children around the world. The programs in Greece, Italy, Lebanon and Spain have reached more than 22,000 refugee children and trained more than 191 educators since 2016. FutbolNet aims to increase participation in inclusive and adapted recreational sports, develop inclusiveness, promote the active participation of children with different abilities, foster inclusion between refugees and host communities, and improve social educators' skills in using sport as a teaching tool. To do this, it employs specific rules: participants must solve disputes, as there is no referee; teams must be comprised of participants of different

genders, disability status, origin, and skill; and all must be encouraged to partake in the game.

As the Barça Foundation is based in Barcelona, the organization gives considerable attention to community contexts. It focuses on tailoring its goals for child and family participation, activities, and M&E tools and processes to the context in which the initiative is being implemented. The Barça Foundation collaborates with the implementing body at each site to choose the best-suited approach based on the characteristics of participants and educators. Each implementation site has context-specific outcomes to which FutbolNet could contribute. The Barça Foundation also acknowledges that specific training needs should be identified in each implementation site and should be answered with contextualized specialist training for FutbolNet educators.

Find more information at the following link: https://foundation.fcbarcelona.com/.

To develop positive identities as well as change perceptions

Sport can contribute to both improving the way the members of marginalised groups view themselves as they develop a positive identity and encourage a change in others' perceptions of marginalised groups. In the face of prejudice and discrimination, it can be difficult for marginalised young people to feel good about themselves and see their marginalised identities in a positive light, leading to feelings of exclusion (Cárdenas, 2012; Cockburn, 2017; Corazza and Dyer, 2017; DeMartini Ugolotti, 2015; Devine et al., 2017; Grandisson et al., 2012; Morgan and Parker, 2017; Meyer and Roche, 2017; Roult, Brunet, Belley-Ranger, Carbonneau and Fortier, 2015; Spaaij, 2015; Super et al., 2017). Participation and inclusion in sports can help marginalised young people construct more positive narratives about themselves and their communities. For example:

- Young people with disabilities participating in mixed-ability/unified/integrated sports showed increases in self-confidence, self-esteem and self-worth, as well as pride and enjoyment (Corazza and Dyer, 2017; Devine et al., 2017; Galily et al., 2013; Grandisson et al., 2012; Lyras, 2012; Roult et al., 2015).

- Young people from disadvantaged communities participating in sport programmes reported an increased sense of purpose, confidence and high-levels of engagement even when sports were challenging (Cárdenas, 2012; Morgan and Parker, 2017; Super et al., 2017).

- Research on refugee, ethnic minority, and Aboriginal young people participating in community sports showed that they were able to construct hybridized bicultural ethnic identities, "creating spaces of recognition within excluding spaces", and were also able to build their sense of self-worth and resilience through engaging in challenging activities, in addition to developing a sense of pride in both themselves and their community (Cockburn, 2017; DeMartini Ugolotti, 2015; Peralta and Cinelli, 2016; Spaaij, 2015).

However, while a sport programme for young girls in Senegal geared toward the promotion of gender equality resulted in girls having more positive attitudes about themselves, it had the opposite effect on males in the programme, whose negative gender attitudes increased (Meyer and Roche, 2017). These diverse outcomes underline the need to consider, and influence, others' perceptions when using sport for social inclusion.

Negative stereotypes about marginalised children and young people can lead to feelings of exclusion. Sport can help to address these negative stereotypes, though often with limited success. This is seen in the case of persons with disabilities – whose participation in mixed-ability and unified sports challenged their non-disabled peers', parents' and communities' assumptions about ability and attitudes toward disability – leading to greater integration in sports, schools, and communities for persons with disabilities (Corazza and Dyer, 2017; Devine et al., 2017; Grandisson et al. 2012; McConkey et al., 2013). In addition, research showed that through participation in sports there was an increase in tolerance and openness to diversity between Israeli and Palestinian children and young people, as well as between Greek-Cypriot and Turkish-Cypriot children and young people (Galily et al., 2013; Lyras, 2012).

However, such benefits may be short-lived. For example, even though young British Pakistani boys had taken the lead in integrating with their white peers on a mixed-raced cricket team (Cockburn, 2017), this integration did not transfer to other contexts off the field (e.g. the boys did not maintain interracial friendships in school, not even with the same children with whom they played cricket).

There is also the question of who needs the attitude change in the first place. One study showed that when a programme dealt with instances of discrimination by sanctioning only the marginalised players – by punishing for retaliation to the offense but not the offense itself – they faced inevitable challenges in achieving a truly inclusive atmosphere (Jeanes, O'Connor and Alfrey, 2015).

Accordingly, and importantly, it should be acknowledged that while sport for relational social inclusion efforts present many benefits for marginalised young people, it can also have the unintended effect of increasing their risk and exposure to social exclusion (Jeanes et al., 2015). The strategies and processes used by sport for relational social inclusion programmes likely determine what works, and whether the benefits of sport for social

inclusion programmes outweigh the risks. Thus, this chapter explores what works in these contexts to contribute to a theory of change for programmes aiming to achieve social inclusion in and through sport.

4.4.1.2 Which processes work when using sport to promote relational social inclusion?

While there was a lot of information on the benefits of sport for relational social inclusion, there was less information about the strategies and processes employed to achieve results. Nevertheless, among the research that focused on outcomes associated with relational social inclusion a pattern was noted in the model and types of sports used.

Sport-sport models and team sports

To promote relational social inclusion, sports programmes tended to use team sports, supportive environments, and public recognition (Corazza and Dyer, 2017; DeMartini Ugliotti, 2015; Morgan and Parker, 2017), which reflected an emphasis on sport itself as a tool for relational social inclusion without necessarily relying on supplemental activities and instruction about how to get along. Common team sports mentioned in the literature on relational social inclusion were football, rugby, basketball, cricket, etc. However, individual sports such as martial arts contributed toward relational social inclusion as well, especially if they were practiced as a team (Hayhurst, 2014).

Building supportive environments

Supportive environments also played a key role in promoting relational social inclusion. This included supportive relationships among peers, coaches/teachers and young people, but also parents and young people and the wider community as well. The supportive environment was key to increasing social capital, sense of belonging, mutual respect, trusting relationships, positive identity and changing perceptions of others (Hayhurst et al., 2015; Olliff, 2008; Oxford, 2017; Spaaij, 2013). Coalter (2013) discusses the role of protective factors – namely adults' interest in and care for participants – as well as closeness, social support and accessibility to coaches in building such environments. However, there is little instruction on how to create and determine the efficacy of these supportive sport environments.

One study suggested that the use of multicultural workers was key to building supportive environments when working with children and young people who are marginalised based on ethnicity or nationality (migrant/ refugee status) (Block and Gibbs, 2017). Another study emphasized the use of trained professionals, who are knowledgeable on developmental science regarding persons with disabilities (Grandisson et al., 2012). While another study referred to the use of mentors and volunteers from the same community as marginalised young people (Collins and Hauenhuyse, 2015). From these examples, a pattern emerges to suggest that the personnel designated with responsibility for implementing the programme are crucial to the successful use of sport as a tool to promote relational social inclusion, which makes intuitive sense – relationships depend on the connections and bonds between the persons involved. However, none of the studies reviewed on sport for relational social inclusion effectively tested the validity of these assumptions. Nevertheless, a body of research exists on the importance of motivational climates in sport contexts for children and young people that has been tied to positive experiences and psychological outcomes such as autonomy-support, self-determination, and goal orientations (e.g. Reinboth and Duda, 2006), but that has not yet been linked to the issue of relational social inclusion. Hence, there is room for further investigation of the connection between supportive and motivational sport climates and relational social inclusion.

Public recognition for participation and skill

Public recognition for sport participation and sporting skill or triumphs, can help to boost the public profile and perceptions of marginalised groups and in turn develop more positive self-perceptions and feelings of belonging (Corazza and Dyer, 2017; DeMartini Ugliotti, 2015; Morgan and Parker, 2017). This makes sense because public recognition represents a form of symbolic acceptance. Also, the very nature of being considered as part of a marginalised group comes with a degree of invisibility due to being relegated to the fringes of mainstream society. However, it is likely that public recognition which takes the form of tokenism will not be as effective as genuine recognition based on actual demonstration of skills and merits.

4.4.1.3 What are the challenges to sport for relational social inclusion?

The culture of sports

Despite a tendency to depoliticize sport as a value-free form of social engagement, sport is a cultural product, and a result carries the value ascribed by the culture in which it is produced. For example, the literature review showed that the mainstream sports culture and the dominant messages about masculinity, ethnocentrism, ableism, and elitism that get played out on a larger national or global scale also impact the adoption of sport as a resource for social inclusion (Block and Gibbs, 2017; Corazza and Dyer, 2017; Devine et al., 2017; Hancock et al., 2009; Jeanes et al., 2015; Olliff, 2008; Rosso and McGrath, 2016; Spencer-Cavaliere, Thai and Kingsley, 2017).

If on a national scale, a sport (e.g. football, rugby) is not seen as inclusive of marginalised groups whether based on ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation or ability then it will be difficult to bridge the connection between these marginalised groups and mainstream society, even if inclusion attempts enjoy some local success (Corazza and Dyer, 2017). In addition, some examples in the literature from the Australian context highlighted tensions between the mainstream valuing of elite sports clubs and professional sport teams, and more informal unstructured "pick-up" games common to local context of marginalised communities (Block and Gibbs, 2017; Hancock et al., 2009; Jeanes et al., 2015; Olliff, 2008; Rosso and McGrath, 2016). For example, if the local grassroots context values unstructured games but mainstream attempts at fostering inclusion focus on integration into elite sports clubs, participation rates and opportunities for intergroup interaction will be low. Furthermore, research on practitioners in inclusive programmes for persons with disabilities has questioned whether mainstream sport inclusion should be the main goal, as this would actually limit the participation of some young athletes, due to the perception that adapted sports were somehow 'less than' regular sports (Devine et al., 2017; Spencer-Cavaliere, Thai and Kingsley, 2017).

A culture of masculinisation

There is also the larger issue of the masculinization of sport. Previously, many scholars have contended that sport is perceived as a masculine form of socialization, which not only detracts from its utility as an intervention for social inclusion, but also makes it inherently exclusive (Anderson, 2011; Elling and Janssens, 2009; Hemka, 1998; Lenskyj, 1994; Shang, Liao and Gill, 2012). This dampening effect was true for various marginalised groups but especially young girls (including those at the intersection of ethnic minorities, persons with disabilities, and the socioeconomically disadvantaged), and GSM youth.

Numerous examples from the literature review detailed the ways in which the masculine nature of sport contributed to the exclusion of girls via fear of losing feminine appeal – including fear of being stigmatized as a lesbian; perception of sports as an unsafe and/or unnecessary distraction from more traditional gender roles in the household (Collison et al., 2017; Hancock et al., 2013; Hayhurst, 2014; Hayhurst et al., 2015; Meyer and Roche, 2017; Oxford, 2017). Even when female players were upheld as sports examples, this was met with scepticism as detailed in the Football for Social Impact programme in Rwanda, "the idea of replicating the skills of a female footballer was uncomfortable for some and during one discussion she [former Nigerian female footballer Perpetua Nkwocha], was compared to 'looking like and playing like a man'." (Collison et al., 2017, p. 229). However, this discomfort was used as a basis to debate and challenge traditional gender roles.

The exclusion of GSM young people from sports is a prominent issue and was well documented in the literature reviewed. In fact, only one study proposed benefits of sport for social inclusion (e.g. academic performance and school belonging) for marginalised GSM children and youth (Toomey and Russell, 2013). A much more common theme was the exclusion, stigmatization and lack of acceptance faced by this group (Calzo et al., 2013; Mereish and Poteat, 2015; Osborne and Wagner, 2007; Sartore and Cunningham, 2009; Zipp, 2011). Research suggests that the lower participation in sports and physical activity of both young male and female GSM people is due to the perception that these spaces are seen as intolerant to gender non-

conformity and hinder positive self-perceptions among GSM young people, therefore leading to experiences of exclusion (Calzo et al., 2013). Sports were also seen as more suitable for GSM females, which may in part be explained by stereotypically ascribed masculine characteristics; but were seen as less suitable for GSM males, for opposite reasons (Zipp, 2011).

Other researchers found that male students participating in mainstream sports (e.g. American football, basketball, baseball), were more inclined than other male students to exhibit homophobia/prejudice and discrimination against GSM peers. Conversely, female students who mainly participate in extra-curricular activities that fall outside of core sports were less likely than other female students to have homophobic attitudes (Osborne and Wagner, 2007). Even parents demonstrated unwillingness to let their children participate in some sports, which was associated with prejudicial and discriminatory views about GSM coaches (Sartore and Cunningham, 2009). Experiences of victimization were associated with disparities in sport participation and physical activity among GSM boys and heterosexual boys; while disparities in sport participation between GSM and heterosexual girls were related to higher rates of obesity among GSM youth (Mereish and Poteat, 2015). These results highlight the potential mental and physical health risks associated with GSM young people's exclusion from sports.

Much of the research reviewed on social exclusion of GSM young people from sports came from large nationally or regionally representative survey data in the US. On one hand, this speaks to the veracity of the results and implications for marginalised GSM young people; and on the other hand, this shows that this issue is not on the radar of other countries, perhaps especially non-Western developing countries. Moreover, none of this research drew from sports programmes, which could suggest that the issue of social inclusion of GSM young people in sports is also possibly being ignored by S4D initiatives in general.

Cultural differences and approaches to diversity

Cultural differences in gender norms, family values and the socialization of children and young people have implications for the effectiveness of sport as a means of fostering social inclusion. The literature reviewed

showed that cultural values on these issues can constrain participation in sports with regard to whether girls are allowed to participate (as aforementioned), whether family obligations overrule leisure time interests, and whether sport is considered something that positively contributes to child development – as opposed to academics or less physical activities (Block and Gibbs, 2017; Collison et al., 2017; Oxford, 2017). In addition, the literature review shows that responses to these challenges of cultural differences can take one or two forms: 1) top-down efforts by mainstream organisations to inculcate solidarity among individuals from marginalised groups through assimilation (Ekholm and Dahlstedt, 2017); or 2) bottom-up attempts by individuals from marginalised groups to navigate bicultural identities through hybridization, blending traditional and new cultures (Cockburn, 2017; Spaaij, 2015). Efforts at assimilation could result in greater social exclusion rather than inclusion, and individual attempts at hybridization may only be successful in increasing inclusivity, if valued at the mainstream sports or national culture.

Alternatives to multiculturalism, such as poly-culturalism and inter-culturalism, ask some different questions about cultural diversity that might provide some useful insight. For example, instead of explicitly discouraging mono-ethnic teams – as was the case in an Australian example (Jeanes et al., 2015), a poly-cultural approach (Morris and Chui, 2016) would assume that individuals can be part of both mono-ethnic and multi-ethnic teams simultaneously, and an intercultural approach would seek to foster "a very diverse repertoire of physical cultural activities" (Nakamura and Donnelly, 2017). Thus, when seeking to increase social inclusion through sport it is important to think of the implications of adopting a specific approach to diversity over another.

4.4.2 Sport and functional social inclusion

Functional social inclusion, which encompasses equity, power and social and economic mobility, such as through the improvement of skills and increased agency, was also a popular dimension of social inclusion for research, but to varying degrees. One approach to sport for functional social inclusion assumes that marginalized groups lack sufficient skills for inclusive participation in societal life and, more rarely, acknowledges how barriers

Figure 4.2 Sport for functional social inclusion

Why sport?
Benefits

Education | Employability | Increased equity in access
Social mobility | Empowerment

What works?
Strategies and processes

Sport-plus model | Capacity building | Participatory approaches
Norm-challenging sports

What are the challenges?

Structural inequality | Cost and access to sport
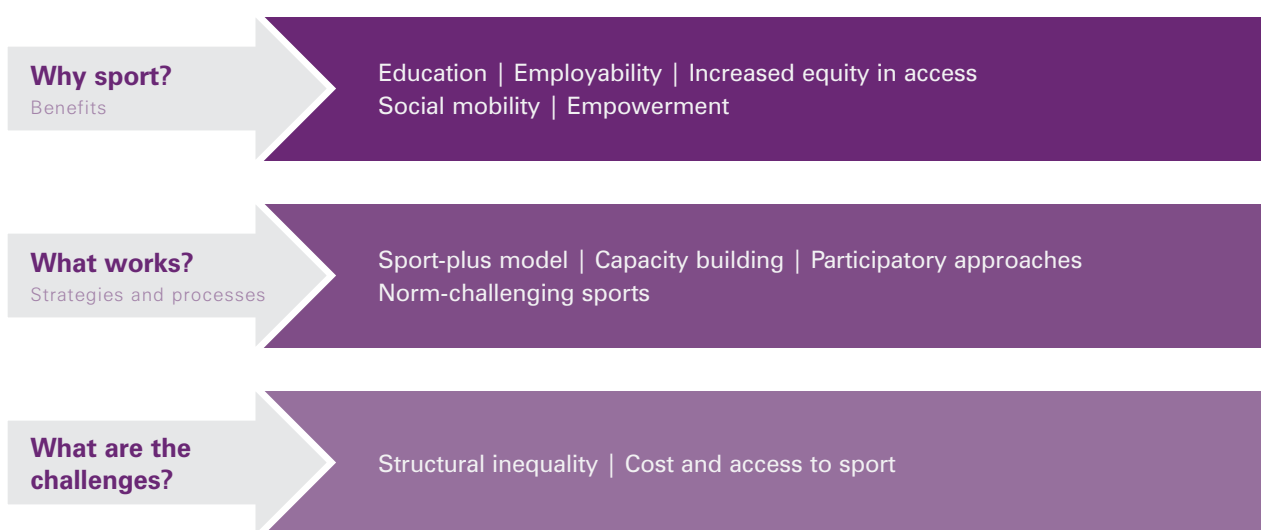
to opportunities and access to quality education and training have created this exclusion. In fact, most of the research reviewed that examined functional social inclusion tended to focus on strengthening and building participants' skills (e.g. Collins and Haudenhuyse, 2015; Ekholm and Dahlstedt, 2017; Hancock et al., 2009; Olliff, 2008; Grandisson et al., 2012; McConkey et al., 2013; Morgan and Parker, 2017). However, only a smaller fraction of these studies went a step further to use increased skills as stepping stones for addressing issues of equity and power (Collison et al., 2017; Devine et al., 2017 and Hayhurst, Giles and Radforth, 2015; Spaaij, 2013). This supports the need for greater attention to the structural inequalities which create or further contribute to marginalization and social exclusion.

Without such attention, programmes that aim to enhance skills run the risk of adopting a deficit approach, which assumes that the problem lies with deficits of the child or young person rather than the structural inequalities that give rise to disparities in education and employability in the first place (Kelly, 2011). As will be discussed in greater detail in the section on challenges, the tendency of sport for social inclusion programmes to focus on improving individual skills of children and young

people from marginalised groups, implies a compromise in the extent to which the bigger issues responsible for social exclusion (e.g. structural inequality) can be effectively addressed (Kelly, 2011).

This section asks why, how and what might stop sport from influencing this outcome. *Figure 4.2* summarises key findings.

4.4.2.1 Why is sport important for functional social inclusion?

A gateway to education and employment services

As structural barriers to the equal participation of all individuals in societal life persist, marginalized groups are still often excluded from opportunities to access quality education and training and develop necessary skills. In order to bridge the gaps in opportunities and skills that result from these inequalities, sport is sometimes used as a 'gateway' or entry-point to programmes that offer education and employment training (Ekholm and Dahlstedt, 2017; Grandisson et al., 2012; Hayhurst, 2014; Kelly, 2011; Meyer and Roche, 2017; Olliff, 2008; Peralta and Cinelli, 2016; Rossi et al., 2014; Rosso and McGrath, 2016; Spaaij, 2013), assuming that the provision of education and training can lead to greater social

inclusion. Although this may not affect structural inequalities, individual children and young people are still likely to benefit from the additional skills training provided by sport for functional social inclusion programmes.

Providing equality in access to sport and social mobility

However, sport for social inclusion is also expected to address bigger issues such as equity *in* sport and *through* sport. In a previous review of S4D programmes around the world, Hancock et al. (2014) found that social inclusion, "e.g., equality, breaking down stereotypes, accessibility, citizenship," was a common goal. Yet, in the literature reviewed for this chapter, there were only a few examples of sport for functional social inclusion programmes resulting in greater equity in and through sports. In fact, equity, such as that related to gender, ability or socio-economic status, was more likely to be reported as a challenge or area in need of improvement rather than as an actual outcome or benefit.

Equity *in* sport refers to rectifying the exclusion of some marginalised groups from traditional sports culture – whether because of gender norms, stereotypes associated with ableism, or disadvantage due to low socio-economic status – by increasing access to sporting opportunities. A few programmes reported providing broader access for migrant and refugee youth to health benefits associated with sport (Rosso and McGrath, 2016); facilitating the integration of migrant and refugee youth through providing increased access to information and transitional support (Olliff, 2008); or "democratization of access to sport" in schools and public areas for disadvantaged youth in Brazil through a municipal government programme (Rossi, de Alencar, Rossi, and Pereira, 2014, p. 447).

Equity *through* sport refers to using sport as a stepping stone for gaining practical and social skills that allow for social mobility to transcend a marginalised status. Only one programme, the *Vencer* programme in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, reported that some youth were able to improve their upward social mobility through increases in education and employability, though these effects were not widespread (Spaaij, 2013). Thus, while some evidence points to sport's potential to contribute to equity by facilitating social mobility, achieving functional social inclusion requires a broader societal focus that

includes not only individual development but also and especially structural inequality.

To empower marginalised children

Some sport for social inclusion programmes focus on empowerment of marginalised children and young people (Devine et al., 2017; Hancock et al., 2013; Hayhurst et al., 2015; Hayhurst, 2014; Kelly, 2011; Meyer, 2017; Peralta and Cinelli, 2016; Rosso and McGrath, 2016) to counteract the fact that persons from marginalised groups are rarely in the position of power necessary to increase their own social inclusion (for more on this – *see Chapter 6*). For example, community-based sport programmes that facilitate the engagement of persons with disabilities from communities in Pacific Countries, can help to increase their economic empowerment and independence leading to reduced barriers to inclusion as well as improved quality of life (Devine et al., 2017). Equally, community-based sports programmes could engage Aboriginal young people and their communities in the design and delivery of sports and cultural activities (Peralta and Cinelli, 2016). Similarly, programmes for disadvantaged young people can help to give young people voice by increasing their participation in decision-making (Kelly, 2011). In addition, sports programmes can help migrant and refugee youth and communities to gain a sense of control and empowerment such as the opportunity "to improve their health by gaining control over it" (Rosso and McGrath, 2016, p.109). Specifically, sports programmes geared toward social inclusion of young girls, and gender equality/equity, also typically lead to increases in leadership skills, self-dependency, civic agency, participation, and empowerment (Hancock et al., 2013; Hayhurst et al., 2015; Hayhurst, 2014; Meyer, 2017).

4.4.2.2 What works when promoting sport for functional social inclusion?

Supplemental programming and capacity building

Among the research that focused on benefits associated with functional social inclusion, a pattern emerged in the programme design, which commonly supplemented regular sport activities with additional classes and targeted instruction. To promote functional social inclusion, sports programmes tended to employ

participatory approaches and capacity building (Hayhurst, 2017; Hayhurst et al., 2015; Rosso and McGrath, 2016), which was seen as a practical approach to increase education and employability of mainly disadvantaged young people, particularly girls (Hayhurst, 2014; Meyer and Roche, 2017). There was no distinction between the types of sports used to promote functional social inclusion, as these often included multiple sports from which young people could choose.

For example, in South Australia, a pilot project based on the *Football United* (Fun) programme was successful in promoting both the health, education and empowerment of culturally and linguistically diverse youth and communities through sport (Rosso and McGrath, 2016). A programme geared toward integration of minority youth into Swedish culture focused on the improvement of social and language skills to build solidarity (Collison et al., 2017; Ekholm and Dahlstedt, 2017). In Australia, a programme for multicultural youth resulted in improved language acquisition and life skills for recent migrant or refugee arrivals, as well as provided opportunities for capacity building through providing professional training for workers drawn from the community (Olliff, 2008). A community programme for Aboriginal youth in Northern territory Australia implemented culturally-appropriate education and employment skills session, which facilitated cultural learning and had a positive effect on school attendance (Peralta and Cinelli, 2016). Through participation in sports programme run by a rehabilitation centre in Canada, persons with disabilities were able to develop their abilities, not just socially but also in terms of improvement in motor and cognitive skills, and general sense of independence (Grandisson et al., 2012). Lastly, through participation in the *Segundo Tempo* programme in Bahia Brazil, youth reportedly gained education and citizenship skills (Rossi et al., 2014). By using sport as an incentive, these initiatives were able to deliver education and skills training to their participants through sport for social inclusion.

Other S4D initiatives included in this review indicated a willingness to address youth unemployment by providing opportunities for education and training as well as employment The *Positive Futures* sports programme for disadvantaged youth in the UK, provided young people with a pathway to work by providing educational and employment opportunities for individuals (Kelly, 2011). Similarly, another group of sports programmes for disadvantaged young people in UK cities, including *Sporting Youth, Get Sport*, provided education, training, and employment opportunities to participants along with instruction in boxing, football and other sports. Meanwhile, the *Vencer* sports programme in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, helped youth participants to find jobs (Spaaij, 2013). Two S4D initiatives in Jamaica also helped build young people's citizenship skills (reduce anti-social behaviour), while NGO-led S4D programmes for ethnic minority youth in Kosovo helped to train youth sport volunteers with hope of increasing employability (Collison et al., 2017). Through participation in a sports-based NGO in Winita, Uganda, focused on social entrepreneurship, girls gained entrepreneurial skills, employability, and economic independence by learning to become martial arts coaches (Hayhurst, 2014). In the *Live, Learn and Play* programme in Senegal, girls participated in workshops that increased their life skills and citizenship skills in addition to playing basketball (Meyer and Roche, 2017).

Children's and young people's participation in programme decisions

In terms of participatory approaches, sporting interventions that foster functional social inclusion, it is important to work with the marginalised groups being targeted for inclusion in the decision-making process, design stage, and leadership positions (Olliff, 2008; Rosso and McGrath, 2016; Hayhurst, 2014). A review of the literature provides some evidence that programmes that adopt participatory practices tend to do a better job at achieving social inclusion than those programmes that use a purely interventionist-model based on deficit-model assumptions. For example, Rosso and McGrath (2016) highlight the use of ongoing consultation for engaging community members as co-designers and key decision-makers regarding programme priorities and participants. Other approaches involve partnerships, such as a brokerage approach that focuses on building links between local sports teams and mainstream sports clubs.

Similarly, participation methods can be applied in studies of S4D. A group of studies by Hayhurst and colleagues (2013; 2014; 2015; 2017) used participatory action

research methods to study the social inclusion and empowerment of young girls in and through sports. These participatory approaches to research also have the additional benefit of fostering community development (Rosso and McGrath, 2016), which may provide impetus to help solidify social inclusion.

Promoting norm challenging sports

The promotion of norm-challenging sports can also help to provide empowering counter-narratives used to justify the exclusion of marginalised children and young people from sports and wider society (Coarzza and Dyer, 2017). For example, in the case of young girls and persons with disabilities, participation in any form of physically demanding sport that is perceived as 'masculine' or 'tough', challenges traditional norms for gender and physical ability. As a result, sport interventions are more likely to be functionally empowering if, for example, they use martial arts training that serves the dual purpose of opportunities for social entrepreneurship as well as self-protection from gender-based violence (Hayhurst, 2014) or if they engage persons with disabilities in mixed-ability rugby teams or competitive unified sports (Coarzza and Dyer, 2017).

4.4.2.3 What are the challenges to sport for functional social inclusion?

Structural inequality

Structural inequality was referred to in several of the articles reviewed as one of the biggest challenges to sport for functional social inclusion mainly but also social inclusion in general (Collison et al., 2017; Hancock et al., 2009; Olliff, 2008; Rossi and Pereira, 2014; Rosso and McGrath, 2016; Spaaij, 2013). The effectiveness of sport in promoting social inclusion for economically disadvantaged populations is limited when too much emphasis is put on 'correcting' or compensating for individual deficits and not enough attention is paid to broader structural issues. For example, while NGO-led S4D programmes for ethnic minority youth in Kosovo expected the training of youth sport volunteers to increase employability, the reality of limited availability of jobs in an economic downturn meant that not many young people actually found employment (Collison et al., 2017). In addition, two programmes from Brazil – *Segundo Tempo*

and Vencer – found that unless structural factors, such as inequality in the education system and labour market barriers (e.g. discriminiation and lack of opportunities) (Spaaij, 2013), are addressed gains achieved in sports programmes tend to remain at individual or relational level rather than permeate barriers to inclusion in wider society. These researchers suggest that partnerships between different sectors was a main contributing factor to programme's success in achieving social inclusion, education and civic learning outcomes (Spaaij, 2013; Rossi and Pereira, 2014 – *see for a programming example Box 4.2*: Spotlight on Just Play – Leveraging Partnerships to Broaden the Reach for Children).

Issues of cost and accessibility

Despite what should be an elementary consideration, studies showed that many programmes that attempt to use sport a resource for social inclusion overlook the extent to which the issue of cost and equity in access to sport may act as a barrier (Hancock et al., 2009; McMillan, McIsaac and Janssen, 2016; Olliff, 2008; Rosso and McGrath, 2016). For example, research using representative survey data shows that youth from reconstituted families in Canada were less likely to participate in sport due to income limitations, and that to increase sport participation, one must take into consideration the family structure and resources available for spending on recreational activities such as sport (McMillan et al., 2016). Thus, to ensure consideration of such contextual factors, programmes should use theories of change which explore broader assumptions and inputs such as economic challenges to participation and the possibility of financial subsidies, for example.

In several studies, the issue of cost and access as barriers was something that participants often mention in interviews. Whether it be the cost of membership fees for sports club, the cost and availability of equipment and transportation or the lack of appropriate sporting facilities in resource-poor communities, cost access to sport can act as a major barrier to its effectiveness in promoting functional social inclusion (Hancock et al., 2009; Olliff, 2008; Rosso and McGrath, 2016). Therefore, sport may not be the most effective intervention to address the social exclusion of children and young people from low-resource neighbourhoods unless participation is free,

Box 4.2 Spotlight on Just Play – Leveraging Partnerships to Broaden the Reach of Outcomes for Children

Just Play, an S4D program for children and adolescents ages 6 to 18, was developed in 2009 by the Oceania Football Confederation (OFC) in partnership with the Government of Australia and the Union of European Football Association Foundation for Children. Through child-centered football sessions for boys and girls with and without disabilities throughout the Pacific, it integrates lessons that address four target areas: social inclusion, violence against women and children, gender inequality, and health. Just Play is locally led through implementation and monitoring by in-country teams, who are highly involved in feedback. After goals are set and local capacity is strengthened, locally led in-country teams use digital platforms to gather programme data through pre- and post-questionnaires with participants, staff, and parents/caregivers, stories of change, and knowledge-attitude-practice studies. In this way, the programme is not only developed based on local needs, but the Just Play model also belongs to the people of the Pacific who are helping to develop it for their region and for the world.

The success of the programme is visible throughout the Pacific. In the Cook Islands, Fiji, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tonga, and Vanuatu in 2016, for example, a much larger percentage of children after the program than before reported enjoying playing football with girls and acknowledging and celebrating differences, in addition to outcomes in its other target areas (UNICEF Just Play Strategy Document).

Building on its early success, Just Play has been scaling up in terms of its target age range, its geographic reach, its stakeholders and supporters, and the contexts in which it operates. Originally, Just Play targeted children ages 6 to 12 in 11 Pacific countries: American Samoa, Cook Islands, Fiji, New Caledonia, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tahiti, Tonga and Vanuatu. It has expanded its programming to adolescents ages 13 to 16 in Fiji, Tonga, and Samoa while garnering the support of UNICEF and the New Zealand Government. The programme has been expanding geographically through a partnership with the All India Football Federation to launch Just Play pilots in the State of Kerala (with the Kerala Football Association and the Government of Kerala) and the State of Maharashtra by the Western India Football Association. The programme is expanding to other Indian States and, most recently, to Kiribati and Tuvalu with further interest in Indonesia and other Asian countries. Furthermore, in 2015, Just Play grew to develop a Just Play Emergency Program as part of UNICEF's response to Tropical Cyclone Pam in Vanuatu. Now, in areas most likely to experience natural disasters, Just Play Emergency Program leverages existing content to implement activities through a flexible format of eight-sessions that deliver messages about safe water, personal safety, and preparedness.

OFC partners with various ministries and existing organizations, including other civil society organizations, to engage at different levels within each country and build mutually beneficial relationships. Building on the success of scaling up in these ways, there remains much potential for expanding the OFC-UNICEF partnership to enable other UNICEF Country Offices to implement Just Play in their local contexts. Using lessons learned from previous growth, a model informed by continuous monitoring and evaluation, and the strong partnerships it has created, Just Play has the potential to extend further to humanitarian contexts, such as with the UNHCR.

Find more information at the following link: http://ofcfoundation.org/about-ofc-just-play/.

low or subsidized, and access to appropriate facilities, equipment, and transportation is improved.

4.4.3 Sport and physical social inclusion

Often creating a social space for children and young people from marginalised groups necessitates the creation or adaptation or modification of physical places to make participation in sport more available, accessible, and convenient (e.g., for persons with disabilities) (Grandisson et al., 2012; Hancock et al., 2009). Thus, the concept of physical social inclusion refers to the availability and suitability of safe spaces for marginalised groups to convene, interact and participate in social life, as well as to address the physical needs or preferences of marginalised children and young people. This section asks why, how and what might stop sport from influencing this outcome. *Figure 4.3* summarises key findings.

4.4.3.1 Why is sport important for physical social inclusion?

A boost to active participation

Having physical places that are conducive to social inclusion can result in increased active participation in

social life through sports when these places are both safe and convenient, thereby affording marginalised children and young people the opportunity to benefit from sport for social inclusion (Grandisson et al., 2012; Hancock et al., 2009; Lopes, 2015; and Palmer, 2009 – *see Chapter 5* for a deeper discussion of safe spaces in sport).

Less well-studied in the research literature, physical social inclusion is important because it is a prerequisite for both relational and functional social inclusion. Thus, the decision to emphasize physical social inclusion in the multidimensional model of social inclusion was purposive. Overlooking this physical dimension would likely pose challenges to successfully addressing the other two dimensions of social inclusion. For example, increased active participation in sports among persons with disabilities was associated with increased social inclusion, as well as the improvement of motor and cognitive abilities (Grandisson et al., 2012). Additionally, research looking at physical social inclusion of ethnic minorities, migrants, and refugees found that participation in sport increased, which was associated with greater sense of belonging in addition to health benefits (Hancock et al., 2009).

Figure 4.3 Sport for physical social inclusion

Why sport? Benefits	Increased active participation in social life
What works? Strategies and processes	Sport-sport model | Adapted sports
What are the challenges?	Accessibility | Location

4.4.3.2 What works when using sport to promote physical social inclusion?

Sport-sport models and adapted sports

Sport-sport models, that focus on playing sport without any supplemental forms of instruction, were the focus of most research on sport for physical social inclusion. In addition, adapted sports were important for improving the equity in access for persons with and without disabilities (Hancock et al., 2009; Lopes, 2015; Palmer, 2009). For example, *SURFaddict*, a sports programme in Portugal, used adapted surfing and the aquatic environment as a therapeutic sport intervention for persons with disabilities to promote sensory integration (Lopes, 2015). In a few other instances, 'adapted' sports were used with ethnic minorities, migrants and refugees due to either limited knowledge of mainstream sports in their new host countries or preference for more informal recreational games (see for instance Hancock et al., 2009).

The term 'adapted sports' could also be applied to other modifications made to other aspects of the physical sporting experience, for example, the uniforms worn during sport. Among a group of Somali refugee Muslim young girls playing football in a community sports programme in Australia, a prime concern was whether the attire required to play would be deemed acceptable by religious standards, and how to adapt the shorts for example, to be more modest (Palmer, 2009). This represents a form of physical inclusion that has only recently captured the attention of multinational athletic brands such as Nike, who launched an ad campaign featuring a sports hijab for pro athletes in 2017 with the aim of making sport more inclusive for Muslim girls and women. Modifying or adapting the veil for sport can be empowering for Arab women and provide them with an opportunity to be athletes and "reclaim their rights over their body" in a form that is not in opposition to their religious practice and follows the norms of participation in sport (Amara, 2013).

4.4.3.3 What are the challenges to sport for physical social inclusion?

When addressing physical social inclusion, the choice of location can pose challenges to accessibility and use for both persons with and without disabilities (Oxford, 2017; Roult et al., 2015). For persons without disabilities this might include a safe and convenient location. For example, the VIDA programme, which focused on the social inclusion of young girls through football in Chévere, Colombia, found that even though the programme was open to both genders, there was low participation among females (Oxford, 2017). A lack of physical safety, distance and accessibility in programme location and infrastructure resulted in females opting out (or their mothers opting them out) (Ibid.). Furthermore, the design of the space also discouraged female participation through reinforced gender norms.

> *"This research revealed that although 'the door is always open' for female VIDA participants, the door is not the problem, but rather, the literal and metaphorical path to the door. The use of space, and in particular, how boys and men are socialised to dominate sporting spaces has become an implicit and explicit ritualised form of control in Chévere …"* (Oxford, 2017, pp. 9-10).

Though that study focused on inclusion of young girls, the issue of safety is likely to apply to all children, and the issue of gendered spaces is likely to apply to GSM young people also.

In addition, persons with disabilities face unique challenges with location features such as the need for wheelchair ramps, accessible bathrooms/changing rooms and specialized equipment and transportation, which might make it difficult to organize practice and sport events (Roult et al., 2015). Furthermore, spaces may not be safely or inclusively designed, such as for people with hearing or visual impairments. Relying on singular communication modalities – such as communicating primarily visually or verbally – lacking the ability to accommodate assistive devises or specialised learning equipment or overlooking safety concerns such as cluttered spaces may all contribute to the physical exclusion of persons with disabilities.

Apart from location-based considerations, the provision of adapted sports was also not without its challenges (Lopes, 2015; Roult et al., 2015). For example, research based in school settings in Quebec, Canada, showed that sport practitioners experienced difficulty in adapting and tailoring integrated sport activities for children and youth of different levels of ability (Roult et al., 2015).

Similarly, participation in the *SURFaddict* intervention varied based on the type of disability. In 2012, the intervention (surfing events) saw greater participation from persons with mobility and intellectual/cognitive disabilities but very low participation from persons with visual impairments. In 2013, the participant pool reflected greater diversity but with only a slightly greater participation from persons with visual impairments (Lopes, 2015). These findings may suggest that surfing interventions even when adapted might not be the best way to promote social inclusion among persons with visual impairments, as the authors highlight possible distrust among or stigma toward people with visual impairments regarding practicing extreme sports (Lopes, 2015). There was also the issue of the level of training of professionals working with persons with disabilities, specifically their knowledge of sport and developmental science and their ability to apply these skills in implementing programmes and designing activities that were truly inclusive for children and youth with disabilities (Grandisson et al., 2012).

4.5 Conclusion and recommendations

In sum, child-focused S4D programmes and policies should reflect a greater emphasis on social inclusion as a nuanced multidimensional concept, as one way of addressing the focus on relational social inclusion and shift the balance to ensure that functional and physical approaches to social inclusion are also prioritized. Rather than focusing on specific target groups for inclusion (which can have the unintended and paradoxical effect of perpetuating exclusion from sports), sport programmers should focus instead on the different dimensions of social inclusion and how these can be used to simultaneously integrate multiple marginalised groups. And, even though the benefits of sport for social inclusion are fairly well understood, more and better-quality research is needed to get a firm grasp on what works and what doesn't work when using sport as a tool to promote relational, functional, and physical social inclusion.

Programmes should rely on theories of change which employ cooperative developmental approaches to facilitate outcomes in social inclusion. This chapter has aimed to summarise the results of the literature review,

including the characteristics and processes for sport and all three dimensions of social inclusion, in a theory of change which is a preliminary framework to be reviewed, modified and contextualised for future research (*see Figure 4.4*). Below, specific recommendations for each dimension of social inclusion are summarised, drawing from examples in the literature.

4.5.1 Recommendations on Sport for Relational Social Inclusion

This section presents four recommendations for practice in sport for relational social inclusion, developed from the integrated review of the literature:

Hire a diverse workforce

Due to systems of prejudice and discrimination, marginalised groups are underrepresented in many areas of social life. Therefore, when marginalised young people interact with sport for social inclusion programmes, it would be helpful if the programme staff reflect the diversity of the young people enrolled in the programme. For example, Block and Gibbs (2017) demonstrate the effectiveness of hiring multicultural workers to facilitate communication, transportation, engagement and support for refugee and migrant youth, particularly when these workers are from refugee backgrounds themselves. Sometimes members of a majority group do not always understand exclusion, discrimination and 'invisibility', and therefore their expectations of marginalised young people might be detached from these young people's every day reality. Having a diverse workforce can support inclusion by not only making marginalised young people feel represented in programme management but also by facilitating the involvement of these young people themselves in programme management. Furthermore, it could potentially provide some built-in role models that can serve as the foundation for the trusting relationships, mutual respect and recognition that are important for developing a sense of belonging and acceptance.

When possible, one solution is to recruit staff from both within and outside of the community or marginalised populations. Hiring within the community or from among members of marginalised groups can be seen as an opportunity for capacity building that also contributes to

Figure 4.4 Theory of Change on Sport for Social Inclusion

Challenges
Cost and accessibility (equipment, transportation; Deficit approach and persistent structural barriers to inclusion, such as exclusive or limited employment opportunities; Lack of cross-sector collaboration

Assumptions		
Social inclusion requires a sense of belonging, acceptance, and knowledge and skills to be functional members of society	Available and suitable places and spaces for sports participation support social inclusion	Social inclusion-focused S4D programmes create a mastery-oriented motivational climate

Inputs							
Participatory programme design with children, young people and community	Accessible, safe and appropriately equipped programmes	Culturally sensitive policies and adaptations	Diverse coaches/staff and trained multicultural workers	Coaches and staff trained in integrated and adapted sports	Recruitment across multiple social groups/ statuses	Financial subsidies	Fair and just adjudication system for discrimination

Strategies, processes and activities						
Cross-sectoral and community collaboration	Positive, inclusive environment of respect and trust	Type of sport (e.g. adapted, norm-challenging, and team or individual sport)	Skills-focused, mastery-oriented activities	Participatory team sports with both mixed and homogeneous teams	Activities enhanced with education or employment training	Positive public recognition of abilities, skills and merit

Outputs			
Increased number of marginalized children accessing and participating in sport	Increased opportunities for access to quality education and employment training for marginalized children	Increased education and employability skills	Decreased incidence of discrimination in sport settings

Outcomes					
Greater access to physically inclusive social spaces and to societal life	Bonding and bridging social capital to promote belonging and challenge stereotypes	Empowerment and social mobility	Belonging, trust, mutual respect and positive individual and community identity	Improved public perceptions of marginalized group(s)	Greater meaningful societal participation (e.g., employment)

Impact on SDGs						
SDG 1: No poverty	SDG 4: Quality education	SDG 5: Gender equality	SDG 8:/Target 8.6: Reduce proportion of NEET youth	SDG 10: Reduced inequalities	SDG 11: Sustainable cities and communities	SDG 16/Target 16.7: Responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision-making

functional social inclusion. Hiring from outside the community or hiring non-marginalised persons could act as a strategy for increasing bridging and linking social capital which also contributes to relational social inclusion. However, this category of sports programme staff might require cultural sensitivity training.

Combine mixed and heterogeneous teams

Research shows that being on homogenous teams with peers with similar backgrounds and experiences can act as a protective factor by creating a deep sense of belonging (Block and Gibbs, 2017). However, it also cautions against relying exclusively on bonding social capital facilitated among group members, as doing so can increase the social distance between group members and non-group members and, thus, impede social inclusion (Block and Gibbs, 2017). Due to assumptions about benefits of intergroup contact for mitigating prejudice, the research shows that sport programmes sometimes choose to prioritize mixed teams over homogenous teams. It is true that mixed sports teams provide certain incontestable benefits, for example, research shows that the participation of persons with disabilities in mixed ability/unified sports alongside non-disabled peers contributes to a motivating and supportive inclusive sports climate (Corazza and Dyer, 2017; McConkey et al., 2013). Therefore, while homogeneous teams can contribute to bonding social capital, bridging social capital is also necessary for relational social inclusion and can be facilitated through mixed teams although ensuring a safe space for intergroup contact to occur.

Rather than definitively prefer one format over the other, the needs of the children should be taken into consideration, as should their voices and experiences. For example, if the priority is for minority children and young people to build bonds with similar others and feel like they have a place to belong through participation in the sports programme, then homogenous teams might be the best fit. However, if the priority is for marginalised children and young people to form connections with and feel accepted and respected by others in society, then mixed teams might be the best fit.

Establish systems for reporting and fair adjudication of discrimination incidents

The mainstream culture associated with sports such as football, rugby and basketball for example, can lead to taunts and altercations among players on the field that might also escalate off the field. Research shows that even when sport is used as a tool to promote relational social inclusion, marginalised young people can still experience prejudice, discrimination, and exclusion (e.g. De Martini Ugolotti, 2015). Therefore, it is important to set up systems for conflict management, as well as fair reporting and adjudication of such unfortunate events whether this comes from marginalised or non-marginalised peers, parents, coaches or other staff. Having a forum to safely air grievances of this nature and knowing that systems are in place to protect against discrimination will go a long way in creating a more inclusive sporting atmosphere for marginalised young people, especially ethnic minorities, refugees, and migrants.

One practical solution is to link the reporting of discrimination incidents to existing child protection and safeguarding systems in place for sport programmes, and in the broader social systems. Reduced concerns about how incidents of discrimination will be dealt with could prove especially useful in encouraging greater participation in sports, e.g. for GSM young people, who research shows are likely to stay away from sports due to negative experiences in masculinized sport spaces (Calzo et al., 2013; Mereish and Poteat, 2015; Osborne and Wagner, 2007; Satore and Cunningham, 2009; Zipp, 2011).

Develop built-in reward systems

Psychology has long established that positive reinforcement is one of the most effective ways to promote desirable behaviour (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Research shows that recognition for sporting skill and achievement can be a key source of motivation for marginalised children and young people. Specifically, when this recognition takes place in public forums it is associated with increased sense of belonging and acceptance, positive identity development, and changing the perceptions of others (Coraaz and Dyer, 2017; De Martini Ugolotti, 2015; Morgan and Parker, 2017). Platforms for public recognition can take the form of public sporting events in the community or integration

into regional and national competitions and tournaments. This intervention feature is expected to work well for marginalised children and young people, as recent research on adolescent brain development shows that adolescents are highly sensitive to social rewards (Casey, Jones, and Hare, 2008; Steinberg, 2005). However, it is also important not to reward over-competitiveness or aggressiveness, but rather promote a motivational climate centred on mastery and demonstration of skills (Duda, 1988).

4.5.2 Recommendations on Sport for Functional Social Inclusion

This section presents three recommendations for practice in sport for functional social inclusion:

Multi-sectoral collaboration

When it comes to functional social cohesion, research shows that collaboration across multiple sectors (e.g. sport, education, health and social protection agencies) to provide wrap-around services for marginalised children and young people can be pivotal to addressing barriers to social inclusion such as structural inequality (Rossi and Pereira, 2014; Spaaij, 2013). Participation in sport alone cannot by itself stop the systemic prejudice and discrimination responsible for structural inequality in society. For this reason, a sports-plus model is important for functional social inclusion. However, it should be recognized that the sports programme does not have to be the sole provider of supplementary instruction and activities. In fact, in situations of limited resources this may not be realistic. Rather, a possible solution is the integration of the sports programme into existing networks of social support. For example, representatives of different sectors can be convened as an advisory board to oversee the coordination of social protection services that supplement sporting activities.

Community involvement and consultation forums

The community in which the sports programme is based represents another important stakeholder in sport for functional social inclusion. Research suggests that sports programmes that integrate community members either as programme volunteers, mentors, or leaders have a sustainable impact on functional social inclusion (Hayhurst et al., 2015; Peralta and Cinelli 2016).

The rationale is that changing the situation of individual children and young people without changing their environment might produce limited short-term gains but is unlikely to have long-lasting effects. A possible solution mentioned in the literature was the use of consultation forums or a brokerage approach to involve community members as well as parents and participants themselves in the planning, design, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation of the sports programme (Hancock et al., 2009; Olliff, 2008) (*See Section 4.4.2.2* for a discussion on children's and young people's participation in programme decisions for facilitating functional social inclusion).

Financial subsidies

A basic but crucial message from the literature was that disadvantaged children and young people from low-resourced communities and families are unlikely to have the resources or income necessary to begin and/or sustain sports participation (Block and Gibbs, 2017). The costs associated with sports can include location sourcing and maintenance, transport, equipment, gear, membership fees, staff salaries, etc. When only some of these costs are taken on by the sports programme (e.g., location and staff) it means that responsibility for the other provisions, e.g. transport, equipment, gear and fees, lies with disadvantaged children/young people and their families. When marginalised children and young people cannot afford the costs associated with sports, this decreases their participation in sport programmes and perpetuates their exclusion from both sports and wider society. One solution is to fully fund sports participation for individual children and young people, or at least provide financial subsidies to cover essential expenses. However, this would require cooperation and coordination of funding sources such as local governments, NGOs, and other sponsors or granting agencies.

4.5.3 Recommendations on Sport for Physical Social Inclusion

This section presents three recommendations for practice in sport for physical social inclusion:

Use accessible sports facilities in safe and convenient locations

Location features can discourage sports participation among marginalised children and young people (Oxford, 2017). For example, persons with disabilities might be unable to use sports facilities that do not have accessible features such as toilets and wheelchair ramps. Disadvantaged young people may not participate in sports programme located a long distance from their neighbourhood requiring transportation that they and their families cannot afford. All children may stay away from sports programmes if the location in which they are set is perceived to be unsafe – but some might be particularly affected (e.g. girls). A possible solution is to select sports locations that are accessible, safe, and convenient to use and therefore do not present barriers to physical social inclusion (*see Chapter 5* for a deeper discussion of safe spaces in sport).

Train professionals and coaches

Research shows that the on-site support of coaches and staff professionally trained in integrated and adapted sports is particularly important for the physical social inclusion of children and young people with disabilities (Grandisson and Tétreault, 2012). In cases where it is difficult to recruit and maintained professionally trained staff, one possible solution is to provide additional training and certification for sport coaches and other staff in applied sports and developmental sciences (e.g. kinesiology, physical therapy, behavioural therapy, special education). There should always be someone on-site, who possesses the necessary knowledge to assist persons with disabilities in sports participation.

Implement culturally-sensitive policies and adaptations

Strict adherence to elite sporting rules can discourage marginalised children and young people's participation in sports (Hancock et al., 2009). Sometimes cultural differences lead to varying needs, preferences, or interests in the physical characteristics of sports. For example, newly arrived migrants might be more familiar with certain sports than others, which might require a change in sport choices or adaptations of mainstream sport rules. Young people from disadvantaged communities might prefer informal participation in "pick-up games" to formally structured elite sport paths.

For example, Muslim girls might require female-only environments or adaptations to uniforms. Transgender children and young people might feel more comfortable using unisex bathrooms or changing rooms that match their gender identity. It is important that sport programmes pay attention to rules and regulations that govern the physical spaces and physicality of sports to ensure that they are truly inclusive for all marginalised children and young people. A possible solution is to apply the principles of universal design in physical location and instruction so that the needs of the broadest cross-section of society are met.

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Annex 4.A Summary of literature with social inclusion outcomes

		Study information			Program design/delivery method		
Citation	**Study method**	**Sample**	**What sports were used?**	**How were sports used?**	**Where?**	**For whom?**	
Block and Gibbs (2017)	QL	Practitioners, n=10 (70% male)	Football, Basketball, Cricket, others	Various initiatives integrating refugee-background young people into teams	Melbourne, Australia	Refugee-background young people	
Buzuvis (2011)	QL		n/a	Examines provisions in place for inclusion and participation; reccomends educational benefits of sports be promoted as grounds for equal rights	USA	GSM youth	
Calzo, Roberts, Corliss, Bloos, Kroshus and Austin (2013)	QT	▲ n=12,779 (ages 12-22, 50% female) from US Growing Up Today Study (1995-2005)	Not specified	Examines effects of childhood gender non-conformity & athletic self-esteem on sport participation and physical activity	USA	GSM and non-GSM youth	
Cárdenas (2012)	QL		Football	"Goles por la paz" promoting inclusion and peace through socialization; team sports & cooperative games to promote empowerment, leadership, health, and challenge gender norms	Ciudad Bolivar, Colombia; Bais City, Philippines	Youth from conflict-affected Colombian neighborhoods (30 children) and drug-affted Filipino neighborhoods (boys, ages 10-15)	
Cockburn (2017)	QL	▲ n=unknown (ages 10-11 years)	Football, Cricket	Identity formation of young boys in mixed ethnicity, community sports	North England	Boys of Pakistani, White, and Afro-Caribbean ethnicities	
Collins and Haudenhuyse (2015)	MM	N=26,000 youth (low income communities, 10-19 years, 90% under 17; 20% ethnic minorities) n=1 (case study)	Football, Fitness, Dance, multiple	Positive Futures youth program for social inclusion, increasing participation in sport and activity, addressing substance abuse issues; relationship building; community sport coaches act as mentors	UK	Youth from disadvantaged communities	
Collison, Darnell, Giulianotti and Howe (2017)	QL	●,▲,◇,◎ n=approx. 100	Football, Cricket, multiple	Youth programs in communities and sports clubs to show issues with how 'youth' & 'gender' are conceived; objectives varied by country (e.g., gender issues in equity & participation in Rwanda, employability in Kosovo)	Jamaica, Kosovo, Rwanda, Sri Lanka	Youth, ethnic minority youth	

	What are the results?																	
	Inclusion			Empowerment						Education	Child protection				Health and well-being			Other
	Sense of belonging	Increased inclusion	Change in perceptions	Empowerment, self-determination, agency	Social capital	Cultural capital	Skill development	Engagement	Motivation, initiative, goal-setting	Education (general)	Security, safe space	Reduced violence; conflict resolution	Bystander behaviour	Decreased drug/alcohol use	Health and well-being (general)	Increased sport/activity	Psychosocial benefits	Other
	+				+													
										+								
																		n/a: lower participation rates and physical activity among GSM youth
	+	+			+		+											Challenging traditional gender roles; sense of purpose; moral values (e.g., sportsmanship)
	+				+													
					+		+											
				+			+			+	+							Athletic development; challenging gender norms; civic participation

Study Method		Study Participants/Sample			
Symbol	Meaning	Symbol	Meaning	Symbol	Meaning
QL	Qualitave	●	practitioners (volunteer or professional)	◎	project leader/office
QT	Quantitative	▲	participants	▷	Parents
MM	Mixed Methods	◇	Community members (not practitioners)	☑	Program
Op	Opinion Paper	◧	other professionals (e.g., multicultural workers)	▨	Other program partners or stakeholders
n/a	Not applicable	◈	community leaders		

Study information			Program design/delivery method			
Citation	**Study method**	**Sample**	**What sports were used?**	**How were sports used?**	**Where?**	**For whom?**
Corazza and Dyer (2017)	QL	▲ n=38 (only 2 under 18 years, 12 under 25 years)	Rugby	Mixed ability teams; spreading message of inclusion; specialist tutors develop educational resources to bring awarness to mixed ability teams	UK, Italy	Persons (youth and adults) with and without disabilities
De Matini Ugolotti (2015)	QL	▲ n=30 (100% male, 100% migrant; ages 12-20)	Capoeira, Parkour	Sport to navigate social spaces and exclusion; recreational practice in indoor and outdoor community spaces	Turin, Italy	Migrant males
Devine et al. (2017)	QL	●,◯,◈ n=60 (35 PwD; mix of children ages 9-12 & adults ages 24-56; 50% from Fiji, 32% from PNG)	Multiple	To increase activity and health, promote inclusion, and combat negative attitudes toward PwD; community leadership development	Pacific countries (Australia, New Zealand, Fiji, Papua New Guinea, Samoa)	Pacific Island populations, particularly PwD
Elkhom and Dahlstedt (2017)	QL	▲ n=200 (ages 8-12)	Football	Sports activities during and after school in schools and recreation centers; aims to increase activity during leisure time and improve quality of life (social and language skills)	Sweden	Mainly ethnic minority children from disdvantaged backgrounds
Galily, Leitner and Shimon (2013)	QT	▲ n=329 (39.8% Arab)	Football	Soccer, conflict resolution, and life-skills training; interaction with children of neighboring communities; community involvement in social change	Tel Aviv, Israel	Jewish and Arab, Palestinian, Jordanian, and Israeli youth
Grandisson, Tétreault and Freeman (2012)	QL	▲,●,▷ n=79 (20 adolescents with disabilities, 20 parents, 39 staff; 55% of adolescents in study participating in sport)	Special Olympics	Rehabilitation center research	Quebec, Canada	Persons with disabilities
Hancock, Cooper and Bahn (2009)	QL	▲,◯,◈ Intervention involved 27 clubs	Multiple	Increase sport participation for social inclusion, acceptance; programs related to awareness, engagement, skill development, holidays, leadership, and only girls	Perth, Australia	Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Youth; primarily African, refugee, or asylum-seeking backgrounds
Hancock, Lyras and Ha (2013)	QL	☑ n=376 (123 Europe, 101 Africa, 68 North America, 55 Asia, 29 Australia)	Multiple	Survey of S4D initiatives specifically for females	Global	Female participants
Harada, Siperstein, Parker and Lenox (2011)	Op	n/a	Multiple	Reflecting on role of Olympics in social inclusion & opposing view of how Olympics perpetuate exclusion	n/a	n/a

	Inclusion			Empowerment						Education	Child protection				Health and well-being			Other
What are the results?	Sense of belonging	Increased inclusion	Change in perceptions	Empowerment, self-determination, agency	Social capital	Cultural capital	Skill development	Engagement	Motivation, initiative, goal-setting.	Education (general)	Security, safe space	Reduced violence; conflict resolution	Bystander behaviour	Decreased drug/alcohol use	Health and well-being (general)	Increased sport/activity	Psychosocial benefits	Other
	+				+													
	+																	
	+		+	+											+			
	+																	Adaptation
			+															
	+		+		+		+											
	+															+		
																		Focused on process rather than outcomes

Study information			Program design/delivery method			
Citation	**Study method**	**Sample**	**What sports were used?**	**How were sports used?**	**Where?**	**For whom?**
Hayhurst (2014)	QL	● *n*=35	Martial arts	Training for employability (coaches) and protection from GBV; capacity building and empowerment through entrepreneurship	Winita, Uganda	Girls ages 10-18 years (over 2,000)
Hayhurst (2017)	QL		Football	Tournaments with supplementary gender rights curriculum; protection from GBV, sexual/reproductive rights	Canada, Nicaragua	Indigenous community (women)
Hayhurst, Giles and Radforth (2015)	QL	▲ *n*=11 (55% under 18 years)	Soccer, Basketball	Vancouver Aboriginal Friendship Society's recreation program (esp. Because We're Girls group); ability to choose from roster of activities (including physical activity) as form of empowerment	Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada	Youth and young Aboriginal women, ages 13-30
Jeanes, O'Connor and Alfrey (2015)	QL	● *n*=12	Multiple	Resettlement services through sport associations	Melbourne, Australia	
Kelly (2011)	QL	●,▲,◎ *n*=88 (3 project managers, 23 staff, 26 youth participants, 36 partners)	Football, multiple	Positive Futures youth program for social inclusion, increasing participation in sport and activity, addressing substance abuse issues; relationship building; community sport coaches act as mentors	UK	
Lopes (2015)	QT	▲ 2012: *n*=187; 2013: *n*=134 (various disabilities: motor, intellectual, hearing, visual)	Adapted surfing	How types of disabilities can affect participation; therapeutic rehabilitation through sensory interaction with aqautic environment & coaches/therapists; group interactions promote 'socialization, leadership and inter-help'	Portugal	Persons with various disabilities and without
Lyras (2012)	MM	●,▲ *n*=96 (boys & girls ages 13-16); *n*=20 (male and female instructors)	Multiple, not specified	Summer camp to teach sports skills and human rights, environmental concepts, internet use, and conflict management; aim to build bridges through Olympism	Cyprus	Cypriot children of Greek and Turkish descent
McConkey, Dowling, Hassan and Menke (2013)	QL	▲,●,◁,◇ *n*=337 (156 athletes, 106 partners, 65 coaches, 10 parents &/or community stakeholders)	Football, Basketball	Inclusive sport in school and community sport clubs; paring skilled athletes with disabilities with non-disabled partners of equal or lesser skill; training & competitions	28 countries, 5 in research: Germany, Hungary, Poland, Serbia, Ukraine	Skilled athletes with disabilities and non-disabled peers

	Inclusion			Empowerment						Education	Child protection				Health and well-being			Other
What are the results?	Sense of belonging	Increased inclusion	Change in perceptions	Empowerment, self-determination, agency	Social capital	Cultural capital	Skill development	Engagement	Motivation, initiative, goal-setting.	Education (general)	Security, safe space	Reduced violence; conflict resolution	Bystander behaviour	Decreased drug/alcohol use	Health and well-being (general)	Increased sport/activity	Psychosocial benefits	Other
							+											Autonomy, self-reliance/dependency; employability; economic independence
																		Focused on research method more than outcomes
				+	+													Challenging stereotypes and traditional gender roles; meeting basic needs
	+			+			+											
		+																Therapeutic rehabilitation
			+		+													
			+		+													

Study information			Program design/delivery method			
Citation	**Study method**	**Sample**	**What sports were used?**	**How were sports used?**	**Where?**	**For whom?**
McMilland, McIsaac and Janssen (2016)	QT	▲ *n*=21,201 (grades 6-10) data from nationally representative WHO survey of *n*=26,068	Multiple	Association of factors (e.g., economic disadvantage, sport participation); youth from low-income, reconstituted families less likely to participate in sport than those from intact families	Canada	Youth
Mereish and Poteat (2015)	QT	▲ *n*=13,933 (grades 9-12)	Not specified	Examines disparities in sports participation, physical activity, and obesity; team sports and physical activity	Wisconsin, USA	GSM and non-GSM youth
Meyer and Roche (2017)	QT	●,▲ *n*=87 youth (ages 13-18; 71% female) *n*=32 coaches	Basketball	Live, Learn, Play program: train-the-trainer model to build capacity, increase skills (citizenship & leadership), and build self-efficacy	Senegal	Coaches (engagement of youth unclear)
Morgan and Parker (2017)	QL	▲,● *n*=60 youth participants; *n*=20 coaches/leaders	Football, Boxing, multiple	Sport programs aimed at reducing violent crime incidence; sport training as intervention for gang activity, employment training, and education	UK	Youth in low-income communities ages 13-19 and 14-25
Nakamura and Donnelly (2017)	QL	Unclear	Football, martial arts (e.g., capoeira), dance, others	Sports or physical cultural activities for recreation and/or inter-generational culture transmission	Toronto, Canada	Newcomers or immigrant populations'
Olliff (2008)	MM	▲ *n*=approx. 105 (25 young people ages 13-21)	Basketball	Sport and recreation to support resettlement	Australia	Refugee and migrant youth
Osborne and Wagner (2007)	QT	▲ *n*=1,470 (50% female); data from 1995-6	Multiple	Participation in core sports (e.g., football, baseball, basketball, soccer) and its relationship with homophobic attitudes	Philadelphia, USA	High school students
Oxford (2017)	QL	●,▲,◇ *n*=60 (ages 18-80)	Football	VIDA program: develop sport skills, promote participation into adulthood, training for transition from player to coach; psychosocial support (education, conflict resolution, substance abuse)	Chévere & Bacano, Colombia	Approx. 450 participants of Mestizo, Afro-Colombian, & Indigenous ethnicities; male & female

	Inclusion			Empowerment						Education	Child protection				Health and well-being			Other
What are the results?	Sense of belonging	Increased inclusion	Change in perceptions	Empowerment, self-determination, agency	Social capital	Cultural capital	Skill development	Engagement	Motivation, initiative, goal-setting.	Education (general)	Security, safe space	Reduced violence; conflict resolution	Bystander behaviour	Decreased drug/alcohol use	Health and well-being (general)	Increased sport/activity	Psychosocial benefits	Other
																+		
																		n/a: disparities in participation in sport and physical activity
	+		+															More positive attitudes toward/ endorsement of non-traditional gender roles (among women only)
	+				+		+	+										Trust, respect, recognition
																		Transmission of cultural practices
	+			+	+		+											
																		Core high school sports associated with greater endorsement of homophobic attitudes, esp. among males
	+			+		+	+	+										Trust, purpose, politeness

Study information			Program design/delivery method			
Citation	**Study method**	**Sample**	**What sports were used?**	**How were sports used?**	**Where?**	**For whom?**
Peralta and Cinelli (2016)	QL	●,▲,◇,◎,◈ *n*=24 Aboriginal youth; *n*=2 community members; *n*=1 community elder; *n*=4 school principals & teachers; *n*=3 Aboriginal assistant teachers; *n*=2 gov't engagement officers; n=1 youth sport and recreation organizer	Not specified	Aboriginal-led program to encourage educational pursuits; community role models and teachers deliver sport/PE activities and health lessons	Northern Territory, Australia	Aboriginal youth
Rauscher and Cooky (2016)	n/a		n/a	Conceptual paper proposes social justice model of S4D that teaches girls 'hardiness' to develop purpose and form connections	USA	
Rossi, De Alencar, Rossi and Pereira (2014)	QL	▲,◇ *n*=27	Not specified	Ministry of Sports program "Segundo Tiempo" to democratize sport access in and out of school; encourage activity; increase employability	Bahia, Brazil	
Rosso and McGrath (2016)	QL	●,▲ *n*=263 participants and 107 volunteers (65% in community programs, 60% ages 9-16, 60% male, 50% refugees)	Football	Sport sessions + health and culture workshops to 'empower disadvantaged CALD communities to engage in health promotion through sport'	South Australia	Refugee and non-refugee participants
Roult, Brunet, Belley-Ranger, Carbonne and Fortier (2015)	QL	● *n*=33	Not specified	Integrated sports in schools (physical education, adapted sport instruction)	Quebec, Canada	Children and youth with disabilities and without
Sartore and Cunningham (2009)	MM	▲,▷ Study 1: *n*=229; Study 2: *n*=76 (71% of parents in this study had children aged infancy to young adulthood)	Not specified	Examines attitudes of former athletes and parents to GSM coaches	USA	GSM coaches
Spaaij (2013)	MM	▲,● *n*=249 youth; *n*=28 staff; final interview sample: *n*=89 (53 former participants, 36 staff)	Football	"Vencer" hollistic youth program for team sports, games, and active learning to teach employable skills and prosocial values; create supportive learning environment; tool for reflection & applying lessons	Rio de Janeiro, Brazil	1,286 youth from low-income communities
Spaaij (2015)	QL	●,▲,◇,▉ *n*=51 (most youth in 16-25 age group)	Football	Involvement of refugee youth in tournaments and teams	Melbourne, Australia	Somali refugee youth

Inclusion			Empowerment						Education	Child protection				Health and well-being			Other
Sense of belonging	Increased inclusion	Change in perceptions	Empowerment, self-determination, agency	Social capital	Cultural capital	Skill development	Engagement	Motivation, initiative, goal-setting.	Education (general)	Security, safe space	Reduced violence; conflict resolution	Bystander behaviour	Decreased drug/alcohol use	Health and well-being (general)	Increased sport/activity	Psychosocial benefits	Other
+					+		+										
	+					+			+								
			+											+			
+							+									+	
																	n/a: Study 2 showed parents with negative attitudes to gays & lesbians less likely to allow children to participate in sports with GSM coaches
				+													Economic capital; occupational attainment
+																	

Study information			Program design/delivery method				
Citation	**Study method**	**Sample**	**What sports were used?**	**How were sports used?**	**Where?**	**For whom?**	
Spencer-Cavaliere, Thai and Kingsley (2017)	QL	● n=15 (73% female, M_{age}=31)	Handball, soccer, baseball, sledge, hockey, rhythmic gymnastics, martial arts, swimming, Special Olympics	Segregated sport settings' effects on social inclusion; separate sport instruction, participation, and competition	Canada	Children with disabilities	
Super, Wentink, Verkooijen and Koelen (2017)	QL	▲ n=22 (59% female)	Multiple	"Youth Sports Fund" for providing equal access to sport club participation; financial support for sport participation; sport associated with benefits in health, education, and social status	Netherlands	Socially vulnerable youth from disadvantaged communities, ages 10-18 years	
Toomey and Russell (2013)	QT	▲ n= 12,641 (boys and girls, grades 7-12; 10% GSM)	Multiple	Part of extra-curricular activities at school; study examines participation	USA	GSM youth	
Zipp (2011)	QT	▲ Sample unknown	Not specified	Participation in school	USA	7-12th graders; GSM youth	

	Inclusion			Empowerment						Education	Child protection				Health and well-being			Other
What are the results?	Sense of belonging	Increased inclusion	Change in perceptions	Empowerment, self-determination, agency	Social capital	Cultural capital	Skill development	Engagement	Motivation, initiative, goal-setting.	Education (general)	Security, safe space	Reduced violence; conflict resolution	Bystander behaviour	Decreased drug/alcohol use	Health and well-being (general)	Increased sport/activity	Psychosocial benefits	Other
					+													
	+						+	+										
	+									+								
																		Masculinized sports (e.g., football, wrestling): As age increases, GSM males less likely but GSM females more likely to participate

Chapter 5
Child protection and Sport for Development

Child protection relates to the prevention of and response to violence, exploitation and abuse directed at children and young people. This chapter aims to review S4D in general and sport programmes and interventions specifically and to synthesize evidence of how they contribute to child protection outcomes. The literature finds that evidence of a positive contribution by sport programmes to child protection outcomes is neither abundant nor consistent, and important gaps in evidence remain, especially in low-income country settings. Nevertheless, a few initiatives have been identified that significantly contribute to reducing gender-based violence and to preventing young people from reoffending through mechanisms that foster positive youth identity and prosocial values, generated through social capital fostered between participants and coaches. Despite this, the literature also highlights that sport programming is not a panacea to address social ills, and that sport programmes can also expose participants and athletes to many forms of violence.

5.1 Introduction: Child protection and sport

Sport can contribute positively to child protection outcomes, especially among vulnerable and marginalized children and young people. Numerous programmes have found that sport can contribute to positive youth development and to building life skills – including discipline and self-esteem. Moreover, it is widely perceived that sport can help to steer young people away from risky behaviours including juvenile delinquency, aggressiveness and violence (Khan and Jamil, 2017) through strengthening social bonds with positive actors (Hirschi, 1969) and by providing meaningful activity within a structured framework.

The benefits of sport activities in integration initiatives to promote peace among marginalized and vulnerable sectors of the population, and in post-disaster psychosocial interventions have also been recognized, and significant programmatic efforts are being directed toward these ends (Kunz, 2009). Overall, the discourse surrounding sport initiatives is largely positive: sport can offer children and young people a safe and friendly environment in which to encounter and address their problems and fears (Kunz, 2009), and sport can be an important contributor to the fulfilment of SDGs that address child protection including: strengthening the prevention and treatment of substance abuse (SDG 3, Target 3.5); quality education (SDG 4); eliminating all

forms of violence against women and girls (SDG 5, Target 5.2); reducing the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training (NEET) (SDG 8, Target 8.6); providing universal access to safe, inclusive and accessible, green and public spaces (SDG 11, Target 11.7); and peace, justice and strong institutions (SDG 16).

This chapter reviews evidence of how sport and sport programming contribute to child protection outcomes, which are conceptualized broadly in this chapter to include not only protecting children from risks that others pose but also from risky behaviours which inflict harm on themselves, such as violence and drug use. Although the literature review was originally intended to focus on the positive contribution of sport to child protection, the review has revealed that protection risks within sport comprise another vital component of the evidence, and these also need to be reported. By synthesizing available empirical evidence on promising practices and positive impacts of sport, as well as on risks to child protection, this chapter provides recommendations regarding child protection for policymakers and S4D practitioners.

This chapter is organized as follows: 1) provides a definition of child protection, and reviews how child protection links to the realm of sport; 2) explores what the evidence says, introducing the methodology used in this review, and then summarizes the successes of, challenges to and recommendations for practice informed by the existing literature; 3) ends by

summarizing both the main conclusions, through a proposed theory of change for child protection-focused S4D, and recommendations for practitioners, policymakers and research groups. The main messages drawn from the evidence reviewed in this chapter are summarized immediately below.

5.1.1 Key findings presented in this chapter include the following:

- Although inconsistent, evidence does show that S4D can contribute to positive child protection outcomes related to reducing violence and risky behaviour (e.g., non-violent crime, delinquency, substance use, recidivism) and, promisingly, through reducing gender-based violence (GBV).

- No evidence was found to show that sport programmes contribute to reducing exploitation or abuse of children and young people, which are both key components of the definition of child protection. Importantly, sports participation itself can involve justifiable, and serious, child protection concerns.

- *S4D programmes that work for child protection are those that do the following:*

  » Contribute to protection of children and young people through the development of agency, by promoting social capital and supportive relationships – which can lead to better education and employment opportunities –, and by facilitating the development of positive identity.

  » Offer a safe space that provides a sense of security, in which children and young people can socialize without stigmatization or scrutiny by authority.

  » Develop conflict resolution competencies and encourage cooperative behaviour, for example, fair play with discipline for violations, and penalties (as opposed to rewards) for overly aggressive behaviour.

  » See coaches as role models for athletes to help reduce gender inequality and GBV by increasing discussions related to violence involving other athletes and increasing bystander intervention.

- *Challenges to S4D programmes seeking to promote child protection include the following:*

  » Lack of evidence on how sport can be used for child protection, and the risk that localized interventions overpromise in terms of the effects they can have on systemic drivers of violence such as social norms and biases.

  » Evidence that points toward inadequate regulation to ensure the protection of children and young people in sport.

  » Insufficient numbers of programming staff trained in child protection.

  » Some sports continue to expose children and young people to multiple forms of risk and violence, which is normalized within the sport contexts and cultures (and supported by reward/power structures and by hypermasculinity).

- *Policymakers and S4D practitioners seeking to promote child protection can trial the following promising practices:*

  » Create uniform/standard practices that make coach training mandatory to reduce the likelihood of abusive practices.

  » Tie sports into existing social programmes, particularly those that tackle structural problems and systemic-level child protection risks (e.g., poverty and education), which have the potential to hinder protection outcomes .

  » Advocate for more rigorous research and evidence generation that specifically explores how sport programmes can contribute to reducing violence in all of its forms.

  » Follow through and monitor the implementation of international and national safeguarding standards.

5.2 What is child protection in the context of S4D?

Child protection refers to the prevention of and responses to violence, exploitation and abuse against children and young people, and is a critical prerequisite to "ensuring children's rights to survival, development and

well-being" (UNICEF, 2008, p. 1). Child protection often targets children and young people with unique vulnerabilities to abuses, which may include those who live in conditions without access to parental care, those in conditions of conflict with the law and those in settings of armed conflict (UNICEF, 2006). Any form of physical, sexual and emotional abuse is considered violence, which may occur at home, at school or in the community.

It follows that this chapter focuses on S4D and sport programmes with desired outcomes that aim to prevent and respond to these different forms of violence, exploitation and abuse directed at children, as well as those perpetrated by children. Such desired outcomes of child protection-focused programmes include addressing attitudes, norms and behaviours such as commercial sexual exploitation and trafficking of children, child labour, bullying, neglect, gender-based violence, and harmful traditional practices (e.g. child marriage). Child protection outcomes may include changes in the awareness, attitudes and behaviours of participants, such as reductions in bullying, drug and alcohol abuse, or aggressive behaviour, and increased access and use of prevention and response services for participants, such as birth registration, family counselling, or home visits.

Sources of chid protection risks can vary significantly as the child progresses through distinct stages of life. For example, during the early years, children are more likely to be victims of violence in the household, which means that parents or caretakers may constitute the main perpetrators of violence. As children grow up, violence is no longer confined to the household and can spread to other environments in which the child actively participates, such as the school environment, the community and sports settings – environment where children increasingly begin to interact with adults and peers which increase their risk of being exposed to violence (UNICEF, 2017). It is important to note that as children are not only observers and victims of violence but as they grow up they can also become perpetrators of violent acts.

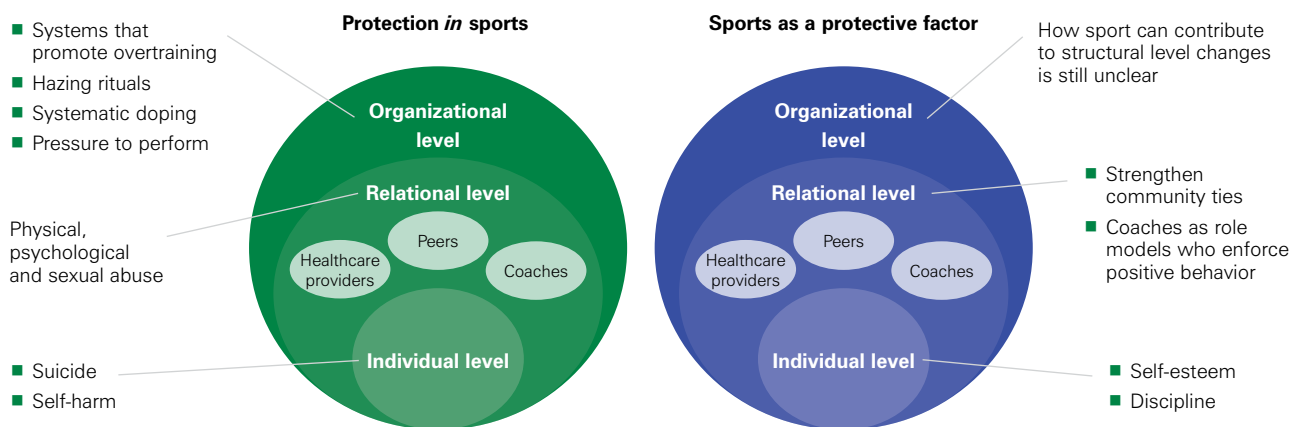## 5.3 How are sport and child protection linked?

As children transition to adolescence, which is characterized by rapid physical and neurological growth, the onset of puberty and sexual maturity (UNICEF, 2017), the likelihood that they are exposed to violence outside the realm of the household increases, but so too does the likelihood that they themselves become perpetrators of violence (Chioda, 2017; Muggah and Aguirre, 2018). During this stage of development, parental influence over the child decreases, and the reference group of the child gradually switches from family to peers in the community, in school and in sport, who acquire significant importance and influence over the adolescent's behaviour and decisions. In sports coaches can become key authority figures, wielding considerable influence.

While having mechanisms to protect children and young people from violence in sport is imperative, these can have little impact unless the role of sport itself in contributing to violence is addressed. Many actions in sport maybe interpreted as violent (Mountjoy, Rhind, Tiivas and Leglise, 2015) if adhering to a standard definition of violence.[1] Some sports involve the intentional use of physical force that may cause unintentional injuries to another participant. Compounding this issue is the fact that violence has become normalized as an accepted part of sport practice in some contexts (Stirling and Kerr, 2009).

Subsequently, defining and clarifying what constitutes violence in sport is a crucial concern of the research on sport and child protection. The United States Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) names different forms of violence as including "child abuse and neglect, youth violence, intimate partner violence, sexual violence, elder abuse and suicidal behaviour" (CDC, 2016, p. 4), and the World Health Organization (WHO) acknowledges that violent acts can be physical, sexual or psychological (WHO, 2002). According to Mountjoy et al. (2015), the forms of violence in sport can be grouped by their focus at the individual, relational or organizational level (*see Figure 5.1*):

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[1] The standard World Health Organization (WHO) definition of violence encompasses "the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment, or deprivation."" (2002, p. 5).

Figure 5.1 Forms of violence in sport and how sport can contribute to positive protection outcomes

- Systems that promote overtraining
- Hazing rituals
- Systematic doping
- Pressure to perform

Physical, psychological and sexual abuse

- Suicide
- Self-harm

Protection *in* sports

Organizational level
Relational level
Healthcare providers
Peers
Coaches
Individual level

Sports as a protective factor

Organizational level
Relational level
Healthcare providers
Peers
Coaches
Individual level

How sport can contribute to structural level changes is still unclear

- Strengthen community ties
- Coaches as role models who enforce positive behavior

- Self-esteem
- Discipline

Source: Based on Mountjoy et al. (2015).

- At the *individual* level, violence concerns an athlete's health and well-being (such as protection from depression, self-harm, etc.).

- At the *relational* level, violence can stem from relationships with key actors, such as coaches, peers and health care providers, and can encompass sexual harassment and physical and emotional abuse.

- At the *organizational* level, violence can stem from systems that encourage overtraining, encourage initiation ceremonies and/or involve systematic doping, among others.

Child protection in the context of sport therefore involves keeping children and young people safe from physical, sexual and psychological forms of violence that can occur at these distinct levels and which can be perpetrated by various actors with whom the young person interacts in the sports arena. It also involves considering related factors, such as locations where violence may most likely occur, in order to proactively address child protection concerns in sport. In comparison with any other activity, sport is the activity that draws the highest number of young participants and fans around

the world (Feinstein, Bynner and Duckworth, 2006; Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group, 2008); therefore, child protection strategies are of far greater concern in sport than in any other activity.[2]

5.4 What does the evidence say?

After an initial scan of the abstracts of the available literature, 45 articles and other documents were reviewed in full to better understand the impact of sport on child protection outcomes. Of these, only 18 articles included evidence of positive effects on child protection outcomes (*see Annex 5.A*). At least eight articles addressed how sport can constitute a risk to protection (e.g., through exposure to violence) and five outlined specific safeguards or models to keep children safe in sport.

Overall, the literature on the impact of sport initiatives on child protection is not abundant, and what evidence is available is skewed toward high-income country experiences. This is despite the prevalence of such initiatives in action globally.[3] Of the 18 articles with evidence of sport's positive contribution to child protection, most focused on the United States (4), and

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[2] In Flanders, Belgium, three out of four youths between the ages of 10- and 17 years are involved in at least one sport (Scheerder, Vos, & Pabian, 2011), and in the Netherlands, 63 per cent of children between 12- and 17 years participated in sports in 2011-2012 (Spruit, van Vugt, van der Put, van der Stouwe, & Stams, 2016). Rates of participation across developed countries are similar, indicating an overall high degree of involvement in sport among children and young people.

the United Kingdom (3 articles), although there was also evidence from Belgium (2), Germany (1) and the Netherlands (1). Studies from developing countries that featured in the literature focused on Central America (2 articles), Colombia (1), India (1), the Islamic Republic of Iran (1) and Sri Lanka (1). One paper did not mention the country in which the sport programme it studied was implemented. The reviewed sport programmes often involved work with coaches, and the target audiences of the programmes were largely male. Even when programmes were also open to girls or young women, female participation was considerably lower than male participation. Articles that identified positive impacts of sport on child protection used a combination of methods: four used mixed methods, six used only quantitative methods, and eight used only qualitative methods. Five involved only conceptual or theoretical discussions of child protection and did not aim to measure programme effects on child protection. (Only articles with evidence of positive impacts on protection are provided in the annex.)

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The most rigorous articles used experimental or quasi-experimental methods for programme evaluation, with 10 articles identifying significant effects on child protection outcomes, although at least 8 articles using qualitative methods presented context-specific results and rich descriptions of evidence indicating impacts of sport on child protection. Regarding the quality of the evidence, 12 articles were ranked as 'high' quality, 3 as 'medium' quality and 3 as 'low' quality. The most significant shortcoming identified was that most articles lacked an explicit mention of ethical considerations. It may be the case, however, that all or some of the

research had ethical clearance, but this was not made explicit in the articles. Another limitation is that some of these studies included very small sample sizes, potentially reducing the generalizability of results.

5.4.1 Why is sport important for child protection?

Sport is important for child protection as it can contribute to positive child outcomes in three forms, including, reduction of violence, risky behaviour (e.g., non-violent crime, delinquency) and substance use (e.g., alcohol and drugs). Evidence indicates that sport can contribute to positive child outcomes and can be used as an intervention to reduce violence. Authors have linked the reduction in violence and its prevalence to factors, such as the sport environment which is subject to rules and regulations (Mutz, 2012) while others have linked it to the specific sport practised (Spruit, van der Put, van Vugt and Stams, 2018). Sport has also been promoted as an effective tool for reducing youth delinquency, and sport interventions have been used widely by governments and institutions to address this type of behaviour. Lastly, other research has explored how sport can contribute to reducing engagement in other forms of risky behaviour (in addition to crime), including use of drugs and other substances, such as alcohol.

However, the evidence on whether sport programmes contribute to child protection outcomes in general and violence reduction in particular is unclear and limited. The evidence on the effects of sport as an intervention to reduce youth delinquency is mixed, and, as Parker, Meek and Lewis (2014) and Spruit et al. (2018) point out, the success of such initiatives is conditional on other factors, including coach behaviours and implementation that is accompanied by post-intervention support. The links between sport and risky behaviours also remain unclear while some studies have instead found that the sports environment can increase access to alcohol among participants (UNICEF Office of Research – Innocenti, 2010), and others have found that sports team participation (compared with non-participation) is associated with a range of antisocial behaviours (Mutz,

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[3] Results of the UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey showed that 72.2 per cent% of S4D programmes that responded responding initiatives were identified as aiming to achieve child protection outcomes, including providing a safe and secure space for children (58 per cent of programmes) and reducing risky behaviour, such as violence and drug and alcohol abuse (68 per cent). The programming survey also indicated that 52 per cent of child protection-focused S4D initiatives reported using sport in emergency or humanitarian settings.

Box 5.1 Select examples of sport programmes with positive protection outcomes

Coaching Boys Into Men (CBIM): An evidence-based violence prevention programme that intends to: alter gender norms that foster adolescent relationship abuse (ARA) and sexual violence (SV) perpetration; promote bystander intervention; and reduce ARA/SV perpetration. Coaches trained in CBIM are guided to deliver messages to their athletes that focus on stopping violence against women and girls via a series of 12 training cards available through an online kit that also includes surveys and analysis tools to gather feedback from athletes and other coaches about the programme. This online kit can be downloaded from the CBIM website. CBIM has mostly been applied in the United States and Canada to date, but the programme has developed a more global focus over the last decade or so. In 2006, and in partnership with UNICEF, the programme developed an international guide for coaches, which was distributed to the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) and national football associations in more than 200 countries. In 2009, CBIM was adapted for cricket coaches in Mumbai, India, under the name Parivartan. The programme has also been adapted in countries such as Angola, Australia, Brazil, Mexico and South Africa, among others (CBIM, n.d.).

Find more information at the following link: http://www.coachescorner.org/.

Tiempo de Juego: A foundation that uses sport (football) and cultural activities (art workshops and educational courses) to keep children away from social problems that surround them such as drug use and gang involvement. Programmes were implemented in Cazucá, Colombia, one of the most marginalized and violent districts in the country. The foundation's sport programme consists of weekly training in football; all sport activities are supported by a psychosocial programme that helps participants in their daily lives. Tiempo de Juego was established in 2006, as a project for the Communication for Development (C4D) programme through the Universidad de La Sabana. Every year, around 2,500 children and adolescents aged 4-18 years participate in the foundation's sport programme. Tiempo de Juego currently belongs to the Street Football World network, which is associated with FIFA, and applies its approved rules of street football (Global Giving, 2018).

Find more information at the following link: https://tiempodejuego.org/.

2012). Furthermore, no evidence was found that sport programmes contribute to reducing exploitation or abuse of children and young people, which are key components of the definition of child protection. However, promising sport initiatives, such as CBIM, which contributes to reducing GBV through focused, weekly discussions with coaches, have been identified (*see Box 5.1*). Greater attention to M&E, specifically linked to programmes' theories of change, is therefore needed to help to fill the gap in evidence on the impact of programmes on child protection outcomes.

5.4.1.1 Sport as a form of violence intervention

Sport can contribute positively to child protection outcomes through reducing violence and risky behaviour, although a negative relationship between sport and violent behaviour is evidenced. It is widely believed that sport can contribute to a reduction in violence, and provide an alternative to aggressive behaviour, as sport

allows for the display of competitive behaviours, but within an environment subject to rules and regulations (Mutz, 2012). Empirical evidence on the role of sport and its contribution to reducing violence is unclear, however, with some studies pointing to a negative association between sports participation and violent behaviour (Booth, Farrell and Varano, 2008) – meaning that sport activities are associated with a decrease in violent behaviour – while others point to a positive association (Faulkner et al., 2007), denoting the opposite effect.

While the role of sport in reducing violence in all of its forms is not yet clear, there is promising evidence that sport can contribute to a reduction in GBV. One of the most widespread sport interventions is the programme Coaching Boys into Men (CBIM), which encourages athletic coaches to speak directly to their young male athletes about respect toward women and girls (*see Box 5.1*). The programme has been applied in the context of the United States, with some success: Using a

randomized controlled trial to evaluate the CBIM programme in Northern California, one mixed methods study found that coaches trained in CBIM had heightened awareness of abusive behaviours and were better prepared to identify and prevent abusive behaviours among their athletes. In addition, CBIM coaches showed greater confidence in intervening when abusive behaviours occurred among their athletes, higher levels of bystander intervention and a higher frequency of violence-related discussions with athletes and other coaches (Jaime et al., 2015).[4]

Adaptations of the CBIM programme have been implemented elsewhere, with some positive results. In India, for example, a study by Miller et al. (2015) revealed that, prior to CBIM being implemented, cricket coaches were not yet actively serving as role models for athletes, nor did they address violence toward women and girls, although some coaches expressed a willingness to take on this role. CBIM's implementation in India involved training coaches to deliver weekly, scripted, discussion-based lessons to their athletes on respect, sexual consent, and preventing and stopping violence against women. The programme was subsequently evaluated using quasi-experimental methods with baseline and follow-up surveys, showing that athletes whose coaches had been trained in CBIM showed greater improvements in gender-equitable attitudes compared with athletes whose coaches provided standard coaching only (Miller et al., 2015). In addition, marginally significant improvements were seen in the reduction of negative bystander behaviour (i.e., going along with peers' abusive behaviour), suggesting that adaptation of the programme in India was feasible and had produced some positive results (Miller et al., 2015). The evidence from this programme suggests, however, that adaptation to the local context is necessary for it to produce results and this may require more time for training coaches.

Recent evidence has also pointed to ways in which sport can contribute to reducing structural violence. In a recent paper on the impact of national football team victories on conflict, Depetris-Chauvin, Durante and Campante (2017) found that individuals in 18 African nations

interviewed after a national team's victory were less likely to report a strong sense of ethnic identity, and concluded that the victory of the national team strengthened patriotic and national sentiment and reduced ethnic identification, which subsequently had a significant impact on reducing violence and conflict in the six months following the victory. Countries that qualified for the Confederation of African Football (CAF) Africa Cup of Nations experienced significantly less conflict than countries that did not; this reduction effect that emerged following qualification for the tournament appeared to persist in the six months following the tournament (Depetris-Chauvin and Durante, 2017). This study relied on Afrobarometer and hence did not include children in its sample, however, it can provide a starting point for future and deeper exploration of the role of sport in addressing systemic forms of violence which effects children and their development outcomes.

Lastly, while more quality evidence is needed regarding sport's role in reducing violence, some have argued that sport's contribution to reducing violent behaviour may be more nuanced, such as by the type of sport practised. In a study of youth attitudes and use of violence among adolescents aged 12-20 years in Brandenburg, Germany, Mutz (2012) found that youth attitudes to violence differed depending on the sport practised: Young people participating in combat sports such as boxing, karate, wrestling and particularly bodybuilding were more likely than non-athletes to approve of and use physical violence, while participation in leisure sports, such as jogging or skating, seemed to contribute to a reduction in violence-supportive attitudes. According to Mutz, "it is ultimately obvious that public hopes and political expectations of sports' capacity to curb youth violence seem to be over-optimistic" (2012, p. 195). Spruit et al. (2018) argues that these variations in sport's impact on violence may be attributable to cultural differences between sports. For example, a greater reduction of violent behaviour among basketball players than among football players may be related to football's tendency to involve more aggressive incidents on the pitch, while basketball has stricter rules that hinder antisocial behaviour (e.g., timeouts, fouls for holding the ball)

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[4] In 2020, a randomized control trial was conducted for a CBIM programme in Pensylvania and found similar results to Miller et al. (2018) as well as greater positive bystander behavior and recognition of abusive behaviours even one year after the programme (Miller et al., 2020). This study was not included in this literature review but is worth mentioning as it was prior to the publication of the final version of this full report.

(Spruit et al., 2018). Considering that football is the most common sport globally and particularly among S4D initiatives, including among those focused on child protection, it is imperative that S4D practitioners are aware of and taking actions to avoid any possible, unintended negative child-protection risks and consequences of certain sports (see Chapter 2 for results from the UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey).

5.4.1.2 Sport and reduced participation in non-violent crime and delinquency

Sport has been promoted as an effective tool for reducing youth delinquency, and sport interventions have been used widely by governments and institutions in support of this aim. One explanation for sport's contribution to reducing delinquency is that sports participation constitutes a conventional activity that entails bonding with positive members of society (coaches and peers) and strengthening social ties, which in turn reduces the likelihood of engaging in delinquent behaviour (Hirschi, 1969).

Among the evidence reviewed for this chapter, an early study conducted in Germany found that young members of sports clubs had lower rates of delinquent behaviour, but that playing sport only accounted for 9 per cent of the variance (Brettschneider and Naul, 2004). Other studies, notably those focused on high-income countries, showed a greater impact of sport on antisocial behaviour. For example, the United States-based programme Midnight Basketball League, implemented throughout the 1990s, was found to reduce crime by up to 30 per cent (Farrell, Johnson, Sapp, Pumphrey, and Freeman, 1996), and a sports counselling programme based in West Yorkshire, United Kingdom, had a positive effect on reducing recidivism among participants when compared with a control sample of non-participants (Nichols and Taylor, 1996; Nichols, 2008). The West Yorkshire Sports Counselling programme consisted of 12 weeks of sport activities delivered by four sports leaders on a one-to-one basis, involving one meeting between the sports leader and participant each week. This programme's effectiveness in reducing recidivism could support the use of sports leaders as mentors in delivering programming to achieve child protection outcomes.

In a more recent study, Parker, Meek and Lewis (2014) evaluated the effects of a sport programme on participating youth offenders in the South of England, finding that sport in the prison setting can encourage youth offenders to desist from offending again in future. Another recent study, by Spruit et al. (2018) on the impact of a Dutch sport programme that targeted (mostly) male adolescents from disadvantaged neighbourhoods with high crime rates, also found positive results: programme participants showed significant improvements in risk and protective factors for delinquency, including fewer friends with delinquent behaviour, and more prosocial behaviours, with the authors concluding that coach behaviours and the socio-moral climate of the sports club predicted intervention success.

However, some research suggests that gender plays an important role in the extent to which sports contributes to reducing delinquency, as suggested by Booth et al.'s (2008) study on how social control activities affect young people's reports of serious delinquency and risky behaviour. The authors found that sport significantly reduced the risk of involvement in serious delinquency (defined as carrying a weapon, being in a physical fight and being part of a gang) for females but not for males. They suggest that young women may be more prone to reap the benefits of sport for reducing delinquent behaviours because they are less likely than their male counterparts to develop 'jock identities', which often underscore supportive attitudes for violence (Booth et al., 2008). Therefore, they caution that participation in prosocial activities such as sports does not necessarily translate into reduced violence and other delinquent behaviours and, thus, reaping these positive benefits requires attention to cultural gender norms.

Furthermore, in a meta-analysis exploring the relationship between sports participation and juvenile delinquency that used a sample of 51 studies, Spruit et al. (2016) found no significant association between sports participation and juvenile delinquency. Several moderating factors also emerged from the analysis, in particular that the type of study influenced the relationship between sport and delinquency, with longitudinal studies indicating that athletes were significantly more delinquent than non-athletes. As Parker et al. (2014) and Spruit et al. (2018) point out,

the success of sport initiatives is conditional on other factors, including coach behaviours and implementation that is accompanied by post-intervention support. This again highlights the needs for theories of change which demonstrate a clear understanding of the mechanisms beyond sport activities by which programmes achieve their intended child-protection goals.

In conclusion, strong, systematic and empirical evidence pointing to a link between sport and youth crime reduction is still lacking (Parnell, Pringle, Widdop and Zwolinsky, 2015), and the evidence that is available is mixed – and thus insufficient to conclusively determine sport's impact on crime (Spruit, van Vugt, van der Put, van der Stouwe and Stams, 2016).

5.4.1.3 Sport as an intervention for substance use

Research has also explored how sport can contribute to reducing engagement in other risky behaviours beside crime such as substance use and abuse, but the evidence for an effect is far from clear or consistent. This can be due to various factors, including difficulties of determining cause and effect and isolating the contribution of sport from other social or structural factors. Nevertheless, Chen et al. (2004) studied the association between five dimensions of adolescent behaviour and drug involvement among 16-year-olds enrolled in secondary school in Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, and the Dominican Republic, and found that sport may have played an important role in shielding youth from risks connected to the earliest stages of drug involvement. Additional literature suggests the potential for sport to mitigate the likelihood of engaging in other risky behaviours, including alcohol intoxication and tobacco use (see, for example, Woitas-Ślubowska, 2009).

However, several studies have, in contrast, found that the sports environment increases access to alcohol among participants (UNICEF Office of Research – Innocenti, 2010) and that sports team participation (compared with non-participation) is associated with a range of antisocial behaviours, including alcohol use (Garry and Morrissey, 2000; Nelson and Wechsler, 2001). Other authors conclude that whether sport contributes to or hinders more drinking among youth may depend on the type of sport practised (Mutz, 2012) and other

contextual factors (Ford, 2007). Furthermore, some authors have emphasized that it is not necessarily clear that sport has a role in diverting young people from using drugs, especially as more children are becoming involved in elite and competitive sports, where the use of performance-enhancing drugs can be widespread (UNICEF Office of Research – Innocenti, 2010).

5.4.2 What works when using sport as a protective factor in children's lives?

The mechanisms by which participation in sport can contribute to positive child protection outcomes include: (1) the creation of a safe space; (2) bonds formed through positive social relationships which contribute to building social capital; (3) the development of positive identity; and (4) prosocial values. Sport activities can constitute safe spaces in which participants can be shielded from community violence or violence perpetrated by the discriminatory practices of authorities. The literature also highlights the vital role of coaches not only to the success of programme implementation overall, but also in serving as mentors and providing positive, supportive social relationships which can lead to positive identity development among child and young participants. This can also contribute to the development of social capital, which by providing greater access to quality education and employment opportunities can contribute to the reduction of delinquency. Lastly, sport can contribute to child protection outcomes by building and strengthening prosocial values, in particular competencies for conflict resolution and cooperation. This section explores each of the four mechanisms in-depth.

5.4.2.1 Creation of a safe space in sports settings

The setting in which sport activities are located can act as a safe space, as extra-curricular activities often take place within a safe environment (Lerner, Almerigi, Theokas and Lerner, 2005; Zimmerman et al., 2013). As mentioned in Chapter 2, 58 per cent of child protection-focused S4D initiatives in the UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey reported providing a safe and secure space as a primary non-sport objective. *Box 5.2*. Spotlight on AMANDLA's safe hubs provides a brief summary of how one S4D organisation ensures participants a safe space.

Across the globe, sport initiatives are providing safe havens from different types of violence. A participatory mapping exercise with 32 young peer leaders and coaches involved in Tiempo de Juego's sport programme in Cazucá, Colombia, showed that the initiative provided participants with a sense of security, with some study participants describing the place where sport was practised as an "enclave of security, [and] sharing" (Sobotová, Šafaříková and Martínez, 2016, p. 530), although some participants recognized that accessing these spaces and accessing them could be problematic. According to Haudenhuyse, Theeboom, Nols and Coussée (2014), participation by marginalized youth in sports clubs in the context of Flanders, Belgium, revealed that sports clubs offered young people environments in which they could find "support, meaning, appreciation, security and caring" (p. 193).

Those settings in which sport activities take place can also act as a place of refuge from the discriminatory practices of authorities against marginalized and minority young people. For example, an evaluation of Positive Futures programme in the United Kingdom found that sport initiatives provided a space in which young people could socialize without attracting unwanted police attention, constituting not only a form of "diversionary activities" but also "sanctioned leisure", which was conditional upon avoiding behaviour that may be considered disruptive (Kelly, 2012, p. 272).

Box 5.2 Spotlight on AMANDLA: Safe-Hubs for Child Protection

Founded in 2007, AMANDLA is a South African non-profit which aims to create safe spaces that use football to engage youth in holistic development. The "Safe-Hub" model relies on its central curriculum, the EduFootball Programme, to provide age-based structured play and sport activities for children ages 5 to 16. It also supports employability, further education and training for young people ages 17 and older. In each Safe-Hub, sport is the foundation for building relationships between vulnerable children and youth and adults they can trust. Team trainings, football leagues, and tournaments provide safe activities, and night programming targets victims and perpetrators by providing secure activity between the peak crime hours of 20:00 and 00:00. In the same setting, participants also have access to support in academics, psychological wellbeing, family planning, substance abuse, and health. Coaches are trained in first aid, child protection, and as child and youth care workers. Social workers are present on-site for counselling and providing reliable referral pathways. Local ownership is important in keeping participants safe, as neighborhood watch and local community leadership assist in keeping facilities safe. Furthermore, young people are central in all decision-making.

Safe-Hub uses a monitoring, evaluation, and learning system to manage and improve its model and for accountability. It relies on indicators aligned with its theory of change which focuses on regular and ongoing attendance as an output and three key outcomes (e.g., better life choices and education outcomes – school rates, and reduction in risky behavior) to collect data showing if the program is meeting its goals. This data shows a reduction in contact crime in the area surrounding the Safe-Hubs. Some results include 88 percent of participants showing more resilience to peer pressure, 96 percent having set goals and demonstrating motivation to achieving them[1]. Through its Social Franchise System, AMANDLA aims to implement 100 Safe-Hubs across South Africa as well as roll out Safe-Hubs beyond Africa by 2030.

Find more information at the following link: https://www.safe-hub.org/en/welcome/.

5.4.2.2 Building positive social relationships to support social capital development through sport

One important mechanism by which sport contributes to positive child protection outcomes is the formation of bonds which support the development of social capital. Coaches in particular are key figures for instilling positive behaviour and for creating a pedagogical sports environment that has a caring and motivational climate (Spruit et al., 2018) – all integral components of programme success. According to Bailey and Dismore (2004), the actions taken by coaches greatly influence to what extent young people can experience the potential positive aspects of sport (Bailey and Dismore, 2004), and supportive relationships as well as recognition of power dynamics between these adults and young participants should be a key part of any sport programme promoting positive youth development (Armour and Sandford, 2013; Coakley, 2011). Haudenhuyse, Theeboom and Coalter (2012) point out that sport programmes with coaches who place the young person's well-being at the centre and who recognize and address the broader, structural conditions of the young participants have the potential to make a positive impact among vulnerable children and young people.

Evidence supports this, such as in Kelly's (2012) study on the Positive Futures programme, which has operated in the United Kingdom for more than 10 years and targets marginalized adolescents aged 10-19 years using sport and other activities. The study found that the adolescents' use of their supportive relationships with coaches and staff had helped them to develop prosocial attitudes and equip young people to establish paths toward education and employment (Kelly, 2012). Such opportunities are important in safeguarding children's development and preventing delinquency, as a lack of quality education and unemployment, combined with other factors, contribute to delinquency, violence, and insecurity (UN General Assembly, 1990).

Similarly, in his work exploring the impact of the West Yorkshire Sports Counselling on reoffending rates, Nichols (2008) found that aspects of programme success included the sports leaders serving as positive role models, along with their strong mentoring relationship with programme participants. Sandford,

Armour and Dancombe (2008) also highlighted the role of sports leaders as central to programme success in relation to the HSBC/Outward Bound project and the Youth Sport Trust/Sky Sports Living for Sport programme in the United Kingdom. Spruit et al. (2018) found in their study on the predictors of a sport programme's success in preventing juvenile delinquency that the education of coaches was important in determining their impact on disadvantaged young people.

Even in post-disaster contexts, the role of coaches in sport programming is vital, as shown by an evaluation of a programme implemented in the aftermath of an earthquake in Bam, Islamic Republic of Iran. In this study, Kunz (2009) noted that the role of coaches and their efforts to create a supportive environment were essential to the use of sport as an effective instrument to support the psychosocial rehabilitation of children affected by the natural disaster. From this evidence, it follows that coaches play a vital role in generating positive protection outcomes for children and young people, as they can act as role models for instilling positive behaviour and can create linkages with future employment and education opportunities that reduce exposure to violence and help to combat delinquent behaviour.

Beyond the level of interpersonal relationships focused on participants' well-being, coaches may also serve as an important link between participants and their community. By building positive relationships with participants and, simultaneously, contributing to positive relationships between the programme and the community in which it operates, coaches can link participants to referral pathways, community services, and political decision-making processes. For example, in Kelly's (2012) study of the Positive Futures programme, coaches used their positive relationships with participants to build links between participants and community members and to help mediate tensions, suggesting that these relationships can also play a role in impacting the way that delinquent behaviour is managed in the community. The connections made by those working on the delivery of the initiative "with strategic, practitioner, and community 'partners' all presented some opportunities for influencing the way in which policies affecting [sport-based intervention] participants were locally implemented" (Kelly, 2012, p. 274).

5.4.2.3 Positive identity development through sport

Another mechanism through which sport contributes to child protection outcomes is the development of a positive identity through sport. Sport can be protective because it allows children and young people to develop alternative identities and can instil a "positive alternative means for future self-definition" (Parker et al., 2014, p.387). In this process, children and young people develop a more positive idea of themselves, who they can become, and what they can achieve. According to Parker et al. (2014), the physical and social development achieved through sport, such as improved self-esteem and social skills development that characterize sport programmes targeting young offenders in prison settings, can contribute to self-efficacy, confidence, and a proactive outlook. This in turn helps them to imagine a more positive future, encouraging them to desist from crime in future (Parker et al., 2014). This evidence also suggests the links between achieving child protection outcomes as well as social inclusion (*see Chapter 4*) and empowerment (*see Chapter 6*) development outcomes.

Evidence indicates that the development of an athlete identity can directly influence protection outcomes. Whitley, Massey and Wilkison (2018) carried out a qualitative evaluation of an existing programme for positive youth development among under-resourced youth in New York, United States, and found that being an athlete changed the way in which participating young people were treated. The status acquired from being a talented athlete not only provided access to businesspeople and politicians but also led gangs and significant others to protect the most gifted athletes. In another study, looking at how sport affected the lives of former athletes who grew up in under-resourced communities with adverse childhood experiences, Massey and Whitley (2016) found that athletes and those heavily invested in sports were less pressured to use drugs and engage in criminal activity and were instead encouraged by their peers to avoid situations which could be risky for their future athletic careers.

In sum, by way of social capital gained through sport and the new relationships that develop in this environment, children and youth acquire the capacity to explore new identities and develop a vision for an alternative and more positive future (Whitley et al., 2018). While certain benefits may only be available to those who manage to overcome seemingly insurmountable odds to become successful athletes, sport can nonetheless serve as a context within which young participants can be exposed to positive factors, such as stability and security (Massey and Whitley, 2016). Furthermore, evidence from the literature review on empowerment also points to the role that participation in sport can play in children's and young people's protection outcomes as they develop critical awareness of their rights and context, such as participation in sport can help young girls aware of the traditional gender norms and better understand how to overcome them (*see Chapter 6, section 6.4.3.1*, and, for example, Chawansky and Mitra, 2015).

5.4.2.4 Promotion of prosocial values in sport

Lastly, sport can contribute to child protection outcomes through the development of prosocial values, including conflict resolution competencies and cooperation (Gasser and Levisen, 2004; Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group, 2008). Of the child protection-focused S4D initiatives that responded to the UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey, 64 per cent reported using lessons to explicitly address antisocial behaviour such as bullying and violence. From the theoretical standpoint of social learning theory (Bandura, 1973), it can be argued that sport provides a context in which children and young people can observe prosocial behaviours in action and thus learn cooperation, respect and willingness to follow rules and regulations. There is some evidence that this is the case.

A sport plus educational programme implemented among secondary school students in Sri Lanka, for example, showed that a programme intervention consisting of Olympism lessons – a series of educational modules involving classroom activities for conflict resolution lessons and outdoor sport activities – had some positive results, with participants showing increased conflict resolution competencies (Nanayakkara, 2016). An evaluation of recreational activities to educate young people at social risk in Costa Rica about aggression and values found that these activities inspired a decreasing tendency toward

aggressive behaviours as well as an increase in expression of values, including respect, cooperation and self-control (Rodríguez, Esquivel, Rodríguez and Fonseca, 2016). In a qualitative evaluation of a post-disaster psychosocial intervention in the aftermath of an earthquake in Bam, Islamic Republic of Iran, Kunz (2009) found that the introduction of sport had a positive effect on the well-being of participating children who had been affected by the natural disaster. The study found that their initial aggression and hostility was channelled through sport and play activities into cooperative team play. According to Rodríguez et al. (2016), the changes that are typically observed in positive sport training programmes include increased attitudes of cooperation, self-control and respect for others.

5.4.3 What are the challenges in using sport for child protection?

Despite the conflicting – and, at times, contradictory – evidence that has been gathered on the impact of sport, the narrative that stands is that sport has overwhelmingly positive effects, hampering the emergence of other narratives that contradict this widely accepted view (Coalter, 2010b). While the literature review for this chapter focused initially on synthesizing evidence on the positive contribution of sport to child protection outcomes, sport is not exclusively a protective medium, nor is it always protective. The literature review identified risks in sport that hinder child protection outcomes, particularly risks concerning exposure to violence in all of its forms. As evidenced by Rhind et al.'s (2015) study which found a range of forms of abuse, perpetrators and sources of allegations, highlighting a variety of concerns for safeguarding, it is necessary to re-evaluate the proclaimed evangelic role of sport and its consideration as a fix-all solution in developing countries. In particular, the link between sport and exposure to interpersonal violence in all of its forms – and, specifically, sexual violence – needs to be better understood and documented, as evidence generation is still in its infancy in this regard.

5.4.3.1 Interpersonal violence in sport

As previously mentioned, violence includes not only physical acts, but also any form of sexual or emotional abuse. It follows that violence can be initiated by anyone; initial evidence suggests that prevalence rates of interpersonal violence in sport could be high and that peers tend to be the main perpetrators (Vertommen et al., 2017). In 2010, however, UNICEF reported that there had only been a meagre assessment thus far of the prevalence, scale and depth of violence against children in sport (UNICEF Office of Research – Innocenti, 2010). This is still the case in this present review, as only a handful of studies have explored the prevalence of violence in sport. In fact, currently there exists neither reliable figures on the prevalence rates of interpersonal violence in organized youth sport (Vertommen, Schipper-van Veldhoven, Wouters, and Kampen, 2016) nor a validated international questionnaire to gather this information.

The available evidence does not paint a favourable picture, however. A study in the United Kingdom found that the prevalence of interpersonal violence was estimated to be as high as 75 per cent for emotional harm—including teasing, bullying and humiliation—and 24 per cent for physical harm—including overtraining and behaviour that is aggressive and violent—among athletes under 16 years of age, although this study had an extremely low response rate (less than 1 per cent) (Alexander, Stafford, and Lewis, 2011). In a more recent study, nearly 4 out of 10 participants in organized sport in the Netherlands reported some kind of unwanted behaviour, and in Belgium and the Netherlands, 44 per cent of respondents who had participated in sport before the age of 18 years reported at least one experience with one of the three types of interpersonal violence (Vertommen et al., 2016). In the latter study, almost 38 per cent of respondents indicated at least one incident of psychological violence and, 11 per cent at least one event involving physical violence, while 14 per cent had experienced sexual violence at least once (Vertommen et al., 2016). In perhaps the only large-scale study of bullying in sport, Sisjord et al. (2007) found that 30 per cent of children sampled (aged 12-16 years) reported having experienced bullying.

Evidence also indicates that certain groups are more at risk of experiencing violence in sport. In Vertommen et al. (2016) and Alexander et al. (2011), males experienced physical violence more often than females, while females reported higher rates of sexual violence. As the

athlete increases in talent, she or he is also at greater and prolonged risk of experiencing violence (Kari Fasting and Sand, 2015; Vertommen, Schipper-van Veldhoven, Hartill, and Van Den Eede, 2015) – especially sexual violence (Brackenridge, Kay, and Rhind, 2012). According to Vertommen et al. (2016): "Being an elite (young) athlete, investing an immense amount of time, money, energy in sport, has systematically shown to significantly increase the risk of exposure to IV [interpersonal violence] in sport" (p. 234). In a qualitative study, Fasting and Sand (2015, as cited in Bjørnseth and Szabo, 2018) also found that children who worked hard to become better athletes were more prone to be victims of sexual violence and Bjørnseth and Szabo (2018) reiterate that higher levels of athletic performance seem to parallel athlete's higher levels of predisposition to experiencing sexual violence. While certainly not all, and in fact relatively few, S4D programmes are focused on preparing children and young people to pursue careers as athletes, this is an important consideration as this possibility should not be ruled out and thus this child-protection concern cannot be ignored.

Minority groups within sport also tend to be more victimized, although the extent to which this is the case is still largely unexplored (Fasting and Sand, 2015). Evidence on this last point is scarce, but in a recent study, Vertommen et al. (2016) found that prevalence rates of interpersonal violence among those who had played organized sports before the age of 18 years in the Netherlands and Belgium were higher among athletes who were immigrants, GSM young people or persons with disabilities compared with their non-minority counterparts. Interestingly, bisexual respondents in this study reported an even higher prevalence of interpersonal violence than their gay/lesbian and heterosexual peers (Vertommen et al., 2016).

5.4.3.2 Sexual abuse in sport

Sexual abuse has become a key concern of literature on child protection in sport since the 1990s, primarily due to the realization of its prevalence in sport (Bjørnseth and Szabo, 2018; Lenskyj, 1992). Sexual abuse can be perpetrated by a person of trust outside of the family, such as a sports coach, and it is something to which males are more often exposed in sport than females

(Edinburgh, Saewyc, and Levitt, 2006; Smallbone, Marshall, and Wortley, 2008). Nonetheless, some studies have found that sexual abuse in sport is more prevalent among girls (Fasting, Brackenridge, and Kjolberg, 2013; UNICEF Office of Research – Innocenti, 2010).

While literature estimating the prevalence of sexual abuse in sport is not abundant and has primarily focused on the coach-athlete relationship (Bjørnseth and Szabo, 2018), a recent study estimated the prevalence of sexual violence against children in sport to be 14 per cent in Belgium and the Netherlands (Vertommen et al., 2016). Other studies estimate rates of sexual abuse in sport ranging from 2 to 49 per cent, with wide discrepancies in estimates a result of differences in measures and study designs (Baker and Byon, 2014; Brackenridge and Fasting, 2002; Chroni and Fasting, 2009; Fasting, 2015). A large- scale, retrospective study also found that almost one third (29 per cent) of 6,000 respondents in the United Kingdom had experienced sexual abuse as child athletes (Alexander et al., 2011), suggesting that prevalence rates of sexual abuse in sport are very high, although all of this evidence is concentrated in high-income countries. In lower-income countries, prevalence rates could be even higher for a number of factors, including lax or non-existent sport child safety regulations and cultures that encourage and accept violence. However, this is not known at this time, as no systematic evidence exists in this area (UNICEF Office of Research – Innocenti, 2010). Furthermore, even when regulations and child-protection measures are in place, barriers that discourage disclosure, including fear, stigma and shame, may prevent children and young people from reporting incidents and seeking the necessary support (see study by Nguyen et al. (2018) which uses the Violence Against Children Surveys to understand 13 to 24 year-old females disclosure of sexual abuse and associated behaviours and factors in Malawi and Nigeria).

5.4.3.3 Normalization of violence in sport

In addition to interpersonal violence and sexual abuse which occurs in sport contexts, research has highlighted several mechanisms that can contribute to hindering child protection outcomes specifically in sport. These include unhealthy practices that can be normalized and tolerated (Alexander et al., 2011; Papaefstathiou, Rhind,

and Brackenridge, 2013; Stirling and Kerr, 2009), a high tolerance of random incidents of violence, including abuse, as well as the presence of reward structures for overly aggressive behaviour, which are especially prevalent in competitive sports (Vertommen et al., 2016). Furthermore, sport can also be linked with negative impacts such as hooliganism, doping and drugs or alcohol (Sobotová et al., 2016) and can contribute to the escalation of conflicts (Schulenkorf, 2010; Sugden, 2008), particularly through the promotion of masculine narratives of resilience: Although men demonstrated resilience as a tool for adapting and recovering from health issues, they also assigned it gendered signifiers, such as strength, control and 'manning-up', using it also as a form of capital which has the potential to marginalize others (Smith, 2013). These potential negative impacts, however, may vary by the type of sport practised (Mutz, 2012).

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5.4.3.5 Unequal power dynamics in sport

In addition, the inherent power dynamics and culture of authoritarian leadership that can occur in sport between participants and their peers, parents and coaches can leave children vulnerable to abuse (Brackenridge, 2001). In the wake of the #MeToo movement, there has been increasing concern that sexual harassment and abuse in different spheres requires attention – and the world of sport is no exception. Especially worrisome is the fact that young athletes necessarily spend considerable time with their coaches and behaviour that would usually be unacceptable outside of sport is considered normal in this realm, placing children and young people in particularly vulnerable situations that may lead to sexual abuse. In addition, children and young people who are involved in sport are often blinded by the coach's knowledge and skills and their position and power (Stirling and Kerr, 2009). Fear of the consequences, feelings of guilt and shame, and fear of possible detrimental impacts on their sports career also constrain athletes from speaking out about abuse (Bjørnseth and Szabo, 2018). Consequently, there is a very high risk that victims of abuse remain silent. Another contributing factor to abuse is that coaches are not well informed of the rules regarding the acceptable limits of the coach-athlete relationship and guidance on this topic is not commonly administered. Protection of children and young people from abuse in sport is also hampered by a general lack of knowledge about the child protection measures that exist in sports organizations (Brackenridge and Fasting, 2002) as well as difficulties in sharing information about offending coaches and the absence of legislation forcing sports organizations to adopt screening measures (Kirby, Demers, and Parent, 2008).

5.4.3.6 Addressing challenges to child protection in S4D

Initial evidence indicates that the prevalence of violence in sport is high, with certain groups – e.g., elite athletes, minorities – more at risk of victimization. Again, violence includes physical, sexual or emotional harm and abuse. Further data collection is necessary to better understand the incidence of these different forms of violence especially in low-income country settings. Moreover, results from the UNICEF Sport for Development

Box 5.3 Spotlight on Child Fund Pass It Back: Safeguarding for children

Since 2015, the Child Fund Alliance's Pass It Back programme uses tag rugby to implement an integrated life skills and sport curriculum in East Asia and the Pacific. The programme reaches 3,000 children ages 12 to 16 through four modules that focus on gender, sexual reproductive health, planning for the future, and preventing violence. The experiential learning program is designed to be fully participatory with the input of child participation experts. Young coaches design a short rugby game to simulate a real-life situation and then guide the players in reflecting on what the experience was like, connecting it to their own lives, and applying solutions. Coaches are all young members of the local community between the ages of 16 and 25, who are trained not only to implement the sports and life-skills curriculum but also to uphold principles of safeguarding and child protection.

Child Fund implements the Pass It Back programme with significant attention to safeguarding, ensuring that its participants and young coaches are safe from harm, physical and mental abuse, and neglect. It works with players, coaches, partners, and any relevant national sporting bodies to ensure that policies and procedures for safeguarding are present at all levels. Since 2017, Child Fund Pass It Back has also been piloting a project on safeguarding and inclusion policies and practices involving self-assessment, education, and policy development activities. A recent external evaluation of the program showed that these efforts are having an impact through an increase in the percentage of players who know where to get support when needed, who know of a safe place, and who know that they can ask for support (Bates, 2017).

Find more information at the following link: https://www.childfundpassitback.org/the-program/

Programming Survey showed that violence and insecurity was the second most frequently reported challenge or vulnerability faced by children and young people in child protection-focused S4D programmes (63 per cent of programmes), while 10 per cent of these programmes reported that participants drop out because of safety and security concerns. As such programmes aim to achieve better child protection outcomes, addressing violence faced by participants, including identifying and eliminating the risk of violence in sport, is of utmost importance, requiring also that mechanisms be implemented to address the concerns of children and young people that may lead to nondisclosure.

The existing literature also highlights that the role of sport in the lives of children and young people requires a more nuanced appreciation that better captures how it can contribute to both positive and negative child protection outcomes. According to Coakley (2011), the positive relationship between sport and protection

outcomes is dependent on many factors – including, for example, norms and sport culture, and meaning and value assigned to sport – and in the absence of these, sporting contexts can become another risk factor for young people (Kreager, 2007; Palmer and Thompson, 2007). Perhaps the most fundamental point of all is to critically evaluate whether sport – which may perpetuate aggressive, competitive and dominant attitudes and behaviours – is compatible with the narrative of sport as a place or space that promotes understanding and peace (Massey and Whitley, 2016).

5.4.3.7 Safeguarding children in sports

Safeguards for children and young people participating in sport have been introduced through various stakeholders, including international organizations and national governments, although important shortcomings remain. (For an example of safeguarding in practice, *see Box 5.3*.)

International organizations: Until the late 1990s and early 2000s, very few sports organizations had systems in place to respond to complaints about inappropriate behaviour by adults and peers in sport (UNICEF, 2016) and very few organizations had designed explicit measures to protect athletes from violence (UNICEF Office of Research – Innocenti, 2010). The UN Special Rapporteur on the sale and sexual exploitation of children has undertaken work on the protection of children related to major sporting events as well as in the context of sports which calls international (e.g., agencies as well as sport organisations) and national stakeholders to set comprehensive legislation with clear standard terminology and reporting mechanism (UN Special Rapporteur, 2018).

Recently, a set of international safeguards was developed by UNICEF in partnership with several organizations with the aim of establishing the foundations for ensuring children's safety and protection in sport globally (International Safeguarding Children in Sport Working Group, 2016a). These safeguards are based on the Convention on the Rights of the Child and existing child protection standards and good practices, and they highlight, among other things, that all organizations providing sport activities should: (1) have a safeguarding policy that is inclusive; (2) have effective systems to process complaints or concerns, and support systems for victims of violence; (3) have arrangements to provide essential information and support to those responsible for safeguarding children; (4) have measures to minimize risk for children; (5) have codes of conduct; (6) perform appropriate recruitment and training; (7) work with partners to ensure shared expectations on safeguarding; and (8) implement M&E of sports organizations. Guides for organisations working with children has also been implemented and made available (International Safeguarding Children in Sport Working Group, 2016b). It is of utmost importance that these safeguards apply not only to sport organizations but also to S4D programmes where child-protection concerns may occur in or outside of sport activities and contexts.

National governments: Regulations and training sessions have been set up by national governments, most notably in developed countries (especially Australia, Canada, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom), to ensure the protection of children in sport. Government intervention and regulation exist to varying degrees, however, and even in developed countries, the implementation of laws and the provision of training sessions to safeguard children has been neither uniform nor always mandatory. In Belgium, for example, only half of all sports club coaches have a specific sport-related pedagogical qualification that all coaches should ideally have (Van Lierde and Willems, 2006). In Canada, training programmes for coaches suffer from a self-selection bias, as coaches who participate in voluntary training sessions are the ones less likely to perpetrate abusive practices (Kerr and Stirling, 2008). In the United States, laws have recently been enacted to protect athletes from specific harm such as traumatic brain injuries.[5] Yet, these laws have important limitations, for example, in the case of traumatic brain injuries, they do not reflect a scientific basis for the amount of time young athletes should refrain from participating in sport activities following an injury, and the laws exhibit important differences in regard to the type of health professional best qualified to make the decision as to whether an athlete should return to sport (Harvey, 2013).

While international instruments such as the International Safeguards for Children in Sport are available, no data exist to better understand which countries are adhering to these safeguards.[6] Based on the evidence outlined above, protection mechanisms in developed countries do exist, but they do not necessarily align with international instruments, and they still have significant limitations, especially since they often lack mandatory requirements as well as uniformity in their implementation. It is particularly worrying that no information is available on existing safeguards and limitations regarding their implementation in sport in developing country settings – especially given that S4D programmes are typically concentrated in developing countries and regions.

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[5] In the period between 2009- and 2012, 44 states in the country (and the District of Columbia) have enacted one or more youth traumatic brain injury laws aimed at increasing awareness of this risk, or preventing repeated injuries, or both.

[6] The UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey undertaken for this project did, however, show that 80 per cent of the individuals engaging with children and youth in child protection-focused S4D programmes receive training in the form of awareness courses on child violence (physical, emotional or sexual).

5.4.3.8 Practical limitations of using sport as an intervention

While there is some evidence of the impact of sport initiatives on child protection outcomes, Coalter (2010a) argues that sport interventions in general are guided by "inflated promises" and "lack conceptual clarity" (p. 473). In addition, the impact of sport is dependent on the presence of a set of factors embedded within these programmes. In other words, sport alone cannot and will not ensure successful child protection outcomes which is particularly important in understanding the limitations of attempting to protect and safeguard children from violence; instead, sport activities must be accompanied by certain characteristics such as the presence of supportive coaches (Haudenhuyse et al., 2014), an aspect highlighted in several studies included in this review. As Coalter (2007) and Crabbe et al. (2006) explain, sport programmes cannot have a transformative capacity if they merely offer sport activities, they can only contribute in a meaningful way if implemented within a personal and social development approach. As Haudenhuyse et al. (2013) point out, to create truly supportive settings, sports clubs and coaches must take on a personal and social development approach.

Furthermore, it is necessary to recognize and address that young people in vulnerable situations – those most likely to engage in risky behaviours – may completely reject organized sport activities and be unwilling to participate because sports settings usually contain characteristics similar to those of other settings in which they have felt exclusion or failure (Haudenhuyse et al., 2012). As Williams and Bedward (2001) argue, sport can be both alienating and embarrassing for young people who have little aptitude or skill for sport. For Collins (2005), an additional criticism of the use of sports clubs is that they may constitute narrow subcultures or cliques, and rather than produce true community integration through the creation of bridges between dissimilar people, they are better at producing bonding social capital between similar people. Lastly, and perhaps most importantly, it is imperative to discern whether the forms of 'social inclusion' that sport programmes offer marginalized young people, and which may have the potential to reduce crime and violence, can coexist in societies where structural inequality perpetuates social exclusion and where sport programmes mount a façade of support for the marginalized but do little, if anything, to address larger, structural problems (Kelly, 2012).

5.5 Conclusions and recommendations

Sport activities have long been assumed to contribute to positive child protection outcomes, including through reducing violence and risky behaviours. Robust empirical support has not, however, been found for the theoretical perspectives that argue for the role of sport in violence reduction through social control and adoption of certain norms and values.

A few sport initiatives have shown promising results in reducing GBV and other risks of violence for children and young people by promoting the formation of positive social relationships which promote social capital development and through the development of positive youth identities and prosocial values. Nevertheless, the literature also indicates that sport can constitute a risk, as children and young people who practise sport are at greater risk of being victims of forms of interpersonal violence and abuse, with certain groups – e.g., elite athletes, minorities – facing heightened risks, although further evidence needs to be collected on this front, particularly in low-income countries. While advances have been made to ensure the protection of children in sport, both nationally (mostly in high-income countries) and internationally (such as through the development of the International Safeguards for Children in Sport), important limitations remain. These include the absence of data to better understand which countries are adhering to these safeguards, as well as a need for political will to develop mandatory requirements and uniformity in national safeguards.

For sport initiatives to be successful, positive change in protection outcomes should first be understood as contributing directly to any and all of the mechanisms identified, in turn leading to a decrease in violence, including abuse, against children and young people, as well as violence and risky behaviours by children and young people who participate in sport activities. Furthermore, it is necessary to understand if, and under what conditions, sport programming can contribute to

Figure 5.2 Theory of Change for Sport for Child Protection

Challenges
Normalization of violence in mainstream sport culture; Traditional reward/power structures and hypermasculinity; sport climate that is not pedagogical or inclusive

Assumptions		
Children and young people are attracted to sport activities	Well-designed S4D programmes can contribute to child protection outcomes.	Child protection-focused S4D programmes can also positively affect families and communities.

Inputs		
Non-discriminating structures	All adults in contact with children are trained on child protection and safeguarding	Safe space and inclusive, pedagogical sport climate

Strategies, processes and activities						
Linking with existing social programmes that address large-scale risks	Coaches as role models and mentors	Supportive relationships between participants and adults	Discussions on violence and conflict resolution	Substitution of risk	Enforcing fair play, discipline	Penalization of aggressive behaviour

Outputs								
Increase in prosocial attitudes through positive relationships	Increased number of children with healthy conflict resolution strategies	Increased share of children with access to community services, referral pathways	Reduction of risky behaviour (e.g., crime and substance abuse)	Decreased recidivism	Reduction of gender-based violence	Increased by-stander intervention	Increased share of adults in programming trained in child protection and safeguarding	Increased uptake of guidelines and framework on safeguarding and protection of children

Outcomes				
Positive identity	Pursuit of education and employment pathways	Targeted service provision and policy implementation	Improved community-level management of risky behavior	Greater societal awareness of and positive action on child-protection risks and safeguarding

Impact on SDGs					
SDG 3/Target 3.5: Strengthen prevention and treatment of substance abuse	SDG 4: Quality education	SDG 5/Target 5.2: Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls	SDG 8/Target 8.6: Substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training	SDG 11/Target 11.7: Provide universal access to safe, inclusive and accessible, green and public spaces	SDG 16: Peace, justice and strong institutions

addressing other protection risks that fall under the UNICEF definition, such as exploitation through, for example, severe training regimes or neglect of injury and the need for rest and recovery. Lastly, change in protection outcomes should be understood both as the adoption of safeguards across different contexts, and also as evidence that the adoption of these safeguards significantly contributes to child protection. The theory of change below summarises key findings from the literature reviewed and illustrates how sport can contribute to positive child protection outcomes, and also how sport may constitute a protection risk (*see Figure 5.2*). This is a preliminary framework to be reviewed, modified and contextualised with future research.

In addition to relying on a theory of change, key stakeholders can also focus on specific components of the theory of change which were highlighted in the literature review on child-focused S4D initiatives aiming to achieve child protection outcomes. Below, specific recommendations for practitioners, policymakers and researchers are summarised and draw from the available literature and examples.

5.5.1 Recommendations for practitioners to train coaches

Organisations working in S4D interventions should invest in the training of coaches, who have been identified as a central pillar for the success of sport initiatives. In addition, it is important to advocate for uniform and homogeneous laws at all levels of government that make coach training mandatory – rather than voluntary – to reduce the likelihood of abusive practices. Practitioners should encourage those coaches who have not fully recognized their significant role in athletes' lives and behaviour to participate actively as mentors and role models by encouraging positive behaviours, particularly with the aim of reducing GBV. Programmatic efforts that have been empirically proven to create positive change – such as CBIM – should be expanded. In volatile environments, especially in settings following conflict or natural disaster, coaches administering sport programmes should be provided with additional support, both material and psychological, such as training to provide or support the provision of psychosocial interventions and rehabilitation in conflict and post-disaster settings.

5.5.2 Recommendations for policymakers to better understand the role of sport within existing programmes

Policymakers need to re-evaluate existing assumptions about sport as some sort of 'silver bullet' for addressing the integration of marginalized and vulnerable populations; as a tool for decreasing crime and violence; and as a tool for conflict resolution. It is necessary to create sport programmes that address the systemic problems that lead to the exclusion of vulnerable populations and that thus contribute to delinquency and violence through inequalities rather than rely solely on sport to address profound social ills. Creating such programmes would involve, as a first step, listening to the voices of those who are marginalized to learn how to modify and improve existing programmes and initiatives, and where possible, involving marginalized groups in programme design and evaluation.

Following on from this, an additional recommendation is for policymakers to tie sport into existing social programmes that tackle structural problems that are often linked to violence, such as poverty, education and employment, among others. As Hartmann and Kwauk (2011, as cited in Haudenhuyse, Theeboom, and Nols, 2012, p. 480) highlight, sports practices can be "conceptualized as a form of political engagement and educative practice that could contribute to more fundamental social changes." One practical recommendation could be to increase cash transfers to encourage access to sport activities or sports clubs for the children of cash transfer beneficiaries. In addition, it is necessary to sponsor programmes that truly foster the development of bridging social capital by connecting different groups of people whom would normally not interact with each other, rather than support programmes that further reinforce exclusionary practices that lie at the heart of violent dynamics. Building such bridges could include, for example, enabling access to sports clubs that bring together both marginalized and non-marginalized children and young people (For a more nuanced discussion of bonding, bridging, and linking social capital, *see Chapter 4*).

5.5.3 Recommendations for researchers on the need for more rigorous research

Researchers in the area of S4D and child protection should focus on generating more research and evidence that explores both the positive impacts of sport on child protection outcomes and its potential risks, looking especially at developing country settings, where evidence is particularly lacking. Such research requires, first, the creation of an internationally validated instrument and indicators to measure and compare the prevalence of violence in sport, although the design of data collection instruments will require awareness of the ethical limitations of research involving children; sensitivity to the topics of violence, exploitation and abuse; and consideration of regional and cultural differences. Data collection should also be geared toward building a wider evidence base on the positive impacts of sport programmes on child protection, which will involve evaluating existing initiatives and gaining a better understanding of the potential of sport to have positive impacts on other forms of protection, such as preventing exploitation. Specific indicators should be created, and baseline and follow-up measurements taken.

Second, it is necessary to use a mixed methods approach to gain a better understanding of the processes and mechanisms through which sport contributes to positive protection outcomes, as well as to reformulate existing theories on the benefits of sport unsubstantiated by empirical evidence. Third, data collection efforts should also better represent the voices of children and young people, such as through participatory action research, although some qualitative work has included the voices of participants of sport programmes. Where possible, researchers could also invest in building longitudinal data sets to better understand how sport can contribute to long-term change, taking care that the indicators created do not reproduce practices of social exclusion and pathologize those who are marginalized (Haudenhuyse et al., 2012).

Researchers can also contribute to a better understanding of which countries follow existing international guidelines for child protection in sport, both to identify gaps in protection and to assess the effectiveness of existing safeguards.

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Annex 5.A Summary of literature with child protection outcomes

Study information			Program design/delivery method			
Citation	Study method	Sample	What sports were used?	How were sports used?	Where?	For whom?
Chen, Dormitzer, Gutiérrez, Vittetoe, González and Anthony (2004)	QT	▲ *n*=12,589 school-attending youth (age 16)	Not specified	Part of adolescent behavioural repertoire (ABR); study aims to estimate strength of association among 5 ABR dimensions & earliest stages of drug involvement	Panama, Central America, Dominican Republic	Youth
Haudenhuyse, Theeboom and Coalter (2012)	MM	●,▲,◎ *n*=35	Boxing	Organized sport as sereies of social relationships and processes; how it contributes to decreasing vulnerability	Flanders, Belgium	Socially vulnerable youth
Haudenhuyse, Theeboom, Nols and Coussée (2014)	QL	●,▲,◎ *n*=50 young people (ages 9-22, 58% male); *n*=13 coaches, board members, & club coordinators	Varied types of sports clubs	How participation in sports club is experienced and how vulnerable youth can best be supported	Flanders, Belgium	Vulnerable youth
Jaime et al. (2015)	MM	● Baseline survey: *n*=176 (100% male) Interview: *n*=36 (100% male)	Not specified	*Coaching Boys Into Men* program to alter gender norms that foster Adolescent Relationship Abuse/Sexual Violence	California, USA	Male high school students and coaches
Kelly (2012)	QL	▲,◎,●,◫ *n*=88	Not specified	Explore the role of sports-based interventions in contributing to youth crime reduction	United Kingdom	
Kunz (2009)	QL	▷ *n*=15	Multiple	Post-disaster psychosocial intervention	Bam, Iran	Children, youth, parents
Massey and Whitley (2016)	QL	▲ *n*=10	Multiple	Examines how sport potentially contributes to development over time	USA	Former athletes who experienced multiple traumas/ adverse experiences during childhood

	What are the results?																		
	Inclusion			Empowerment						Education	Child protection				Health and well-being			Other
	Sense of belonging	Increased inclusion	Change in perceptions	Empowerment, self-determination, agency	Social capital	Cultural capital	Skill development	Engagement	Motivation, initiative, goal-setting.	Education (general)	Security, safe space	Reduced violence; conflict resolution	Bystander behaviour	Decreased drug/alcohol use	Health and well-being (general)	Increased sport/activity	Psychosocial benefits	Other
														+				
											+							Focus on coaching practices that have potential to decrease vulnerability (e.g., placing youth wellbeing central, focus on concrete needs and life situations)
	+			+							+							Additionally, sports clubs provide environments of appreciation and caring; Requires specific efforts from coaches and cultural context
											+	+						
										+								Self-regulation
	+									+					+		+	Coaches play crucial role in using sport and play to support post-disaster psychosocial rehabilitation
							+											Positive: distraction from hardship, way out. Negative: arena to develop violent and angry persona. Depended on structure provided, relationships, and opportunities

Study Method		Study Participants/Sample			
Symbol	Meaning	Symbol	Meaning	Symbol	Meaning
QL	Qualitave	●	practitioners (volunteer or professional)	◎	project leader/office
QT	Quantitative	▲	participants	▷	Parents
MM	Mixed Methods	◇	Community members (not practitioners)	☑	Program
Op	Opinion Paper	◧	other professionals (e.g., multicultural workers)	▨	Other program partners or stakeholders
n/a	Not applicable	◈	community leaders		

Study information			Program design/delivery method			
Citation	**Study method**	**Sample**	**What sports were used?**	**How were sports used?**	**Where?**	**For whom?**
Miller et al. (2012)	QT	▲ Baseline: *n*=2,006 (100% males) Follow up: *n*=1798 (100% males) *Girls eligible to participate but in separate, female-specific survey not included in analysis	Not specified	Examines effectiveness of *Coaching Boys Into Men*, a dating violence prevention program	Sacramento County, California, USA	Coaches and high school male athletes
Miller et al. (2014)	QT	▲ *n*=309 (100% male, ages 10-16)	Cricket	*Adopting Coaching Boys Into Men* program in India; evaluating potential to change social norms related to masculinity and reduce GBV	Mumbai, India	Coaches and male students
Milner and Baker (2017)	QT	▲ *n*=8043 (National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health, Wave III)	Not specified (data disaggegated by team or individual sport)	Explore the role of sport participation and experiences of intimate partner violence victimization	USA	Young men and women
Mutz (2012)	QT	▲ *n*=1,319 (ages 12-20)	Specified by discipline (e.g., combat sports such as boxing; contact sports like soccer; and non-contact sports; "bodybuilding" or "muscle training")	Relation between different types of sports and males' attitudes toward and use of violence	Brandenburg, Germany	Adolescent males
Nanayakkara (2016)	MM	▲ *n*=124 (45% female)	Not specified	Educating youth through sport, practical teaching in schools of IOC to build peaceful world; whether Olympism values can be applied to real world situations	Central Province, Sri Lanka	Secondary students
Parker, Meek and Lewis (2014)	QL	▲ *n*= 12 (ages 15-17, 100% male)	Football, boxing, rugby or cricket	Multimodal, sports-based initiatives in prison for psychosocial and rehabilitative impact	England, United Kingdom	Young people in custody
Rodríguez, Esquivel, Rodríguez and Fonseca (2016)	QL	▲ *n*= 28 (100% male)	Football, basketball, athletics, wrestling, volleyball	Effect of recreational activities on aggression and values	Heredia, Costa Rica	Youth at social risk

| | What are the results? | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Inclusion | | | Empowerment | | | | | | Education | Child protection | | | | Health and well-being | | | Other |
	Sense of belonging	Increased inclusion	Change in perceptions	Empowerment, self-determination, agency	Social capital	Cultural capital	Skill development	Engagement	Motivation, initiative, goal-setting.	Education (general)	Security, safe space	Reduced violence; conflict resolution	Bystander behaviour	Decreased drug/alcohol use	Health and well-being (general)	Increased sport/activity	Psychosocial benefits	Other
													+					
													+					Improvements in gender-equitable attitudes
											+	+						Negative association between sport participation and IPVV prevalence (among women, not men) who are highly educated; mediated by education & employment
											+	+						Type of sport matters: youth in combat sport had higher approval and use of violence; youth in leisure sports less in favor of violence than non-athletes
							+					+						
							+			+							+	Promoting desistance from susbsequent offending
												+						Improvement in pro-social attitudes; decrease in negative behavior

Study information			Program design/delivery method			
Citation	Study method	Sample	What sports were used?	How were sports used?	Where?	For whom?
Sanford, Duncombe and Armour (2008)	MM	▲ *n=* 146 (Year 1), 149 (Year 2), 145 (Year 3) – HSBC/OB *n=*384 (Year 1), 2318 (Year 2), 4041 (Year 3) – SSLfS	Multiple	Positive youth development in context of education	London, United Kingdom	
Sobotová, Šafaříková and González Martínez (2016)	QL	●,▲ *n=*32	Multiple (e.g., football, athletics, etc.)	*Tiempo de Juego* program using public space/territory; unpacking geographies and feelings about space along indicators (security, freedom of speech, feling of belonging, equal access)	Cazucá, Soacha, Colombia	Young peer leaders
Spruit, van der Put, van Vugt and Jan Stams (2018)	QT	●,▲ Coaches: *n=*38 Adolescents: *n=*155 (ages 12-18, 91.6% male)	Soccer, basketball or baseball	Preventing juvenile delinquency	Netherlands	At-risk adolescents
Whitley, Massey and Wilkison (2018)	QL	●,◇ *n=*14 (e.g., teachers, coaches, community leaders, etc.)	Not specified	Developing systems theory to understand impact of sports on fostering positive youth development		Disadvantaged youth; traumatized youth

	What are the results?																	
	Inclusion			Empowerment						Education	Child protection				Health and well-being			Other
	Sense of belonging	Increased inclusion	Change in perceptions	Empowerment, self-determination, agency	Social capital	Cultural capital	Skill development	Engagement	Motivation, initiative, goal-setting.	Education (general)	Security, safe space	Reduced violence; conflict resolution	Bystander behaviour	Decreased drug/alcohol use	Health and well-being (general)	Increased sport/activity	Psychosocial benefits	Other
										+							+	Improvement in anti-social behavior, but multiple factors involved in maximising benefits
	+										+							Initiative location as enclave of sharing, respect, freedom, security, equality
										+							+	Fewer conduct problems; better acceptance of authority; fewer friends with delinquent behavior; better resistance to social pressure; more pro-social behavior. Coach behaviors and sociomoral climate predicted success
	+			+							+							Embodied physicality and competition; Change in youth-environment interactions; Developmentally-focused sport environment

Chapter 6
Empowerment and Sport for Development

Sport is an instrument of empowerment where children and young people build their desire and willingness to act and respond to issues whether at the individual or community levels, requiring shared decision-making and responsibility between children, young people and adults. This implies three categories of empowerment: individual, group and community. The evidence indicates a positive association between participation in sports and psychosocial variables related to self-determination, collective agency and civic engagement. Evidence strongly suggests that skill development in autonomy-supportive, mastery-oriented, motivational sport climates is important for self-determination and individual empowerment. To a lesser extent, evidence also suggests that building partnerships between young people and community members through participatory approaches in sport programmes that also involve family members is important for the civic engagement and community empowerment of children and young people. There is reasonable evidence to suggest that team sports, positive peer relationships and caring coaches/mentors are important for individual empowerment. Evidence that these features of sports settings can also be linked to collective agency and group empowerment is, however, mainly anecdotal, and these proposed relationships remain largely theoretical and in need of further investigation. Relationships between children/young people and coaches, mentors, peers, parents and other community members were important for all three levels of empowerment.

6.1 Introduction: Empowerment and sport

Sport stands out as being a context in which young people report high levels of empowerment-related outcomes (Hansen et al., 2010; Larson et al., 2006). Empowerment-related outcomes refer to the sense that a child or young person has of themselves to engage in a response to an issue as well as their willingness to act, such as in the case of civic engagement. Empowerment is defined in this report using a multi-dimensional approach at the individual, group and community levels. At the three levels, empowerment as referred to in the literature on child and youth participation in society emphasizes key themes that remain a foundation of this report, such as shared control, shared power, shared decision-making and shared responsibility among children, young people and adults as the pathway to achieving empowerment (Hart, 1992; Wong et al., 2010).

Children and young people who participate in sport and do well often report feelings of increased confidence or perceived self-efficacy (Haudenhuyse et al., 2012; Hayhurst, 2013). Increased confidence – or their perception – in their skills and abilities to achieve goals on the sports field can help children and young people

to recognize their own power both as individuals and as a team. Therefore, sports settings – as public arenas for the demonstration of skills in the pursuit of goals – can support child and young people's empowerment. For example, youth reported experiencing more empowerment-related opportunities to show initiative, teamwork/social skills and leadership in organized extra-curricular activities such as sport than in other settings such as the classroom, work and when hanging out with friends. (Hansen et al., 2003; Larson et al., 2006). In addition, studies that compared sport activities with other types of organized activities found that youth participation in organized sports was positively associated with empowerment outcomes and processes, while participation in academic clubs showed either a negative association with these factors (Larson et al., 2006) or no significant relationship (Hansen et al., 2010). Furthermore, team sports provided more opportunities for these associated empowerment experiences than individual sports (Hansen et al., 2010).

Furthermore, sport can be an important contributor to the fulfilment of SDGs that address empowerment outcomes for individuals, groups and communities, including: building the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations (SDG 1, Target 1.5); gender equality

(SDG 5); decent work and economic growth (SDG 8); reduced inequalities (SDG 10); sustainable cities and communities (SDG 11); and peace, justice and strong institutions (SDG 16).

To strengthen and understand the diverse ways in which sport can lead to greater empowerment, this chapter: (1) defines empowerment for the purposes of this work and for S4D programming; (2) looks at how sport and empowerment are linked; and (3) analyses the literature and a sample of current initiatives to assess the quality of the available evidence. This third section asks three critical questions: (1) Why is sport important for each type of empowerment; (2) What strategies work in sport for each type of empowerment?; and, (3) What challenges arise when using sport for each type of empowerment? The final section of the chapter summarizes the findings through an evidence-informed theory of change for empowerment-focused S4D, and provides recommendations. The main messages drawn from the evidence reviewed in this chapter are summarized immediately below.

6.1.1 Key findings presented in this chapter include the following:

- Empowerment is conceptualized across three categories: individual, group and community, each of which links to sport in unique way:
  - » Individual empowerment refers to self-determination, which children and young people experience through autonomy, self-discipline/control, perceived self-efficacy, agency, a positive self-concept and the motivation they feel when mastering a sports skill and being able to do it.
  - » Group empowerment refers to collective agency that arises from thinking, working and/or playing in a group toward a shared or common goal – experiences common to team sports.
  - » Community empowerment is the enhancement of the local community's capacity for civic engagement and contributions to its own sustainable development. Many sports teams are community based, involved in their communities and instil a sense of local pride and standards where children and young people can engage in shared power and decision-making.

- S4D programmes that work for personal empowerment and beyond are those that do the following:
  - » Deliver in autonomy-supportive and mastery-oriented sport climates. For example, programmes aiming to achieve individual empowerment outcomes can use the teaching personal and social responsibility (TPSR) model.
  - » Foster team sport and collective agency: Team sports supported by caring relationships with peers and adults involved in the programme (i.e., coaches and mentors) also work for the empowerment of individuals.
  - » Support participatory approaches that use experiential learning and reinforce community connections such as with families and through civic engagement.

- Challenges to S4D programmes seeking to improve empowerment include the following:
  - » Existing negative social perceptions of children and young people (e.g., as irresponsible or affiliated to gangs).;
  - » Pervasiveness of the deficit model approach, which overemphasizes shortcomings and overlooks strengths of children and young people – undermining the promotion of empowerment and agency.;
  - » When adults assume that children cannot or should not contribute to participatory activities (including design and implementation of S4D programmes), which again discourages children's and young people's participation and can disempower;
  - » As elsewhere, a lack of intentional design based on a theory of change to ensure that programme processes facilitate empowerment.
  - » Lack of guidance/consensus on the definition and measurement of empowerment – as both an outcome and process, which can be difficult to disentangle and to set standard for conceptual clarity.

- Policymakers and S4D practitioners seeking to promote child protection can trial the following promising practices:

  » Train coaches to support autonomy and mastery climates in S4D programmes.

  » Use evidence-based experiential learning models (e.g., TPSR model) to develop skills.

  » Include various stakeholders (e.g., children and young people, parents, community members and others from various sectors in the community) in programme design, implementation and evaluation.

  » Promote the use of an evidence-informed and intentionally designed theory of change approach to S4D for empowerment.

6.2 What is empowerment in the context of S4D?

Empowerment is a difficult concept to define which needs to be contextualised within the lives of children and young people. As UNICEF notes in its Generation Unlimited campaign material, "There are no commonly agreed measures of youth empowerment and participation... This undermines the credibility of investments aimed at raising empowerment as their efficacy cannot be proven." (UNICEF, 2018, p. 2). In fact, of the 56 empowerment-focused S4D programmes that responded to the UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey, only 2 focused solely on empowerment outcomes, while 43 also focused on child protection outcomes, 36 on social inclusion, and 26 on education outcomes. Recent work by UNICEF suggests efforts to undertake some methodological work to establish measurements for adolescent empowerment or otherwise referred to as participation (UNICEF, n.d.).

Nevertheless, the literature on psychological empowerment (Zimmerman and Rappaport, 1988; Zimmerman, 1995; Wong, Zimmerman and Parker, 2010) and articles reviewed for this chapter provided some useful ways to conceptualize children's and young people's empowerment through a multi-dimensional approach. Zimmerman and Rappaport (1988, p. 746) defined psychological empowerment as "the connection between a sense of personal competence, a desire for, and a willingness to take action in the public domain." They also noted that participation in civic life is an important mechanism for psychological empowerment. Subsequently, Zimmerman (1995) proposed that there are three components of psychological empowerment: intrapersonal (within-individual) outcomes, interactional (or relational) outcomes and behavioural outcomes. Meanwhile, other conceptualizations of empowerment (drawn from literature on child and youth participation in society) emphasize shared control, shared power, shared decision-making and shared responsibility among children, young people and adults as the pathway to achieving empowerment (Hart, 1992; Wong et al., 2010).

In reviewing the literature on empowerment through sport for this chapter, it was discovered that the studied sport programmes varied in two aspects. The first was the type of development targeted (i.e., personal development vs social group and team development). The second aspect in which sport programmes in the reviewed literature varied was how far the circle of concern extended (i.e. whether limited to individual outcomes or expanded to also include family and community outcomes). When combined and collapsed across these two dimensions, efforts to empower children and young people through sport can be placed in one of three categories: individual empowerment, group empowerment or community empowerment.

6.2.1 Individual empowerment

Individual empowerment is realized through the ability to lead a self-determined life. Self-determination is a form of optimal intrinsic motivation that arises from the satisfaction of the individual's basic psychological needs: autonomy, relatedness and competence (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Literature and research on the relationship between sports participation and psychosocial outcomes suggests that in the context of organized sports participation, children and young people experience a sense of self-determination through the development of skills in autonomy-supportive and mastery-oriented motivational climates (Fenton et al., 2017; Gould et al., 2012; MacDonald et al., 2011; Schaillée et al., 2017) which refers to perceived self-efficacy. Feeling the freedom to practise and develop sporting skills and then

Box 6.1 Spotlight on Monrovia Football Academy: Empowering Liberia's Youth

With the vision of empowering young Liberians to positively impact their communities, Monrovia Football Academy (MFA) was founded in Liberia by Will Smith in 2015. The non-profit, leadership institution harnesses young people's interest in football to provide a holistic approach to students' total development. What began as a small-scale initiative with 27 students has grown to 92 full-time, residential students ages 8 to 15. The school follows the Liberian Ministry of Education's curriculum for its core subjects, which it supplements with courses in leadership, entrepreneurship, music, health sciences, and STEM.

The initiative aims to have an impact on leadership via five key factors: academic ability, attitudes toward gender, resilience, pride in national identity, and pro-social skills. It also aims for a minimum of 90 percent of graduates to attend university and at least 90 percent to be gainfully employed after formal education. A 2018 report on an independent evaluation of the program reflects MFA's commitment to

continued learning. The report shows attention to relevance, impartiality, inclusiveness and ethics, and transparency. It compares MFA students to those who "just missed the cut" by using baseline scores gathered during the selection process and the results of later assessments conducted at football festivals attended by these students. From this evaluation, the potential impact of MFA is visible. MFA students performed eight percentage points higher on a standardized exam than "just missed the cut" peers ($p<0.05$). MFA students also scored more positively on the gender equality index, Liberia nationalist pride, and social inclusion. MFA's current efforts to scale up its program are informed by this quality research. The organization aims to reach an additional 20 students each year and is also working with LEAD Africa, a network of sports academies with a similar ethos, to replicate MFA's model with the vision of creating one locally run academy in each African country.

Find more information at the following link: http://www.monroviafa.com/academy/#programs.

step into a public arena and do their absolute best (through the skills they have mastered) instils in children and young people confidence in their individual abilities and can be empowering, especially when accompanied by support from their peers and coaches (Gould et al., 2012; MacDonald et al., 2011; Schaillée et al., 2017).

Of the 56 empowerment-focused S4D programmes identified in the UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey, 14 focused on individual empowerment through the achievement of outcomes such as leadership, autonomy and psychosocial development. Of these 14 programmes, 1 focused on autonomy, 5 on leadership and 9 on psychosocial

development, including confidence, self-esteem, socio-emotional skills and pride (for an example, *see Box 6.1*). In their implementation, programmes appeared to link outputs in participants' individual psychosocial development with outcomes in empowerment, albeit broadly defined ones.

6.2.2 Group empowerment

Group empowerment is a sense of collective agency that arises from sustained interaction and relationships with others. Collective agency is thinking, doing and acting together as a group to achieve shared or common goals. Research suggests that learning to work well with others

as part of a sports team with the support of peers and caring coaches, mentors or other young leaders is positively associated with psychosocial outcomes related to collective agency (Bean et al., 2014; Berlin et al., 2007; Halsall and Forneris, 2018; Hammond-Diedrich and Walsh, 2006; Muller Mariano and Pereira da Silva Filho, 2015; Strachan et al., 2009). Furthermore, team sports appear to not only have an advantage over other types of organized activities (e.g., performance arts, academic clubs, service learning) but also present distinct advantages over individual sports or physical activity (Evans et al., 2017; Hansen et al., 2010;

MacDonald et al., 2011; Pantzer et al., 2018; Wikman et al., 2017). Therefore, through participation in team sports, children and young people may grow confident in their abilities to work with both peers and adults in a group setting to achieve common goals. This form of group empowerment on the sports field can potentially transfer to child and youth participation in community contexts (Hellison, 2003).

6.2.3 Community empowerment

Community empowerment is the enhancement of the local community's capacity for civic engagement and

## Box 6.2 Spotlight on Fútbol Más: Empowering communities for Sustainable Impact

Fútbol Más was founded in Chile in 2008 and now operates in more than 70 neighborhoods in seven regions of Chile, in addition to Peru, Ecuador, Haiti, Mexico, Paraguay, and Kenya. The organisation implements various initiatives including recovering public spaces as places of protection and training, campaigns promoting unity and positive attitudes for transforming football, the creation of spaces for interaction and recreation in emergency contexts, and a resilience model in schools to strengthen coexistence. Children and adolescents between ages 6 and 15 participate in socio-sport classes and the football league, while young people between ages 16 and 20 participate as trained resilience tutors who support the classes.

Fútbol Más's use of football to promote children's wellbeing depends on connecting the members of the communities in which it works and promoting cohesion through play and sports. Impact evaluations show contributions to feelings of community safety, neighborhood trust, safety and respect at school, psychological wellbeing (such as the absence of post-traumatic stress in emergency contexts), and behavioral strengths

(such as prosocial conduct). The organisation also believes that the families and community are key in making long-term and sustainable impact. Families thus participate in Neighborhood Coordination Teams, which help them to lead the management of the programme until they can do so autonomously. This involves the neighborhood representatives taking over the implementation of the programme, channeling the needs and objectives of the local community, and managing the public space. Of the 72 neighborhoods in which it operates, 24 are self-sufficient, and 48 are in transition from confidence to autonomy. Fútbol Más also works to connect community organizations and local stakeholders from various sectors with its community leaders and believes in supporting community members to be their own advocates. In this way, Fútbol Más is an example of uniting children and young people in partnerships with adults, expanding their local circle of support, and contributing to the local communities' empowerment and sustainable development.

Find more information at the following link: http://futbolmas.org/en/.

Figure 6.1 Conceptualization of empowerment through sports
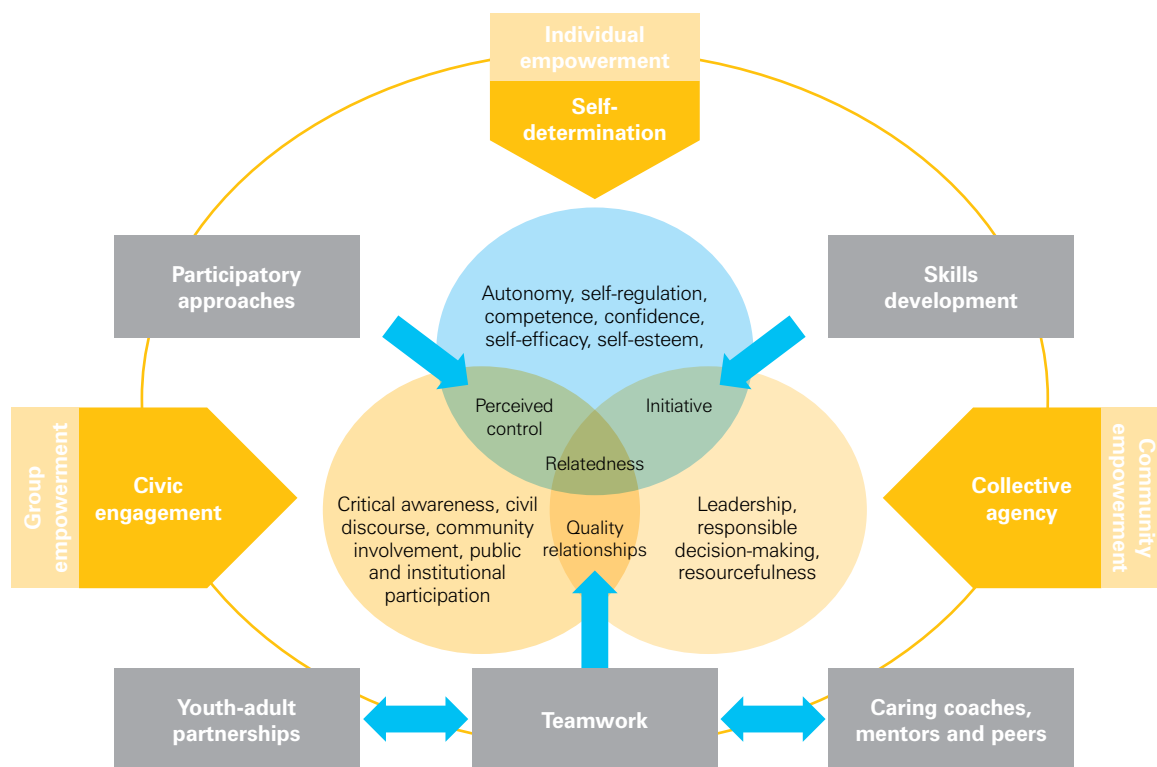
Source: Based on evidence in the literature on empowerment and sport.

contributions to its own sustainable development. Civic engagement is informed by active involvement with community life and participation in public institutions. Research shows that participatory approaches that bring together different generations, through young people acting in partnership with adults, create opportunities for sustainable participation by children and young people in civic activities and public institutions (Zeldin et al., 2013, 2005). Building on the collective agency that arises from group empowerment of children and young people through team sports, the involvement of parents, families, community leaders and other community members in sport activities can further increase the confidence of children and young people in their abilities by expanding their circle of support (for a programme example, see *Box 6.2*). Furthermore, it supports the development of children's and young people's social capital (*see Chapter 4)*.

Additionally, intentional efforts to connect activities and experiences on the sports field or court to real-life contexts such as communities and governing organizations through experiential learning design can teach young people values of responsible citizenship (Halsall and Forneris, 2018; Muller Mariano and Pereira da Silva Filho, 2015; Wamucii, 2012). Using sports participation to open up other opportunities for children and young people to have a positive impact on the

communities and societies in which their sport programmes are embedded presents the most direct link to civic engagement for S4D approaches, and though not without its challenges (Coalter, 2007a), offers potential benefits not just for individual children and young people but for their communities as well (Halsall and Forneris, 2018; Lerner, 2015; Reding et al., 2011).

6.3 How are sport and empowerment linked?

The common thread linking the three categories of empowerment is motivation. Self-determination, agency and engagement are all motivational concepts. Therefore, sport can empower through motivating individuals to set goals for themselves -developing their perceived self-efficacy- and to work with others to achieve those goals, while actively engaging in and contributing to social life. In this chapter, empowerment in sports settings is conceptualized as children's and young people's experiences of self-determination, collective agency and civic engagement, through use of participatory approaches that respect and lift up young people's voices and contributions to promote skills development and teamwork with support from caring coaches, mentors, peers, family members and adult partners within the community (*see Figure 6.1*).

Empowerment in sports settings can address the needs of both young girls and boys. Female empowerment, however, is a critical issue for UNICEF, which seeks to empower vulnerable young girls through advancing gender equality (UNICEF, 2018). A number of studies suggest that not only does participating in sports have a positive impact on the empowerment of girls (Bean et al., 2014; Chawansky and Mitra, 2015; Forneris et al., 2015; Gould et al., 2012; Pantzer et al., 2018; Peacock-Villada et al., 2007; Roemmich et al., 2012; Schaillée et al., 2015) but also that the association of sport with empowerment may be stronger for girls than for boys (Gould et al., 2012; Pantzer et al., 2018; Roemmich et al., 2012). Yet, this may say more about the level of inequality that in exists in society between girls and boys – girls are at a disadvantage 'playing catch up' and therefore naturally cover more ground or distances across scales and indicators used to assess intervention outcomes – rather than point to the unique ability of sport to promote empowerment. Additionally, of the 56 empowerment-focused S4D programmes identified among the 106 programmes that participated in the UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey, 7 of them discuss gender issues in their target goals. However, of these few that name gender issues, four focus on reaching gender equality in participation rates and 3 reported broadly teaching participants about gender issues or gender equality.

The social inclusion chapter of this report discussed how sport can be used as a tool to increase inclusion of girls *in* sport as well as to increase inclusion of girls in society through sport, noting that this could be achieved through functional social inclusion, a dimension that encompasses skills, power and equity (see Chapter 4). In this way, the use of sport to empower girls is associated with social inclusion of girls in and through sport. For example, research by Hayhurst (2013) showed that through learning martial arts, girls were empowered to combat GBV, speak up for reproductive rights and pursue employment opportunities through developing skills to coach others in martial arts. Throughout this chapter, examples are included from the research of empowerment in sport programmes specifically for girls, and instances in which effects are more pronounced for girls than boys are noted. Nevertheless, the focus of this chapter is the empowerment of both girls and boys.

6.4 What does the evidence say?

After an initial scan of the abstracts and a full review of several articles of the available literature on S4D and empowerment, 25 articles and other documents were reviewed in full to better understand the impact of sport on empowerment outcomes (*see Annex 6.A*). The following sub-sections summaries the findings from the review of these peer-reviewed articles.

6.4.1 Why is sport important for empowerment?

Participation in sport can allow children and young people to experience power within themselves, within their peer group or team, and within their community. To understand why sport is important for empowerment, and to identify what works when using sport as tool to empower children and young people, it is helpful to think of empowerment in terms of its associated outcomes, processes and settings.

6.4.1.1 Empowerment outcomes

It was more often the case in the literature reviewed that research focused on anticipated benefits and outcomes related to empowerment, rather than on explicit measures of empowerment. In the context of organized sports participation, many different anticipated benefits and outcomes related to children's and young people's empowerment were studied (for a full list, *see Annex 6.B*). These included: (1) **self-determination** at the individual level (autonomy, perceived control, self-regulation, initiative, confidence, competence, perceived self-efficacy, self-esteem and self-worth); (2) **collective agency** at the group/team level (leadership, responsible decision-making, perceived social support, quality relationships with others, and resourcefulness); and (3) **civic engagement** at the community level (critical awareness of social issues, which informs meaningful community involvement – social capital development, public and institutional participation, and civil discourse).

6.4.1.2 Empowerment processes

The common thread linking the three categories of empowerment is that self-determination, agency and engagement are all motivational concepts. Therefore, sport empowers through motivating individuals to set goals for themselves – develop perceived self-efficacy,

and to work with others to achieve those goals, while actively engaging in and contributing to social life. The fundamental strategies and processes used for children's and young people's empowerment through sport that were identified in the literature were: (1) skills development through deliberate and engaging practice in autonomy-supportive, mastery-oriented, motivational climates; (2) teamwork among peers to build a sense of collective agency; (3) provision of a caring climate with quality relationships and support from coaches, mentors and peers; (4) partnerships between young people and adults and *intergenerational relationship building* in learning/developmental environments such as organized activity contexts and communities; and (5) participatory approaches in programme design, implementation and evaluation, as well as in policymaking forums outside the context of sport programmes. For example, Wamucii (2012) found that the promotion of leadership, skills development and access to jobs as part of the Mathare Youth Sports Association (MYSA, *see Chapter 3, Box 3.1*) programmes in Kenya was associated with youth empowerment.

6.4.1.3 Empowerment settings

Organized activities such as sport – both within and outside of school – are associated with empowerment processes and related outcomes, especially when paired with other productive extra-curricular activities. For example, Forneris et al. (2015) found that youth participating in sport and non-sport extra-curricular activities tended to score higher on empowerment and empowerment-related outcomes (e.g., social competencies and a positive self-concept) than youth who participated in sport activities alone or no extra-curricular activities at all. In that study, some youth who participated only in sport activities still scored higher on empowerment outcomes than youth who participated in no extra-curricular activities. More specifically, young girls who participated only in sport activities still scored higher on empowerment and positive identity than young girls who participated in other activities or no extra-curricular activities.

6.4.2 Sport and individual empowerment

According to the literature reviewed for this chapter, sport can be an important context for the individual empowerment of children and young people because of its association with several psychosocial outcomes that, when combined, can be best described as self-determination. In this subsection, self-determination is first defined, followed by discussion of some specific outcomes related to self-determination that are supported in the literature and which help to answer the question of why sport is important for individual empowerment of children and young people. Some common strategies used to empower individual children and young people are summarised in the final section of this chapter in a theory of change for empowerment through sport initiatives for children to show what works for young people's self-determination and individual empowerment.

6.4.2.1 Self-determination

As previously mentioned, self-determination is a form of optimal intrinsic motivation that arises from the satisfaction of basic psychological needs: autonomy, relatedness and competence (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Participation in sport has been found to be positively associated with psychosocial outcomes related to self-determination such as an increase in autonomy (Muller Mariano and Pereira da Silva Filho, 2015), agency (Peacock-Villada et al., 2007), self-discipline/control (Haudenhuyse et al., 2012; Whitley et al., 2015), a positive self-concept (Whitley et al., 2015) including perceived self-efficacy (Coalter and Taylor, 2010) and self-esteem (DeBate et al., 2009) as well as increased competence and confidence (Hammond-Diedrich and Walsh, 2006; Haudenhuyse et al., 2012; Hayhurst, 2013; Peacock-Villada et al., 2007). The literature also showed that while many S4D programmes targeted or measured self-determination (Tadesse et al., 2018) and related psychosocial outcomes such as self-control (Bean et al., 2014), self-regulation (Tadesse et al., 2018), competence (Berlin et al., 2007; Whitley et al., 2015) and confidence (Berlin et al., 2007), research on these programmes did not necessarily always report on the relationships between sports participation and these outcomes.

Initiative was the outcome related to self-determination most commonly reported in the literature as having a positive association with sport (Berlin et al., 2007; Gould et al., 2012; Hansen et al., 2010; Larson et al., 2006; MacDonald et al., 2012, 2011; Schaillée et al., 2017;

Strachan et al., 2009; Whitley et al., 2015). Larson (2000) views initiative as closely related to individual agency and autonomy, which are important concepts for positive youth development in the United States and Western cultures – suggesting a need for further studies on how initiative is portrayed in different contexts. He defines initiative as the "ability to be motivated from within to direct attention and effort toward a challenging goal" (Ibid., p. 170). The author notes that organized activity contexts (e.g., sport, performance arts, service learning) are better suited to youth's experience and development of initiative than classrooms and unstructured leisure activities (Larson, 2000, p. 170). Furthermore, studies that compared sports activities to other types of organized activities (Hansen et al., 2010; Larson et al., 2006) found that organized sports had the strongest positive association with initiative when compared with all other activities (academic clubs, performance arts, faith-based activities, community-based activities and service learning).

One of the possible reasons why initiative was the individual empowerment-related outcome most frequently cited in the literature is because it is included in a measure of developmental experiences in organized activities called the Youth Experience Survey or YES (Hansen and Larson, 2005) and in the subsequently developed sport-specific adaptation of the survey, the Youth Experience Survey for Sport or YES-S (MacDonald et al., 2012). In both of these measures, initiative is conceptualized as opportunities for experiences of goal-setting, effort, problem-solving and time management. In other words, they frame initiative as youth's ability to direct their own activities. Although measures of self-determination also exist in the literature, they were more likely to be used as a predictor variable than as an outcome variable – i.e., satisfaction of self-determination needs (especially autonomy) was associated with sport performance and other sport-related outcomes (Almagro et al., 2010; Álvarez et al., 2009; Amorose and Anderson-Butcher, 2015; Cheval et al., 2017; Gillet et al., 2010). Although at least one study showed that autonomy was negatively associated with physical activity – that is, children and young people who perceived themselves as having more autonomy were less likely to engage in physical activity (Rachele et al., 2015).

6.4.2.2 Skills development

According to theories of psychological empowerment, a key component of empowering others is building their capacity to make autonomous decisions by helping them to master important skills (Wong et al., 2010; Zimmerman, 1995; Zimmerman and Rappaport, 1988). Evidence shows that skills development in sport can be used as a tool for individual empowerment (Halsall and Forneris, 2018 – *see also Box 6.3* for an example)

Some of the specific skills associated with sport and empowerment in the literature were personal and social skills (MacDonald et al., 2012; Schaillée et al., 2017, 2015; Strachan et al., 2009; Whitley et al., 2015), physical skills (Gould et al., 2012; Hayhurst, 2013), life skills (Halsall and Forneris, 2018; Peacock-Villada et al., 2007), technical skills (Whitley et al., 2015), organizational skills (Hammond-Diedrich and Walsh, 2006), communication and expression skills (Muller Mariano and Pereira da Silva Filho, 2015) and peer-teaching skills (Hammond-Diedrich and Walsh, 2006). The type of sports participation – whether young people sampled a variety of sports or specialized in a specific sport – did not have a significant effect on their acquisition of initiative or social skills (Strachan et al., 2009).

A process evaluation study (Bean et al., 2014) based on Girls Just Wanna Have Fun, a sport programme for girls that followed the teaching personal and social responsibility (TPSR) through physical education model (Hellison, 2003), found that integrating life skills lessons on self-control and goal-setting into cooperative games was positively associated with expressions of youth voices. Also, the Sports United to Promote Education and Recreation (SUPER) programme model has been used to effectively teach life skills through sport (DeBate et al., 2009; Goudas and Giannoudis, 2010, 2008).

Sometimes more important than the skills learned, however, was the context, conditions or climate under which skills were acquired. Specifically, in organized sport contexts, the presence of autonomy-supportive coaches who cultivated a mastery-oriented climate was related to psychosocial outcomes associated with individual empowerment and self-determination (Almagro et al., 2010; Álvarez et al., 2009; Conroy and Coatsworth, 2007; Gould et al., 2012; MacDonald et al.,

2011; Roemmich et al., 2012; Schaillée et al., 2017). Of specific interest to this chapter is the fact that combining autonomy support with mastery-oriented motivational climates has been referred to as an "empowering coaching style" (Duda and Appleton, 2016) which is included as a key component of a theory of change for an empowerment-focused S4D initiative.

6.4.2.3 Autonomy support

It makes sense that to encourage autonomy among children and young people, the adults with whom children interact should be supportive of this goal.

Controlling leadership styles among adults (e.g., parents, teachers, coaches) are associated with negative or less positive developmental outcomes (need frustration, low intrinsic motivation and amotivation) when compared with autonomy support for children and young people (Amorose and Anderson-Butcher, 2015; Cheval et al., 2017; Deci et al., 1981; Gjesdal et al., 2017; Haerens et al., 2015; Ryan and Deci, 2016; Soenens et al., 2017). It would be difficult for children and young people to learn to make autonomous decisions if they are not supported with opportunities to experience autonomy and to learn from such experiences.

Box 6.3 Example of how a sport is used for empowerment through skills development

The Seedbeds of Peace programme in Medellín, Colombia, used football as an analogy to teach life skills to disadvantaged children (who are otherwise vulnerable to criminal activity), as well as to reshape their moral values in the hope of bringing about positive social change. The programme involved 995 children and youth aged 7-19 years (across 9 neighbourhoods and 25 different groups). Children and youth came from low-resource, high-risk neighbourhoods where at least 20 per cent of the population was under the age of 18 years. Most participants were white, but the sample also included Afro-Colombians and Indigenous youth. The programme structure followed a plus-sport model and included activities such as football, graffiti, dance, arts and crafts, theatre, and cooking.

Effective components of the programme included: (1) Use of football as an analogy to deliver life skills curriculum (e.g. using scoring drills to apply lessons of good decision- making, the exercise of control [delayed gratification], analysis, and reflection); (2) reflection on moral dilemmas that may arise in football and applying these to real-life situations (e.g. whether or not to

own up to referee about a 'hand ball' during a match was connected to owning up to accidental wrongdoings in real life); and (3) life projects (i.e. community outreach involving, hosting events to which community members were invited and positive messages were shared via visible slogans and small giveaways).

The link between skills development and empowerment is illustrated by the following quote about youth civic engagement from one programme official: "Whilst skills can be taught via a curriculum, values are internal beliefs that cannot be taught. As such, we simply wanted to provide the children with the opportunity to discuss and reflect upon moral issues and engage in moral acts to benefit others....The life projects serve to reinforce strengthened or redefined moral values by putting participants beliefs into actions, so that they could experience the feelings associated with helping others and acting in a moral fashion"(Hills et al., 2018).

Find more information available in Spanish at the following link: https://fundacionconconcreto.org/index.php/social/#semillerosdepaz

Box 6.4 Spotlight on the teaching personal and social responsibility (TPSR) through physical education

Background: The TPSR model was developed by Hellison (2003) to educate children and youth how to become responsible persons using strategies of gradual empowerment and relational learning integrated into physical education activities, to teach individuals to respect others, put in their best effort, and practise self-direction and leadership through helping others, with the expectation that these skills would transfer 'outside the gym' to their schools, homes and communities (Martinek and Hellison, 2016). Although, the TPSR model was initially criticized for lacking supporting evidence, the development and revision of a validated observational measure specifically to assess the TPSR model, known as the Tool for Assessing Responsibility-based Education (TARE), has helped to increase the evidence base for the TPSR (Escartí, Wright, Pascual and Gutiérrez, 2015; Wright and Craig, 2011).

Why is it important? Participation by children and youth in sport or physical education settings that use the TPSR model is associated with empowerment-related outcomes linked to both individual and group empowerment. A systematic review showed that across a number of varying contexts, participants, types of sport and research methods, the TPSR model was positively associated with responsibility, social skills and positive peer environments (Caballero Blanco, Delgado-Noguera and Escartí-Carbonell, 2013). Mixed methods research suggested that participation in physical activities that used the TPSR model was positively associated with early adolescents' self-efficacy, resourcefulness, selfregulated learning and responsibility (Escartí, Gutiérrez, Pascual and Marín, 2010). A large cross-sectional survey across 148 schools in New Zealand that used the TPSR model's intentional

physical activities and one-on-one conversations, followed by group meetings, reflection time and awareness talks, also found that outcomes associated with student engagement in TPSR model activities included increases in supportive behaviour toward others and in self-directed learning (Gordon, Thevenard and Hodis, 2011). Another quantitative survey examined 253 middle school students' scores for both social responsibility and personal responsibility and found that these were positively correlated with intrinsic motivation (Li, Wright, Rukavina and Pickering, 2008). In addition, at least one quasiexperimental study has shown that primary and secondary school-aged youth developed increased resilience (reductions in observed and suffered violence) as a result of implementation of the TPSR model (Martínez, Gómez-Mármol, Valenzuela, De la Cruz Sánchez and Suárez, 2014).

What works? A number of qualitative studies also suggest that individual and/or group empowerment are related to outcomes such as motivation, goal-setting, a positive self-concept, relatedness, teamwork and leadership (Walsh, 2004; Ward, Henschel-Pellett and Perez, 2012; Whitley, Massey and Farrell, 2017; Whitley and Gould, 2011). More importantly, these studies show the importance of caring climates and relatedness in developing an intentional approach to skills development that encourages the cultivation of meaningful relationships – which help children and youth to feel psychologically safe, setting the stage for empowerment – in addition to the importance of youth empowerment through participation/having a voice or say in programming decisions that affect their experiences (Ward et al., 2012; Whitley et al., 2017).

Autonomy-support from coaches may include expressing interest in young people's input and praising young people for autonomous behaviour as well as using supportive instruction that emphasizes affiliation in the coach-athlete relationship rather than control or blame (Conroy and Coatsworth, 2007). These coaching

strategies were positively associated with the youth athlete's perceived autonomy, intrinsic motivation and future adherence to physical activity and sport (Almagro et al., 2010). Autonomy support from coaches was also associated with need satisfaction, self-determined

motivation and enjoyment among male youth enrolled as cadets in a soccer school (Álvarez et al., 2009). One study used a small-sample randomized controlled trial design to show that both autonomy and mastery can increase girls' and boys' physical activity while playing 'exergames,' videogames that combine exercise with videogames" (Roemmich et al., 2012). Specifically, opportunities for autonomy were associated with greater physical activity time among girls.

6.4.2.4 Mastery-oriented motivational climates

Children and young people can have both positive and negative experiences in sport. In a mastery-oriented motivational climate, young people are motivated to master the tasks or sports skills required to perform at their personal best on the sports field or court, rather than to be preoccupied with winning or with avoiding losing (Duda and Nicholls, 1992). Evidence shows that a mastery-oriented caring climate was associated with or predicted positive outcomes such as initiative, goal-setting, personal and social skills, and physical skills at the individual level (Gould et al., 2012; MacDonald et al., 2011; Schaillée et al., 2017). Empowering coaching climates such as mastery goal orientation and autonomy support not only increased children's and young people's motivation and enjoyment in sport, but also predicted greater (moderate to vigorous) physical activity levels and lower adiposity (Fenton et al., 2017). Other research shows, however, that dedication, age, gender and family characteristics/socio-economic status can all determine who benefits more from empowerment outcomes associated with sport (Akiva, Cortina and Smith, 2014; Gould et al., 2012; Schaillée et al., 2015). In general, more dedicated, older youth, and females may benefit more in terms of empowerment through sport.

6.4.3 Sport and group empowerment

In the context of sport, playing together as a team can produce a sense of **collective agency** that is empowering. In this subsection, collective agency is first defined, followed by discussion of some specific outcomes related to collective agency that are supported in the literature and which help to answer the question of why sport is important for group empowerment of children and young people. Some common strategies used to empower groups of children and young people are included in a theory of change to show what works for young people's collective agency and group empowerment.

6.4.3.1 Collective agency

Collective agency is thinking, doing and acting together as a group to achieve shared or common goals. According to Bandura (2000), a key element of collective agency is people's shared beliefs in their collective power to produce desired results. To build up to collective agency, certain values of effective teams must first be instilled: leadership, responsible decision-making, resourcefulness, quality relationships and perceived support. The review of the literature shows, however, that there remains a lack of evidence for the claim that sport empowers children and young people specifically through building their collective agency, even though some studies show distinct advantages for participation in team sports and psychosocial factors associated with collective agency and empowerment more broadly (Eime et al., 2013; Evans et al., 2017; MacDonald et al., 2011; Pantzer et al., 2018; Wann et al., 2015; Wikman et al., 2017).

Many of the programmes studied in the research incorporated youth **leadership and responsibility** into their design (Bean et al., 2014; Halsall and Forneris, 2018; Hammond-Diedrich and Walsh, 2006; Hemphill et al., 2018; Meir, 2017; Muller Mariano and Pereira da Silva Filho, 2015; Wamucii, 2012) but very few of them reported leadership skills as an outcome.[1] Leadership and responsibility were taught through multiple methods, including the use of community mentors, cross-age teaching, and relational practices embedded into physical activities and cooperative games, with the **TPSR sport model** (Hellison, 2003) emerging as a popular evidence-based intervention model used to teach leadership and responsibility among other skills (for more details, *see Box 6.4*). In these programmes, youth learned to become confident leaders as well as to develop empathy for others in leadership positions (Hammond-Diedrich and Walsh, 2006) and youth voices increased because of leadership opportunities (Bean

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[1] Five of the 56 empowerment-focused S4D programmes that responded to initiatives from the UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey programming survey identified 'developing participants' leadership skills as a target goal, although without specifying exactly what this entails.

et al., 2014); youth's improved sense of responsibility also transferred to the school context in terms of youth developing increased responsibility and control/ autonomy over their own school performance (Muller Mariano and Pereira da Silva Filho, 2015). One programme also used sport to harness youth's spirit of volunteerism by seeking to enhance their ability to mobilize local resources (Wamucii, 2012).

In terms of **perceived support**, evidence shows that as a result of participation in a basketball programme that promoted resilience and used group-based structures to promote peer support, young participants improved their ability to praise, motivate and support their peers (Berlin et al., 2007). Additionally, a study on young people engaged in a boxing programme showed that their perception of coaches as supportive and responsive to their needs was integral to their capacity to work toward competence (Haudenhuyse et al., 2012). In regard to **quality relationships**, research on the developmental model of sports participation (Strachan et al., 2009) shows that the type of sports participation matters for empowerment outcomes: 'samplers' (those sampling a wide variety of sports) scored higher than 'specializers' (those focusing on one sport) on adult networks and social capital, but specializers scored higher than samplers on positive relationships and diverse peer relationships. This suggests that sampling a wide variety of sports may be more important for quality peer relationships or making friends, while the sustained practice required to specialize in a particular sport may be more important for quality relationships between young people and adults.

6.4.3.2 Team sports

Strategies for supporting group empowerment include emphasizing teamwork, but whether this is connected to collective agency outside of team performance remains unclear. **Team sports** seem to present an advantage over individual sports when it comes to psychosocial benefits, in part because of the social aspects inherent in team sports (Wikman et al., 2017) but, paradoxically, these benefits are more likely to align with individual empowerment than group empowerment. In their systematic review of the literature on sport and adolescent psychosocial outcomes, Eime et al. (2013)

found that organized team sports had a slight advantage over informal individual sports in terms of psychosocial outcomes such as self-concept, self-esteem and self-efficacy (which has been linked to individual empowerment in *Figure 6.1* above) as well as positive development and moral reasoning (Evans et al., 2017). In another study, youth perceived participation in intramural sports as being associated with "bonding with teammates, improving ability to work with a team, and increased feelings of belonging at school" (Pantzer et al., 2018). Even though girls were less likely, however, to participate in these intramural sport activities, they tended to score higher than boys on psychosocial outcomes.

6.4.3.3 Positive peer experiences

Evans et al. (2017) noted that mere participation in team sports is not necessarily associated with team outcomes, and this is reflected in the fact that the literature rarely measures empowerment at the group level. Nevertheless, research suggests that positive experiences among peer groups in the context of sport serve to support empowerment. In the Girls Just Wanna Have Fun sport programme, peer interaction during relational time at the beginning of sessions was used to share challenging experiences that had occurred during the previous week and to play cooperative games that taught communication, teamwork, confidence, leadership and so on (Bean et al., 2014). Additionally, Schaillée et al. (2015) found that participation in sport was more empowering (in terms of personal and social skills) for girls from non-intact families when placed in a programme group with a higher proportion of similar peers (who were also from migrant backgrounds and had poor school performance).

In another study, young people in a South African football club described bonding with peers as though they all belonged to the same family, and noted the positive effects of this caring climate on their increased resilience (Draper and Coalter, 2016). Research also showed that in team sports environments, affiliation with peers was associated with youth reports of personal and social skills development (MacDonald et al., 2011). Furthermore, team sports provided more opportunities for these empowerment-related experiences than individual sports did (Hansen et al., 2010). Finally, a

process evaluation provided some insight into how to use the sports captaincy experience as an opportunity to promote youth responsibility and peer leadership (Gould and Voelker, 2010).

6.4.3.4 Caring coaches and mentors

The importance of caring coaches and mentors in sports settings is linked to concepts of both autonomy-supportive, mastery-oriented, motivational climates and partnerships between young people and adults, which are covered in the subsections on individual empowerment and community empowerment, respectively. Caring coaches and mentors also deserve a special mention regarding their potential influence on group empowerment. A few studies reviewed within this literature highlight the importance of caring coaching relationships to children's and young people's group empowerment-related outcomes in sport. For example, coaches' perceptivity of young people's well-being, their creation of safe and accepting sports-playing environments, their negotiated authority and their development of young people's socio-psychological competencies were perceived as key success factors in a boxing programme for youth from underserved communities (Haudenhuyse et al., 2012; *see Chapters 3 and 5* for more literature on the role of the coach).

Although it is plausible to assume that caring coaches and mentors can positively contribute to young people's collective agency, sport literature has tended to focus more heavily on benefits for individuals rather than for groups of individuals. One possible exception may be in the sport performance literature, in which particular coaching styles are linked to team morale and performance (Turman, 2003).

Nevertheless, sport programmes that rely heavily on coaching interventions to produce results are likely to use empowering approaches to motivate teams (Duda and Appleton, 2016). In connecting team sports to individual empowerment, researchers may miss a step by neglecting to assess the impact of team sports on collective agency, which could be an intermediary or explanatory variable. Young people's experience of collective agency from working in teams is important not only to performance on the sports field or court, but also to any setting that requires group work (e.g., school,

workplace, community organization, governmental institution). Therefore, even though there is a lack of evidence in the literature to support the notion that caring coaches and mentors contribute to children's and young people's collective agency as a group-level variable, this is an important finding in itself, and one deserving of further research.

6.4.4 Sport and community empowerment

Although the idea that participation in sports can lead to community empowerment through young people's **civic engagement** is a fundamental principle behind the concept of S4D, evidence supporting a link between this input and outcome remains sparse. Subsequently, linking participation in sports to civic engagement is one of the fronts on which the S4D field has been criticized for being too evangelical and lacking in evidential substance (Coalter, 2010). In this subsection, civic engagement is discussed first, followed by specific outcomes related to civic engagement that are supported in the literature and which help to answer the question of why sport is important for the involvement of children and young people in community empowerment. Common strategies used to engage children and youth in community empowerment, to show what works for young people's civic engagement and community empowerment are summarised in a theory of change indicating the link between inputs, processes, outputs and outcomes.

6.4.4.1 Civic engagement

In this report, civic engagement refers to the informed, active involvement of children and young people in community life and their participation in public institutions. Civic engagement represents a way for children and young people to contribute not only to their own individual empowerment or that of their sports team/group, but also to the empowerment of their community. A couple of studies reviewed for this chapter show that empowerment-related outcomes such as young people's **critical awareness** of children's rights to education and to protection from child labour, and of the impact of traditional gender norms on young girls' lives can arise from youth participation in sport where critical awareness is part of the sport programme's intentional design (Chawansky and Mitra, 2015; Wamucii, 2012;

see *Chapter 4* on child protection). Additionally, research on at least one programme supports the idea that sports participation can be associated with **community involvement** through enhanced relationships (social connections), increased community participation, increased sense of community and greater partnership among young people and other community members (Halsall and Forneris, 2018).

Drawing from the results of the UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey, four more examples are salient:

■ ChildFund Alliance (Australia) focuses on increasing player learning in the areas of gender, sexual and reproductive health, planning for the future, rights and violence prevention.

■ Youth Environment Service Busia (Uganda) aims to empower youth as community change agents in various ways, one of which is increasing their participation in reporting cases of girl child abuse in the community (see Chapter 5 for more information on relevant child protection studies). They also focuses on improving hygiene practices in communities and organizes activities with Busia Municipal Council to keep communities clean.

■ Oasis, through its Reach for your Dreams initiative (South Africa), is teaching skills of fair play, respect, gender equality and conflict resolution to children aged 6-10 years.

■ Monrovia Football Academy (Liberia) appears to be achieving positive effects in five areas that are predictive of leadership: academic ability, attitudes toward gender, resilience, pride in national identity, and prosocial skills.

Meanwhile, other research on a cross section of youth showed that sports participation was associated with adult networks and social capital, integration with family and linkages to the community (Strachan et al., 2009). Sport involvement has also been linked with increased civic participation (Wamucii, 2012) through youth's involvement in **civil discourse** (e.g., participatory practices that generate dialogue and debate on vital issues affecting youth and wider society) and **participation in public institutions** (e.g., outreach to

local government representatives). A couple of other programmes also targeted civic engagement-related outcomes such as civic and collective participation (Moreau et al., 2014) as well as active citizenship and socio-political participation (Berlin et al., 2007) but reported neither on these outcomes nor on their connection to sports participation.

Systematic reviews have revealed that many sport programmes take place in community contexts, with some researchers even suggesting that communities are a desirable setting for reaping the optimal psychosocial benefits of young people's participation in team sports (Eime et al., 2013). In theory, this should make the link between young people's sports participation and community empowerment through civic engagement even more apparent. According to the principles of experiential learning, however, it is essential that empowering opportunities for young people's participation in communities are integrated into the sport programme's design to strengthen the connection between learning and lived experience.

The literature shows that using sport as a tool for children's and young people's involvement in community empowerment can be approached in one of two ways. The first is through a focus on individual and collective agency within the programme, in the hope that through knowledge transfer, young people can apply these skills in the broader community, as was the case with both the Harlem RBI programme (now known as DREAM) and the DesÉquilibres programme (Berlin et al., 2007; Moreau et al., 2014). The second way is through the direct involvement of community members in young people's sport programmes, and the direct involvement of young people in community issues, as was the case with Right To Play's Promoting Life Skills in Aboriginal Youth (PLAY) programme and the Mathare Youth Sports Association (MYSA) programmes (Halsall and Forneris, 2018; Wamucii, 2012). The literature seems to suggest that the latter approach may potentially be more effective, given that the PLAY and MYSA programmes not only intentionally incorporated civic engagement into the sport model, but also reported youth empowerment outcomes.

Two potentially key strategies were identified in the literature for teaching young people about community empowerment and civic engagement through sport:

partnerships between programme young people and non-programme adults in the community, including parents; and use of participatory approaches.

6.4.4.2 Partnerships between young people and adults

In partnerships between young people and adults, both share the power and responsibility for decisions and for pursuing joint goals together as partners. Because student-coach relationships fall under autonomy-supportive, mastery-oriented, motivational climates, much of the literature on sport and partnerships between young people and adults has already been covered in the subsections on individual empowerment and group empowerment. Intergenerational relationships, however, are a specific type of partnership between young people and adults (Zeldin et al., 2013), associated with empowerment in community settings. According to Zeldin et al. (2005, p. 2), intergenerational partnerships act "as a foundation from which youth can be active agents in their own development, the development of others, and the development of the community." Furthermore, these authors argue that intergenerational relationships serve three main purposes, by facilitating: (1) young people's participation in decisions that affect their lives; (2) positive youth development; and (3) community and civil society development.

Strategies for fostering intergenerational relationships between children/young people and (older) adults include: supporting and respecting young people's voices, particularly when it comes to having a say in programming decisions; paying attention to young people's emotional state by providing a safe environment and caring climate; working with and motivating young people to help them develop skills and achieve goals; and engaging young people as equitable partners in change efforts (Zeldin et al., 2013, 2005). For example, the MYSA programmes took the approach of facilitating youth engagement with influential community members such as local representatives on pertinent social issues (Wamucii, 2012). Meanwhile, the PLAY programme took the approach of explicitly incorporating adults from an Inuit community into programme implementation to act as mentors for youth (Halsall and Forneris, 2018), who benefited in terms of individual empowerment.

6.4.4.3 Participatory approaches

Building strong intergenerational partnerships goes beyond coaches and mentors; responsibility for these relationships – in terms of establishing intentionality of purpose, programme design and roles for young people and adults – also encompasses the sport programme or S4D organization itself. This suggests that participatory approaches, in which adults demonstrate respect for young people's voices in decision-making, should be integrated into the sport programme for youth empowerment to occur (Akiva et al., 2014). For example, a *Child Trends* journal article reported that high school-aged youth in particular were more likely to be motivated to attend structured after-school activities if incentives such as opportunities to lead planning activities were provided (Collins et al., 2008). Additionally, a process evaluation on a leadership and empowerment sport programme for youth showed that a lack of participatory approaches (specifically a lack of participatory action research) resulted in setbacks with M&E results that might otherwise have been avoided had young people been involved in decisions around evaluation and other elements of programme design and implementation (Meir, 2017). Finally, the literature also suggests that meaningful participation (through recognition of status and respect) is critical to the success of sport interventions that specifically hope to target middle and late adolescents (Yeager et al., 2017).

The literature on child participation tends to emphasize shared power between young people and adults. For example, in his seminal work on the 'ladder of child participation', which was commissioned by UNICEF, Hart (1992, p. 12) defined several levels of increasing child participation, with recommendations on how to move past decorative forms of non-participation (e.g., manipulation, tokenism), toward more authentic child participation, such as through the ideal mechanism – "child-initiated shared decisions with adults". Hart (2008) later provided some caveats to his model of participation that are important to note: (1) the ladder was not intended to represent developmental progression; (2) it was not meant to be a comprehensive tool for evaluating programmes; (3) there are certain cultural limitations that may mean the ladder is more relevant to conceptualizations of child participation common in

high-income countries; and (4) the top rung is not intended to symbolize 'children in charge', but rather self-determination in making partnerships with adults. Despite these caveats, the ladder of child participation has continued to be a useful guide for international development organizations and practitioners. More recent work that builds on previous theories (Wong et al., 2010) suggests a typology of youth participation and empowerment (TYPE), which emphasizes that both adult-controlled and youth-controlled environments fall short of true empowerment; instead, true empowerment is represented by pluralistic forms of shared control between young people and adults that ensure both the presence of young people's voices and active participation.

Young people are also not the only beneficiaries of community empowerment through sport. A body of literature in sport on team identification showed that strong identification with teams is associated with psychological benefits at the group or community level. For example, while research with adolescents showed a positive association between team identification and satisfaction with social life (Wann et al., 2015), research with adults in the United States showed that identification with their local high school's football team was associated with their greater collective self-esteem and community identification (Reding et al., 2011) although it is important to note the culture of sport within the United States. Additionally, in the PLAY programme for Inuit youth, the community mentors also benefited from skills development and the community as a whole benefited from enhanced relationships (social connections), increased community participation, increased sense of community and greater partnership among community members, suggesting as well an increase in their social capital (Halsall and Forneris, 2018). In addition, parents involved in the Craque do Amanhā programme also benefited, as they reported improved family relationships (Muller Mariano and Pereira da Silva Filho, 2015).

6.4.4.4 Family involvement

Evidence shows that families can be a deterrent to young people's participation in sports (Chawansky and Mitra, 2015; Kay and Spaaij, 2012). For participatory approaches

to rise to the level of community empowerment, however, family and community members should be included to extend the network of support for children and young people. Research on the Craque do Amanhā programme, which intentionally reached out to parents of children and youth involved in the sport initiatives, showed positive empowerment-related results, not only from the perspective of child participants, but also from the perspective of parents and adult leaders (Muller Mariano and Pereira da Silva Filho, 2015).

6.4.5 What are the challenges to achieving empowerment through sport?

Based on the literature review, certain key challenges to using sport as a context for children's and young people's empowerment were identified (*see Figure 6.2*). These challenges include the predominance of both the deficit model of development and, adult-centric beliefs about children's needs, which can hinder empowerment efforts. Additionally, to improve their effectiveness and the quality of evidence on their use, sport programmes should enhance their intentionality of purpose when designing interventions, while the S4D field as a whole needs to improve the definition and measurement of empowerment. Each of these concepts is explored in more detail in the following subsections.

6.4.5.1 Deficit model of human and social development

A deficit model approach to human and social development assumes that the problems faced by vulnerable children and young people and wider society are inherent in the individuals. This fails to acknowledge the impact of surrounding systems and conditions. As a result, the focus becomes how to fix the individual rather than how to build strengths and capacities. However, research shows that a strengths-based approach which focuses on the surrounding systems and conditions rather than deficit-model approach to youth development is positively associated with empowerment (Whitley and Gould, 2011). S4D organizations have been criticized for tending to adopt a deficit model approach to issues of both human and social development (Coakley, 2011; Coalter, 2007a, 2010; Hayhurst, 2013).

In some ways, the deficit model of development is antithetical to empowerment. Empowerment assumes

Figure 6.2 Challenges to achieving children's and young people's empowerment through sport

Deficit model	Thinking of human and social development in terms of deficiencies of the individual, group or society that need to be fixed, and therefore placing the responsibility of power and agency with external actors
Adultism	Adult-centric beliefs, which are sometimes supported by traditional cultural beliefs and norms, can suppress youth empowerment and sport participation
Intentional design	In order to obtain empowerment outcomes, programs must use empowerment processes; however, this can be challenging when there is a disconnect between targeted outcomes and programming strategies
Definition and measurement of empowerment	Difficulties in defining empowerment make it difficult to measure outcomes and antecedents associated with empowerment, therefore hindering the ability to scale up effective programs

Source: UNICEF Office of Research – Innocenti, 2019.

agency and self-determination of individuals, groups and communities to effect change and affect systems. Meanwhile, the deficit model assumes that the power to effect change lies with external agents tasked with fixing individuals, groups and communities so that they meet with externally imposed standards. If sports coaches and mentors view children and young people as problems to be fixed, they may be more inclined to exert control over their behaviour than to support their autonomy in making decisions. Similarly, if S4D agencies working in low- and middle-income countries view the communities in which they operate as problems to be fixed, they may be less inclined to use participatory approaches or culturally relevant pedagogies, choosing instead prescriptive curricula designed to meet the needs of populations in

high-income countries. There is a need to move past the deficit model of human and social development in order to realize empowerment outcomes for children and young people in sport.

6.4.5.2 Adultism

Adultism is a form of discrimination based on age that favours adult-centric views of the world, which downplay the importance of children's and young people's empowerment and meaningful participation in society (Bell, 1995; Flasher, 1978). In many ways, adultism is diametrically opposed to the autonomy-supportive coaching style that many studies positively associated with individual empowerment of children and young people in sport. Sometimes, adult-centric views may

even be culturally sanctioned and intersect with other traditional beliefs. For example, one study showed that parents' devaluing of education and sport, and lack of active involvement in their children's lives was associated with resistance to child and youth participation in sport (Kay and Spaaij, 2012). Similarly, another study showed that family values, such as conscription to traditional gender norms, can restrict young girls' participation in sport (Chawansky and Mitra, 2015). However, the literature review included a study of one programme, which showed that improved family relationships and improved behaviour at home resulted from youth participation in sport (Muller Mariano and Pereira da Silva Filho, 2015). This suggests that sports participation organisations may help to address some of challenges faced in relation to family involvement in sport programmes.

Empowerment of children and young people can pose some risks due their increased participation in public life. While awareness of risks is warranted, and steps should be taken to minimize risks where possible, some risk-taking represents a productive form of development, especially during adolescence (Moreau et al., 2014). Rather than shield young people from all risks associated with participation, it may be better to give them the tools to successfully navigate those risks and reap the benefits of empowerment. Nevertheless, there is also a need to remain sensitive to historical, political and cultural values that influence varying conceptualizations of the social acceptability of children's and young people's participation in particular contexts (Hart, 2008; Skelton, 2007). It is imperative that empowerment processes promote positive youth development, not only for the sake of individual children and young people, but also for the benefit of the wider community or society, which serves as a context for sustainable development (Coakley, 2011; Lerner, 2015).

6.4.5.3 Intentional design

Sport programmes that are intentionally designed to meet the objectives of children's and young people's empowerment may be more likely to achieve desired outcomes. Simply put, to achieve empowerment outcomes, one must use empowerment processes (Zimmerman, 1995) which can be outlined in a theory of change approach. For example, if a programme aims to teach young people leadership and responsibility but fails to provide them with real opportunities for responsible leadership, then it may be unsuccessful in achieving empowerment outcomes. The intention behind the programme's design should be evidence-based, however, and therein lies the challenge. According to the theory of developmental intentionality , the most effective youth programmes possess three characteristic traits: (1) sustained emphasis on "shaping learning opportunities rather than shaping youth themselves" to achieve developmental outcomes; (2) active and collaborative involvement of youth in their own learning; and (3) socialization of youth to the benefits of participation in group settings, which can enhance the programme's goodness of fit and youth's motivational engagement (Walker, Marczak, Blyth and Borden, 2005, p. 400). Evident in this theoretical model is the minimal requirement that programming decisions are grounded in a deep understanding of the developmental processes that affect learning and that this knowledge is used to design programmes in a way that maximizes their impact.

Across the S4D initiatives reviewed for this chapter, a broad range of sport activities were incorporated into programme designs, though most programmes could be characterized as sport-plus and plus-sport formats (Coalter, 2007b) generally involving local schools and/or communities in some way. The popularity of these sport models among S4D initiatives converges with research evidence in this review that also suggests that young people in programmes which combine sport activities with other extra-curricular activities report greater empowerment outcomes than young people in programmes with only sport activities or no extra-curricular activities (Forneris et al., 2015). This is just one example of evidence arising from the sport literature that can be used for intentionally designing sport programmes for children's and young people's empowerment.[2]

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[2] The UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey showed a broad range of objectives and goals among S4D programmes initiatives identified as empowerment- focused, including gender equality, education outcomes, social inclusion, health and well-being, and wellbeing, community involvement.

6.4.5.4 Definition and measurement of empowerment

The ways in which sport initiatives defined children's and young people's empowerment were wide-ranging and encompassed a longlist of outcomes best defined as 'empowerment-related' (see Annex 6.B). This poses a challenge to systematic estimation of the impact of sport on children's and young people's empowerment – as differing definitions and reporting styles across organizations make for non-comparable measures and data.

A few different psychometric scales emerged as common measures in the quantitative research literature: the Youth Experience Survey, also known as YES (Hansen and Larson, 2005); Youth Experience Survey for Sport (YES-S), a sport-specific version of the aforementioned survey (MacDonald et al., 2012); the Self-Determination Scale (Ryan and Deci, 2000) which is now known as the Perceived Choice and Awareness of Self Scale (PCASS); and the Developmental Assets Profile (Search Institute, 2018). These measures show that sports participation is associated with children's and youth's empowerment through development of personal and social skills, and positive experiences in goal-setting and using initiative, as well as access to relational and social support. Additionally, Moore and Fry (2014) created a measure of ownership and empowerment in sport, but that instrument has thus far only been validated using a college sample.

Qualitative research, used in approximately 60 per cent of the articles reviewed, could benefit from better consistency in reporting standards after review of the literature. For example, omission of information about the sample (e.g., size, gender, age, general location) sometimes made it difficult to synthesize information in the literature to evaluate which groups benefit most from sport interventions focused on empowerment. The same can be said about the quantitative literature as it pertains to standards for reporting about the programme being studied: It was difficult to assess programme effectiveness when details – components of a theory of change – were omitted such as the scope of the programme's outreach to participants, and sometimes the processes undertaken by the programme that may help to explain outcomes, when not included among details, made it difficult to assess programme effectiveness.

Individual empowerment in sport was the most well studied type of empowerment among the literature reviewed for this chapter. Two different types of disparities were noted for group and community empowerment. First, conceptualizing group empowerment as collective agency would suggest measurement of empowerment at the group level although possibly using relevant measures for social capital could be a start. Empowerment-related outcomes in the literature were almost always measured at the individual level, with very few studies employing multi-level models to examine child and youth empowerment in sport (Schaillée et al., 2017). Second, few studies measured or reported on the psychosocial outcomes related to civic engagement. For example, the DesÉquilibres programme in Montréal, Canada, listed civic and collective participation as a major aim, but research on this programme listed only outcomes associated with self-determination and collective agency. Sport programmes may not measure civic engagement because it is a behavioural outcome and changing behaviours can be difficult to achieve and measure, thus making it more difficult to demonstrate the connection between sports participation and community empowerment anticipated by many S4D programmes.

In this chapter, empowerment in sports settings is conceptualized as children's and young people's experiences of self-determination, collective agency and civic engagement, through the use of participatory approaches that respect and lift up the voices of young people and contributions in order to promote skills development and teamwork with support from caring coaches, mentors, peers, family members and adult partners within communities. This definition aims to distil a number of otherwise disparate psychosocial factors into three overarching empowerment outcomes at the individual, group and community level, namely self-determination, collective agency and civic engagement respectively. This approach could be a useful step toward developing a standard definition for children's and young people's empowerment through sport, with implications for measurement.

Figure 6.3 Theory of Change on Sport for Empowerment

Challenges
Existing negative social perceptions of children and young people; deficit model approach; adultism; difficulty measuring empowerment

Assumptions	
S4D programmes which are designed to promote self-determination, collective agency and positive relationships can achieve empowerment outcomes	Sense of individual and group empowerment acquired through sport can translate to community contexts

Inputs				
Participatory programme design with children, young people and community	Trained coaches and mentors who can build relationship with children and young people	Clearly defined team goals	Evidence-based experiential learning models (e.g., TPSR)	Autonomy-supportive, mastery-oriented climate (including coaches trained to deliver this model)

Strategies, processes and activities							
Participatory approaches	Caring relationships, mentoring and young people-adult partnerships	Team sports	Healthy competition at sporting events	Support to master sport and social skills	Leadership roles, positive peer collaboration and civic engagement opportunities	Parental and community engagement	Penalization of aggressive behaviour Connecting young people and families to community resources and support services

Outputs				
Young people's skill development and mastery	Enjoyment of team work	Increased number of young people in leadership positions	Increase in collaborative community engagement through programming stages	Increase in young people with experience working in teams to set and achieve goals

Outcomes			
Development of perceived self-efficacy and self-determination	Perceived social support and quality relationships	Expansion of young people's societal networks (bridging and linking social capital)	Achievement of societal change goals

Impact on SDGs					
SDG 1/Target 1.5: build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations	SDG 5: Gender equality	SDG 8: Decent work and economic growth	SDG 10: Reduced inequalities	SDG 11: Sustainable cities and communities	SDG 16: Peace, justice and strong institutions

6.5 Conclusion and recommendations

Using sport as a tool to promote children's and young people's empowerment is not without its challenges, and several general recommendations for overcoming some of the challenges in regard to S4D practice, research and policy are made below and then specified for each of the three levels of empowerment – individual, group and community. A summary of key recommendations, including inputs and strategies identified in the literature, is summarised in a theory of change which can contribute to the intentional design of empowerment-focused S4D initiatives for children and young people (*see Figure 6.3*). The theory of change is a preliminary framework to be reviewed, modified and contextualised with future research.

Combined strategies could potentially help in achieving evidence-informed intentional design, which is a sometimes elusive, yet critical, feature of empowering settings (Walker et al., 2005). This means that to overcome some of the shortcomings of designing S4D programmes based on a deficit model of human and social development, programme practitioners can use a strengths-based approach, which provides a better fit with child and youth empowerment (Camiré et al., 2011; Coakley, 2011; Holt and Neely, 2011; Larson, 2000; Lerner, 2015). Similarly, to overcome adultism, practitioners can use participatory approaches and partnerships between adults and young people (Zeldin et al., 2013, 2005). One caveat, though, is that intentional design should not be construed in a manner so rigid that it hinders support for young people's autonomy, agency and voice – in fact, to do so would defy the evidence that part of the reason for organized activities being effective in promoting empowerment is the 'just right' amount of structure they offer, which is greater than in leisure time activities but considerably less than in formal classroom settings (Larson et al., 2006).

Practitioners and policymakers should focus on the development of M&E frameworks and measurement tools based on agreed theories of change. They should also consider with similar importance setting standards for reporting on research related to S4D initiatives – so that evidence is comparable across programmes, regions and types of literature. This would make it easier to synthesize

S4D programme research in ways that facilitate the translation of knowledge into policy and practice.

Furthermore, integration of programme design and M&E systems, assisted by a theory of change, is required and needed, but knowledge of cultural considerations regarding varying conceptualizations of children's and young people's empowerment and participation is also important to enhance the relevance, validity and practical utility of research results (Hart, 2008; Meir, 2017; Skelton, 2007). Thus, there is clearly a need for M&E systems to better assess the relationship between S4D and outcomes (Coalter, 2006), including empowerment, including alignment with impact assessments and evaluations. However, this should first be informed by a better definition of children's and young people's empowerment in sport. It seems necessary to move beyond the indicator approach of evaluation and measurement to include psychometric scales, because children's and young people's empowerment in sports settings is a complex, multifaceted latent psychosocial variable. Therefore, assessing sport's impact on individual, group and community empowerment may require equally complex multi-level models and analyses that reflect the nested nature of data related to sport and young people's empowerment (young people are nested in teams/ programmes, which are in turn nested in communities).

The theory of change provides a preliminary framework of programme design for child-focused S4D initiatives, and it also provides specific recommendations for the three types of empowerment: individual, group and community. Each of the recommendations below form part of the specific components of the theory of change (*see Figure 6.3*) which were highlighted in the literature review on child-focused S4D initiatives aiming to achieve empowerment outcomes.

6.5.1 Recommendations for individual and group empowerment through sport

Given that individual empowerment and group empowerment are closely linked in the literature, with strategies for group empowerment closely associated with individual empowerment outcomes, recommendations for practice in sport for both levels of empowerment are discussed in unison below:

Train coaches and mentors

Given the degree of importance assigned to the relationships between children/young people and sports coaches/mentors, a key recommendation is to train adult leaders of sport programmes in providing autonomy-supportive, mastery-oriented, motivational climates for skills development, as noted in the literature. A few articles provided evidence-based suggestions of how to enhance coaching relationships to optimize children's and young people's individual empowerment and related outcomes, for example, through coaches expressing interest in young people's input, praising young people for autonomous behaviour and using supportive instruction that emphasizes affiliation in the coach-athlete relationship rather than control or blame (Almagro et al., 2010; Conroy and Coatsworth, 2007). Meanwhile, the Empowering Coaching method, which is designed to help coaches maximise the motivational climate to make sport more enjoyable and engaging, was evaluated as part of the Promoting Adolescent Physical Activity (PAPA) programme, which works with grassroots football organizations in Europe (Duda and Appleton, 2016). Evidence suggests that the coach training programme supports sustained engagement in sport for girls and boys aged 10-14 years at varying levels of specialization. This and other evidence-based coach training programmes can possibly enhance coaches' and mentors' preparedness to support children's and young people's individual and group empowerment in sports.

Use evidence-based experiential learning models

Depending on the specific empowerment-related skills that a sport programme is aiming to develop, various evidence-based experiential learning models can potentially be used to support programme implementation. For example, some sport-plus and plus-sport programmes may focus on building children's and young people's resilience and socio-emotional skills. The Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) provides useful information, guidelines and evidence on teaching socio-emotional skills that align with empowerment-related outcomes such as goal-setting, expressive communication and responsibility (Payton et al., 2000), which may be of interest to practitioners looking to use sport as a tool for individual

and group empowerment. Meanwhile, sport-specific evidence-based interventions such as the TPSR model and the SUPER programme model may also be useful for individual and group empowerment, by helping young people to develop life skills and a sense of responsibility – both of which are hallmarks of good citizenship (DeBate et al., 2009; Goudas and Giannoudis, 2008; Hellison, 2003) (*see Box 6.4*).

Set high expectations for individual achievement

Part of setting the tone of the motivational climate and supporting experiential learning is to set high expectations for young people or to guide them so they can set high standards for themselves. Thus, they remain engaged and feel empowered and motivated to do their best. Deliberate practise to master skills and the display of these skills at competitive sporting events can connect young people with an intrinsic sense of power and control and build their confidence and self-determination as well as their perceived self-efficacy.

Establish clearly defined team goals

It is important to have goals to work toward together as a team to reinforce the group's collective agency. These can vary from sport-based, mastery-oriented team goals such as beating the team's personal best score from last season, or relational goals such as supporting one another in efforts to gather resources and raise funds for team uniforms, transport for away games or new equipment. Tying these joint efforts to achieve goals to the context of team sports can help bonds to develop among peers and between children and young people and adult leaders such as coaches and mentors.

6.5.2 Recommendations for community empowerment through sport

Many of the recommendations for individual empowerment and group empowerment also apply to community empowerment, but sport programmes should also include additional intentional features to make explicit the connection between sport and young people's civic engagement using participatory approaches and by building intergenerational ties. These recommendations for practice in sport for community empowerment are presented and summarized below.

Establish advisory boards

Intentional efforts such as setting up advisory boards to elicit the participation of young people and community stakeholders may go a long way toward young people's empowerment through sport and toward building intergenerational partnerships. Various advisory boards can be set up for groups representing the interests of young people, family and community members and cross-sector systems to meet and talk together regularly. Young people's advisory boards for S4D initiatives as well as for other institutional structures are a meaningful way to cultivate their voices and participation, not only in programming decisions, but also in debating social issues that affect their lives and in advocating for changes that address issues of social justice and equality. Advisory boards for S4D initiatives comprising parents and other community members can be involved in various stages of programme design, implementation and evaluation, either indirectly through consultations or more actively as trained coaches, volunteer mentors or trained evaluators. Finally, cross-sector systems advisory boards can be useful in pooling resources to provide additional support and wrap-around services for sport programmes serving vulnerable young people. These advisory boards can empower young people to become directly involved in the community and also get the community directly involved in young people's empowerment efforts, thereby expanding young people's networks of social support.

Clearly define targets for social change

To make advisory boards effective and maximize young people's civic engagement, they should work toward agreed clearly defined targets for social change; even more importantly, these advisory boards should be empowered to set their own goals and educated in the process of critical analysis of social issues to help with problem identification and contribute to a theory of change. One systematic way to achieve this is to involve advisory board members, especially young people, in participatory action research such as in activities related to M&E or through photovoice, a technique which engages young people to take photographs and to actively construct their narrative – their participation in the research and improvement of S4D initiatives – rather than only being the subject. Such participatory techniques have the potential to positively contribute to sustainable programme and community development when implemented effectively. Finally, the activities and accomplishments of advisory boards involved with youth sport programmes should be widely publicized in community campaigns and events (e.g., friendly games, competitive tournaments). Using this form of recognition can help to maintain high levels of engagement.

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Annex 6.A Summary of literature with empowerment outcomes

	Study information			nProgram design/delivery method			
Citation	**Study method**	**Sample**	**What sports were used?**	**How were sports used?**	**Where?**	**For whom?**	
Akiva, Cortina and Smith (2014)	QT	▲ n=979 (53% female)	Not specified	Participatory approaches: youth participation in programming decisions	United States (four states, unnamed)	Youth; youth in after-school programmes	
Bean, Forneris and Halsall (2014)	QL	▲,◎ Participants: n=10 (aged 10-14 years) Programme leaders: n=5 (aged 21-46 years)	Kick-boxing, lacrosse, volleyball, basketball, dance, skating, yoga, swimming, walking	Evaluates Girls Just Wanna Have Fun programme; TPSR model; cooperative games for communication, teamwork, confidence, seeking help, leadership, goals	Eastern Ontario, Canada	Girls	
Berlin, Dworkin, Eames, Menconi and Perkins (2007)	QL	☑ n= 4 (aged 7-18 years)	Baseball, softball	Harlem RBI programme for resilience, health (physical and mental), risk reduction, education, job skills, relationships, participation, etc.	East Harlem, New York, United States	Inner city youth	
Chawansky and Mitra (2015)	QL	▲ n=14 (aged 13-16 years; 100% female)	Netball	Programme used Women Win model in after-school programme; examines how family matters support or constrict participation	Delhi, India	Girls	
Forneris, Camiré and Williamson (2015)	QT	▲ n=329 (57% female)	Not specified	Impact of extra-curricular activities on developmental outcomes and school engagement	Ontario, Canada	High school students	
Gould, Flett and Lauer (2012)	QT	▲ n= 239 (64% male)	Baseball, softball	Sport to teach life skills; examines leagues for association among coaching climate, developmental outcomes and reported gains	Detroit, Michigan, United States	Middle and high school students	
Halsall and Forneris (2018)	QL	▲,◇ n=22	Not specified	Sport for positive youth development and youth leadership; perceived impact of the Promoting Life Skills in Aboriginal Youth (PLAY) programme	Ontario, Canada	First Nation, Métis and Inuit youth	

What are the results?																	
Inclusion			Empowerment						Education	Child protection				Health and well-being			Other
Sense of belonging	Increased inclusion	Change in perceptions	Empowerment, self-determination, agency	Social capital	Cultural capital	Skill development	Engagement	Motivation, initiative, goal-setting	Education (general)	Security, safe space	Reduced violence; conflict resolution	Bystander behaviour	Decreased drug/alcohol use	Health and well-being (general)	Increased sport/activity	Psychosocial benefits	Other
						+		+									Empathy
																	Relational time; youth voice; leadership opportunities
			+					+									
																	Critical awareness of gender stereotypes; perceived familial support
+			+	+					+								Positive values; (education = commitment to learning)
+	+		+					+									Physical skills; positive peer influences; other factors involved climate (caring) and youth characteristics
			+	+		+	+		+							+	Personal and community development; community included participation, sense of community, greater partnerships

Study Method		Study Participants/Sample			
Symbol	Meaning	Symbol	Meaning	Symbol	Meaning
QL	Qualitave	●	practitioners (volunteer or professional)	◎	project leader/office
QT	Quantitative	▲	participants	▷	Parents
MM	Mixed Methods	◇	Community members (not practitioners)	☑	Program
Op	Opinion Paper	◧	other professionals (e.g., multicultural workers)	▨	Other program partners or stakeholders
n/a	Not applicable	◈	community leaders		

Study information			Program design/delivery method			
Citation	Study method	Sample	What sports were used?	How were sports used?	Where?	For whom?
Hammond-Diedrich and Walsh (2006)	QL	▲ *n*=8 (youth leaders aged 11-15 years)	Physical activity	Urban Youth Leaders programme to promote leadership and responsibility; teaching physical and social responsibility (TPSR) model	Illinois, United States	Youth, youth leaders
Hayhurst (2013)	QL	●,▲ Participants: *n*=8 (100% female) Practitioners: *n*=11	Martial arts	Examines experiences in sport, gender, and development programme for empowerment (to improve health, education, self-respect and gender relations); self-defence; training as coaches	Winita, Uganda	Girls
Hemphill, Janke, Gordon and Farrar (2018)	QL	● *n*=36 (58% male)	Not specified	Examines practitioners' strategies; development of sport-based positive youth development model; conflict resolution using the TPSR model and restorative justice practices	Wellington, New Zealand	Youth
Kay and Spaaij (2012)	QL	●,▲ *n*=181 individual and focus group interviews across all three studies *n*=157 surveys from Vencer study, Brazil (unit of analysis = secondary data sources)	Not specified	Multiple programmes; examine influence of family context on participation in sport; promote HIV/AIDS awareness	Lusaka, Zambia; Rio de Janeiro, Brazil; Aali Gaon, India	Girls, disaffected youth, youth
MacDonald, Côté, Eys and Deakin (2011)	QT	▲ *n*=510 (aged 9-19 years, 52.5% female)	Multiple sports	Examines association of motivation and enjoyment in sport with positive and negative experiences; sport as a motivational climate for skills development, teamwork	Ontario, Canada	Young athletes
MacDonald, Côté, Eys and Deakin (2012)	QT	▲ *n*=637 (aged 9-10 years; 52.3% male)	Multiple sports	Youth Experience Survey for Sport (YES-S); what youth are learning/skills developed in sport	Ontario, Canada	Young athletes
Meir (2017)	QL	●,▲,◎,☑ Coach educators' programme: *n*=20 Youth leadership programme: *n*=25	Netball, table tennis, volleyball, football, rugby	Examines Leadership and Empowerment through Sport (LETS) programme for issues, possible reasons and solutions	Cape Town, South Africa	Youth
Moore and Fry (2014)	QL	▲ *n*=414 (*m*age = 21.25 years; 63% female)	Aerobics, weight training	College exercise classes; test validity of measure of ownership and empowerment in sport	Midwest region, United States	College students
Moreau et al. (2014)	QL	▲ *n*=9 (x=17.6 years old; 66.7% female)	Walking, hiking	DesÉquilibres programme for civic and collective participation, cooperation, engagement with challenge; risk as rite of passage and identity building tool	Montréal, Canada	Youth

| | **What are the results?** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | **Inclusion** | | | **Empowerment** | | | | | | **Education** | **Child protection** | | | | **Health and well-being** | | | **Other** |
	Sense of belonging	Increased inclusion	Change in perceptions	Empowerment, self-determination, agency	Social capital	Cultural capital	Skill development	Engagement	Motivation, initiative, goal-setting.	Education (general)	Security, safe space	Reduced violence; conflict resolution	Bystander behaviour	Decreased drug/alcohol use	Health and well-being (general)	Increased sport/activity	Psychosocial benefits	Other
					+	+	+										+	Positive behaviour/attitudes; future orientation; empathy
				+			+										+	Self-defence skills; employment training; subversive agency; resistance
																		Not applicable; conceptual framework
										+						+		
									+									
					+				+									
																		Not specified; more focused on challenges
				+														Caring motivational climate and mastery goal orientation positively associated with ownership
	+				+		+										+	Individual and group outcomes

Study information			Program design/delivery method				
Citation	**Study method**	**Sample**	**What sports were used?**	**How were sports used?**	**Where?**	**For whom?**	
Muller Mariano and Pereira da Silva Filho (2015)	QL	▲,♪,◎ Participants: *n*=28 (aged 9-18 years) Parents/guardians and stakeholders: *n*=15	Football	Craque do Amanhã programme for football training, health and nutrition, educational values, building emotional ties, and empowerment	São Gonçalo, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil	Children, youth	
Peacock-Villada, DeCelles and Banda (2007)	MM	●,▲ Participants: *n*=670 (520 in Zambia, 150 in South Africa) Practitioners: *n*=20	Football	Grassroot Soccer (GRS) programme; sport for resilience, life skills, social support, HIV/AIDS education	Lusaka, Zambia; Johannesburg, South Africa	Youth	
Rachele, Jaakkola, Washington, Cuddihy and McPhail (2015)	QT	▲ *n*=272 (aged 12-15 years, 65% female)	Physical activity	Examines effect of autonomy on levels of physical activity	Brisbane, Australia	Students	
Schaillée, Theeboom and Van Cauwenberg (2015)	QT	▲ *n*=200 (aged 10–24 years, 100% female)	Urban dance, martial arts	Examines relationship between peer group composition and positive youth development	Flanders, Belgium	Disadvantaged young women	
Schaillée, Theeboom and Van Cauwenberg (2017)	QT	▲ *n*=200 (from 15 programmes)	Urban dance, martial arts	Determine relationship between coach- and peer-created motivational climates and positive/negative experiences	Flanders, Belgium	Girls	
Strachan, Côté and Deakin (2009)	QT	▲ *n*=74 (aged 12-16 years)	Swimming, diving, gymnastics	Developmental sports participation model: 'sampler' vs 'specializer' participation in sport	Manitoba and Ontario, Canada	Young athletes	
Tadesse, Asmamaw, Mariam and Mack (2018)	QT	▲ *n*=257 (x̄ = 17.6 years old; 52.5% male)	Not specified	Sports academies; examines validity of culturally tailored measures of self-determination, self-regulation and engagement in sport	Ethiopia	Student athletes	
Wamucii (2012)	QL	Unknown	Football	Examines Mathare Youth Sports Association (MYSA) programmes for leadership, skills development, and job access	Mathare, Kenya	Youth	
Whitley, Hayden and Gould (2016)	QL	●,▲,◇ Coaches: *n*=10 Participants: *n*=19 (aged 10-20 years, 58% female) Community members: *n*=11	Football, mountain biking, netball, bicycle motocross (BMX), running	Examines existing sports culture; sport for developing competencies	Kayamandi township, South Africa	Young people	

	Inclusion			Empowerment						Education	Child protection				Health and well-being			Other
What are the results?	Sense of belonging	Increased inclusion	Change in perceptions	Empowerment, self-determination, agency	Social capital	Cultural capital	Skill development	Engagement	Motivation, initiative, goal-setting.	Education (general)	Security, safe space	Reduced violence; conflict resolution	Bystander behaviour	Decreased drug/alcohol use	Health and well-being (general)	Increased sport/activity	Psychosocial benefits	Other
	+			+	+	+	+			+	+							Positive behaviour; external use/appropriation of activities in other spaces; improved family relationships
				+														
																		None (negative associations with perceived autonomy and physical activity)
				+	+		+		+									
					+		+		+									Individual and team benefits; mastery-oriented motivational climate important; negative experiences higher for youth from non-intact families
	+	+			+													Integration with community
				+				+										Self-regulation
				+				+										Critical consciousness; (engagement = civic participation)
	+								+									Generation of *ubuntu* (respect and caring for others); positive self-concept; creativity; technical skills; self-regulation

Annex 6.B Defining the empowerment of individuals, groups and communities through sport

Type of empowerment	Anticipated benefits of empowerment through sport	Associated outcomes in the literature	Brief description
Individual	**Self-determination:** A form of optimal intrinsic motivation that arises from the satisfaction of basic psychological needs: autonomy, relatedness and competence	Autonomy	Thinking and making one's own choices
		Perceived control	Belief that one can influence the outcome of events
		Self-regulation	Managing thoughts, emotions and actions for goal achievement
		Initiative	Engaging in goal-setting, planning and effort to accomplish tasks
		Competence	Ability to perform a task well
		Confidence	Belief and assurance in one's competence
		Self-efficacy	Perception of one's own ability to succeed at a task
		Self-esteem	The level of regard that one has for oneself
		Self-worth	The value ascribed to one's self-concept
		Relatedness	Development and maintenance of quality relationships
Group	**Collective agency:** Thinking, doing and acting together as a group to achieve shared or common goals	Leadership	Assuming responsibility for others, and for making decisions that affect achievements
		Responsible decision-making	Making sustainable choices in the best interests of others
		Perceived social support	Belief that others care about one's life experiences, to which they are willing to make positive contributions
		Quality relationships	Healthy, positive interactions with others over time
		Resourcefulness	Ability to source, pool, manage and direct resources needed to achieve goals
Community	**Civic engagement:** Informed, active involvement with community life and participation in public institutions	Critical awareness	Knowledge and analysis of social issues
		Community involvement	Meaningful participation in community organizations and events
		Public and institutional participation	Visible engagement with public institutions to bring about change
		Civil discourse	Honest and respectful debate that engages opposing views on socio-political and socio-economic issues

Source: : UNICEF Office of Research – Innocenti (2018). Based on review of the literature on empowerment and sports.

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