



**UNIVERSITY OF
STIRLING**

**Sport-for-development impact
study**

**A research initiative funded by Comic
Relief and UK Sport and managed by
International Development through Sport**

Prof Fred Coalter
with John Taylor

Department of Sports Studies
University of Stirling
STIRLING
FK9 4LA

October 2010

CONTENTS	i
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY	vii
INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER 1: THE ORGANISATIONS	5
1.1 Magic Bus, Mumbai, India	5
1.2 Praajak and Railway Children, Kolkata, India.....	6
1.3 Elimu, Michezo na Mazoezi (EMIMA), Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania	8
1.4 Kamwokya Christian Caring Community (KCCC), Kampala, Uganda	10
1.5 Kids' League, Gulu, Uganda	13
1.6 Sport Coaches Outreach (SCORE), South Africa	13
1.7 Plus Sport or Sport Plus?	15
CHAPTER 2: METHODOLOGICAL AND CONCEPTUAL ISSUES	17
2.1 Understanding programmes and outcomes	17
2.2 Defining the outcomes	18
2.3 Components of personal development	19
2.3.1 Introduction	19
2.3.2 Self-efficacy beliefs.....	19
2.3.3 Sport and self-efficacy	20
2.3.4 Measuring self-efficacy	20
2.3.5 Issues to consider about perceived self-efficacy	21
2.3.6 Self-esteem	21
2.3.7 Why self-esteem?	22
2.3.8 Age and development	23
2.4 What do we assume about participants?	23
2.5 Social desirability bias	24
2.6 Issues of meaning and interpretation	25
2.7 Necessary and sufficient conditions	25
2.8 Why surveys?	26
2.9 The types of surveys	27
CHAPTER 3: SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS.....	29
3.1 Introduction	29
3.2 Analysis	30
3.2.1 Participants and non-participants	30
3.2.2 The before and after surveys	31
3.3 Implications	33

CHAPTER 4: SELF-ESTEEM	35
4.1 Introduction	35
4.2 Analysis	36
4.2.1 Participants and non-participants	36
4.2.2 The before and after surveys	36
4.3 Implications	39
 CHAPTER 5: RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SELF-EFFICACY AND SELF-ESTEEM.....	 43
5.1 Introduction	43
5.2 The strength of relationships	43
5.2.1 The approach	43
5.2.2 Kids' League	44
5.2.3 EMIMA	45
5.2.4 Magic Bus Voyagers	45
5.3 Conclusions	45
 CHAPTER 6: GENDER ATTITUDES	 47
6.1 Introduction	47
6.1.1 Values and interpretation	47
6.2 Analysis	48
6.2.1 Participants and non-participants	48
6.2.2 Conclusions	51
6.3 Before and after surveys	52
6.3.1 Kids' League	52
6.3.2 KCCC	54
6.3.3 Magic Bus Voyagers	54
6.3.4 EMIMA	55
6.3.5 Gender and sport: conclusions	56
6.4 Women's domestic and social roles	56
6.4.1 Kids' League	56
6.4.2 KCCC	58
6.4.3 EMIMA	59
6.4.4 Magic Bus Voyagers	60
6.4.5 Self-efficacy and attitudes	61
6.4.6 Conclusions	61

CHAPTER 7: HIV AND AIDS	65
7.1 Introduction	65
7.2 Participants and non-participants	65
7.2.1 Participants and non-participants	65
7.2.2 EMIMA and non-EMIMA	66
7.2.3 KCCC	68
7.2.3 Conclusions	70
7.3 EMIMA: The before and after survey	70
7.3.1 Introduction	70
7.4 Conclusions	73
 CHAPTER 8: PEER LEADERS	 75
8.1 Introduction	75
8.2 Magic Bus Peer Leaders	75
8.2.1 Introduction	75
8.2.2 Perceived self-efficacy	75
8.2.3 Self-esteem	77
8.2.4 Sporting ethics	78
8.2.5 Gender attitudes	80
8.2.6 Conclusions	80
8.3 SCORE: Community Sports Leaders	81
8.3.1 Introduction	81
8.3.2 Comments on context	81
8.3.3 Reasons for joining	83
8.3.4 Perceived impact of the training	83
8.3.5 HIV and AIDS	84
8.3.6 Sporting skills	86
8.3.7 Personal experience and practice	86
8.3.8 Implementation	86
8.4 Conclusions	87

CHAPTER 9: CONCLUSIONS 91

9.1	Introduction	91
9.2	The impact of the programmes on personal development	91
9.3	Re-evaluating the deficit model	93
9.4	The impact of the programme on attitudes	94
9.5	Peer leaders	96
9.6	Good practice	97
9.7	Developing organisations' M&E methodology.....	99
9.8	The way forward	100
9.8.1	What development is implied by sport-for-development?.....	100
9.8.2	Programme theory and theory-based evaluation.....	101

REFERENCES 103

APPENDICIES

Appendix 1: The research process	105
Appendix 2: Project outlines	109
Appendix 3: Self-efficacy scale	115
Appendix 4: Rosenberg self-esteem scale	117
Appendix 5: Technical Appendix	119
Appendix 6: Participant / non-participant self-efficacy.....	121
Appendix 7: Before and after self-efficacy.....	123
Appendix 8: Scattergram diagrams for self-efficacy	127
Appendix 9: Participant / non-participant self-esteem.....	129
Appendix 10: Before and after self-esteem	131
Appendix 11: Scattergram diagrams for self-esteem.....	135
Appendix 12: Magic Bus Peer Leaders	139

TABLES

Table 1: Issues addressed in surveys	18
Table 2: Main sources of information about HIV AND AIDS: EMIMA	72
Table 3: Components of self-efficacy: Magic Bus Peer Leaders	77

FIGURES

Figure 1: Gender attitudes: EMIMA and non-EMIMA. Male and female	49
Figure 2: Gender attitudes: KCCC and non-KCCC. Male and female.....	50
Figure 3: Sport and gender attitudes: Kids' League	51
Figure 4: Sport and gender attitudes: KCCC	53
Figure 5: Sport and gender attitudes: Magic Bus Voyagers	54
Figure 6: Sport and gender attitudes: EMIMA	55
Figure 7: General gender attitudes: Kids' League	57
Figure 8: Gender attitudes: KCCC	58
Figure 9: Gender attitudes: EMIMA	59
Figure 10: Gender attitudes: Magic Bus Voyagers	60
Figure 11: Knowledge of HIV and AIDS: EMIMA and non-EMIMA. Male and female ...	66
Figure 12: Three main sources of information about HIV and AIDS: EMIMA and non- EMIMA	67
Figure 13: Knowledge of HIV and AIDS. KCCC and non-KCCC: Male and female	68
Figure 14: Three main sources of information about HIV and AIDS: KCCC and non-KCCC	69
Figure 15: Knowledge of HIV and AIDS before and after: EMIMA.....	71
Figure 16: Self-efficacy: Magic Bus Peer Leaders	76
Figure 17: Rosenberg self-esteem: Magic Bus Peer Leaders	77
Figure 18: Sporting ethics: Magic Bus Peer Leaders.....	79
Figure 19: Gender attitudes: Magic Bus Peer Leaders	80

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Aims and objectives of the research

This report provides an analysis of data collected as part of a major research project funded by Comic Relief and UK Sport and managed by International Development through Sport (IDS). The research sought to test the hypothesis that ‘sport contributes to the personal development and well-being of disadvantaged children and young people and brings wider benefits to the community’. Because of resource constraints and logistical issues it was decided not to address the complex and vague issue of ‘wider community benefits’. In addition, it sought to:

- Build a body of evidence and good practice around the use of sport and development.
- Enable participating organisations to develop their M&E methodology.

The organisations

The research was undertaken with six sport-for-development organisations:

- The Kids’ League work with internally displaced people in northern Uganda and provide mixed-sex open-access 6-7 week football/netball programmes for 12-15 year olds. A before-and-after survey of participants was undertaken.
- Praajak is a Kolkata (India) based social development agency which works with ‘railway children’ – young people who run away from home to work on the railways. They held three all-male outdoor physical activity camps over 20 months and a before-and-after survey of participants was undertaken.
- Magic Bus works in the slums of Mumbai (India), providing a range of age-related programmes, including the Voyagers programme for 14-16 year olds. Two before-and-after surveys were conducted: (i) with participants in the Voyager programme; (ii) with participants in the peer leader training programme.
- Elimu, Michezo na Mazoezi (EMIMA) is a Dar-es-salaam (Tanzania) based after-school and weekend programme which uses sport and other activities to develop life skills and raise awareness of HIV and AIDS. Two sets of data were collected: (i) A survey of participants and non-participants; (ii) a before-and-after survey of participants in the Girls’ Empowerment Programme (although respondents had been taking part in the programme for at least four months).
- Kamwokya Christian Caring Community (KCCC) in Kampala is a faith and community-based NGO seeking to improve the quality of life in an impoverished area and deal with issues of HIV and AIDS. A before-and-after survey was undertaken with participants in the All Star Sports Academy (which holds weekend soccer

clinics) and the Treasure Life Centre which provides recreational and competitive netball plus education and training activities (although participants had been taking part in the programmes for some time). In addition, a survey of non-participants was undertaken to enable comparisons with the KCCC data.

- Sport Coaches Outreach (SCORE) is a South African NGO which aims to empower individuals and develop communities through sport and recreation. In-depth interviews were undertaken with female and male community sports leaders to explore the impact of their training and aspects of their practice.

We chose a survey-based approach because of the lack of qualitative research expertise in the organisations, it was easier to provide technical support via email and quantitative data permitted some degree of inter-programme comparability.

Defining outcomes

All organisations found it difficult to outline a programme theory - the various components, mechanisms and sequences of causes and effects which are presumed to lead to desired outcomes – and to formulate precise programme outcomes. In workshops with each organisation project-specific outcomes were agreed and some inter-programme comparability was ensured by exploring two core aspects of personal development - perceived self-efficacy and self-esteem.

Self-efficacy and self-esteem

Perceived self-efficacy relates to an individual's belief in her/ his ability to plan and perform a task, to achieve a particular outcome, to address difficult issues. Sport would seem to provide an effective medium for the development of self-efficacy beliefs, with its emphasis on practice, skill development, mastery and learning from defeat. It is often assumed that the development of self-efficacy will lead an increase in participants' *self-esteem* i.e. their sense of their self-worth and that these two attributes are necessary for personal and social development.

Age and personal development

In the early teenage years young people begin to develop an abstract adult intelligence, begin to reason beyond their own experience, think hypothetically and begin to anticipate achievement and reflect on many of the traits implicit in 'personal development'. Therefore, as far as possible, we surveyed only those aged 14 and over.

Questioning the deficit model

Most sport-for-development programmes are underpinned by an assumption that young people from disadvantaged communities are themselves deficient and in need of 'personal development'. However, the data raise significant questions about this assumption. Although

there were important individual and cultural differences, all programmes recorded a diversity of self-evaluations, with the majority of respondents recording scores within the ‘normal’ range. Such data warn against over-generalising about vague ‘personal development’ needs and suggest that some programmes might need to re-evaluate the nature and extent of expected programme impacts.

Programme impacts

Perceived self-efficacy

Programme participants’ average score was not significantly different from that of non-participants. Further, the diverse programmes produced a variety of impacts – EMIMA and the Kids’ League recorded statistically significant increases in average self-efficacy scores; Praajak recorded a non-significant increase; Magic Bus Voyagers a decrease and KCCC a statistically significant *decrease*. The only robust mixed-sex data set – the Kids’ League – indicates no significant difference in the *degree of change* between males and females. The programme did not benefit one sex more than the other.

Self-esteem

The impact of programmes on self-esteem was varied. There were no statistically significant differences in the average score between EMIMA participants and non-participants, yet KCCC participants had a statistically significant *lower* average score than non-participants. All programmes, except Praajak, recorded an increase in the average score, but only in EMIMA was this statistically significant. As with self-efficacy, in terms of the degree of change, the programmes did not benefit significantly one sex more than the other.

Change was not uni-directional

There was a *general tendency* for those with lower than average scores to increase their self-evaluations for both perceived self-efficacy and self-esteem – a positive impact. However, there was a parallel pattern of some with initially higher-than-average self-evaluations lowering their evaluations. Such reductions cannot simply be taken as negative outcomes - this may reflect a realistic adjustment based on practical experience or an adjustment to collective norms. Perhaps more realistic self-evaluations might be a policy aim.

Changing evaluations and group diversity

Although it is important not to over-emphasise the trend, the various shifts in self-evaluation resulted in most groups becoming less diverse in terms of the competence-based perceived self-efficacy. However, the various adjustments to the more egocentric self-esteem led to slightly increased group diversity in several programmes.

Relationships between self-efficacy and self-esteem

The relationship between these two aspects of self-evaluation is contingent, varying between programmes. In the Kids' League there a significant relationship between *changes* in self-efficacy and self-esteem; in Magic Bus Voyagers there was a statistically strong relationship in a small sample of females, but a weak relationship for males; although EMIMA recorded statistically robust increases for both self-efficacy and self-esteem, the relationship between the *changes* in both measures was weak.

Personal development, contingent outcomes and understanding process

Overall, despite certain tendencies, there is no consistent and predictable 'sport-for-development effect' in terms of personal development. As in all forms of social intervention, the nature and extent of impacts are largely contingent and vary between programme types, participants and cultural contexts. Such data illustrate the limitations of our ability to generalise about sport-for-development and emphasise the need to understand better the nature of differing programme processes and participant experiences. In addition, as few sport-for-development organisations seek to achieve their desired outcomes solely through sport it is very difficult to isolate a specific 'sport effect'.

Programmes' impact on gender attitudes

Many sport-for-development organisations regard issues of gender attitudes, behaviour and equity as central to their mission. However, approaches to such issues vary, including formal workshops and discussions and the 'hidden curriculum' implicit in the provision of inclusive sport and the encouragement of mutual respect and understanding.

The evidence of programme impacts is mixed, with few clear and consistent differences between participants and non-participants on issues relating to women's wider domestic and societal roles. Many of these issues are rooted in traditional cultural and socio-religious beliefs and sustained by social institutions (family, church, education, peer groups). Consequently, there is no obvious reason to believe that such values and attitudes can (or should) be changed via a sport-for-development programme, which may seek to do so indirectly. As a consensus of such issues is rare, there is a need for more precise definitions of desired outcomes and the methods to achieve them.

HIV and AIDS

The participant/non-participant data indicate that some programmes recruit from communities with a reasonable level of understanding of these issues. Except for one or two key issues, the differences between levels of understanding were small and in some cases participants knew slightly less than non-participants. The before-and-after participant data *do* illustrate an increased understanding of certain key issues, but some changes were marginal and misunderstanding remained. Further, as the organisations use a mixture of formal

workshops, discussions and cultural activities it is not possible to attribute any changes simply to ‘sport’

The data indicate that there is variety of sources of information and this raises important questions about the extent to which information from various sources is consistent and the role of sport-for-development programmes within this network. Further, the SCORE community sports leaders outlined a number of difficulties faced in dealing with HIV and AIDS – cultural resistance, young peoples’ boredom, parental opposition, lacking credibility with older people and a suspicion of their level of knowledge about a taboo subject. Such issues raise general questions about the role and effectiveness of such work and the level of training needed in sport-for-development programmes.

Peer leaders

In community-based sport-for-development projects peer leaders play a central role: to reduce costs and contribute to sustainability; to enable learning via relevant role models; to provide development opportunities for programme participants. The differing approaches to training are illustrated by Magic Bus’s 35 supervised sessions training programme and the work-based approach adopted by SCORE for its community sports volunteers.

Selection

The data also illustrate the varied approaches to the selection of those central to the sustainability and effectiveness of such programmes. Whereas Magic Bus selected from their Voyager programme after a prolonged period of observation, SCORE tended to select older and more experienced volunteers, who had not necessarily taken part in their programme.

The impact of training

Whereas SCORE interviewees provide systematically positive testimony as to the impact of the training, the more objective Magic Bus data indicate more complex impacts and in some cases raise doubts about the suitability of some to be peer leaders.

From training to delivery

In unsupervised and non-curriculum-based approaches there appears to be substantial scope for individual interpretations and variations in delivery. Such variation raises important questions about the comparability of many sport-for-development ‘programmes’ and illustrates some of the basis for the contingent nature of impacts found in the research.

Good practice

The data enable us to identify ‘what’ happened, but there is a need to develop a more in-depth understanding of process – the ‘how’ and ‘why’ - and the reasons for inter-programme differences, in order to consider issues of ‘good practice’. Further, as many of the impacts varied in scope, strength and direction between programmes and in ways that are hard to

predict, the identification of easily transferable ‘good practice’ may be difficult. These are matters for further investigation.

Developing organisations’ M&E methodology

The difficulties involved in enabling organisations to develop their M&E philosophy and methodology were under-estimated. There were three main issues, which must be addressed if robust outcome and process-oriented M&E is to become widespread.

- Lack of M&E expertise and the limits of short-term technical training.
- Widespread lack of programme theory and resulting imprecisely defined outcomes.
- Lack of NGO staff continuity. This is a generic problem, but raises doubts about the extent to which a robust M&E philosophy and practice can be embedded in under-funded and relatively unstable organisations.

The way forward

Programme theory and theory-based evaluation

The research has raised a number of key strategic issues – the *variety* of sport-for-development programmes, the *contingent* nature of impacts, uncertainty about *valid impact measures*, and unexamined assumptions based on a *deficit model* and a lack of understanding of *programme processes* all point to the need for programme providers and funders to develop *programme theories* and to articulate *how* programmes are meant to work. A programme theory details the components, mechanisms, relationships and sequences of causes and effects which are presumed to lead to desired outcomes (which are also a subject for analysis and clarification). Some of the advantages of this approach include:

- It emphasises the critical distinction between necessary conditions (i.e. participation) and *sufficient conditions* (the processes and experiences) necessary to maximise the potential to achieve desired outcomes.
- It assists in the formulation of theoretically coherent, realistic and precise outcomes related to programme processes and participants.
- It provides the basis for formative, rather than summative (i.e. outcome), evaluation and contributes to improving interventions.
- It maximises our ability to identify possible generic mechanisms, contributes to the possible identification of ‘best practice and the development of sport-for-development.

INTRODUCTION

This report provides an analysis of data collected as part of a major research project funded by Comic Relief and UK Sport and managed by International Development through Sport (IDS) (see Appendix 1 for the funders' outline of the research and the research process). The aim of the project was to generate a robust evidence base relating to the role of sport in bringing about real and lasting changes in the lives of young people and their communities. The research sought to test the hypothesis that 'sport contributes to the personal development and well-being of disadvantaged children and young people and brings wider benefits to the community'. However, because of resource constraints and logistical factors it was decided not to address the complex and vague issue of 'wider community benefits'.

The more specific objectives were:

- To build a body of evidence and good practice around the use of sport and development by working with 10 key partners in the field.
- To enable all participating organisations to develop their M&E methodology and produce reports that provided a detailed programme and country-specific evidence base on the effectiveness of 'development through sport'.

To achieve these objectives initially five projects were each chosen by Comic Relief and UK Sport. The projects could loosely be divided into 'plus sport' and 'sport plus'. Plus sport organisations being social development organisations dealing with issues such as conflict resolution, homelessness and children at risk. Sport was either part of their programme, or they were encouraged to introduce it as part of this project. Sport plus organisations refers to those whose core activity was sport, which is used and adapted in various ways to achieve certain 'development' objectives, such as HIV and AIDS education or female 'empowerment'.

Subsequently, two plus sport organisations – Don Bosco Homes (Liberia) and VSO South Africa (including Cape Town Child Welfare) - were found to lack coherent sports programmes, or the expertise or capacity to develop them within the timescales of the project. In the case of YMCA (Senegal), the timing of the sport programme, coupled with staff changes, meant that the ability to collect data relevant to this research project was missed. One other organisation – Chisomo (Malawi) – which had a football programme for street children, was removed from the programme by Comic Relief due to organisational issues affecting their main grant.

Consequently, this report examines the data collected from six organisations - the Kids' League (Uganda); Kamwokya Christian Caring Community (KCCC) (Uganda), Elimu, Michezo na Mazoezi (EMIMA) (Tanzania), Magic Bus (India), Praajak (India) and Sport Coaches Outreach (SCORE) (South Africa). As will be illustrated, it is difficult to sustain a strict division between plus sport and sport plus organisations because sports activities tend to

be embedded in a variety of activities aimed at forms of social and personal development. This also makes the identification of any narrowly defined 'sports effects' very difficult.

The report does not provide in-depth reports on individual projects, as these have been produced by each organisation. Rather, it draws on selected quantitative and qualitative data from all the projects to explore aspects of the project hypothesis.

The structure of the report

Chapter 1: The organisations

This provides an introduction to the organisations included in the research, the nature of the work undertaken and some reflections on certain limitations on the data collected.

Chapter 2: Methodological and conceptual issues

This outlines the processes involved in agreeing the various programme-related outcomes and explains the theoretical rationale for the choice of two core concepts – perceived self-efficacy and self-esteem. It explores a number of key issues, such as the assumptions made about participants, the distinction between necessary and sufficient conditions and outlines the rationale for the choice of surveys as the main research methodology.

Chapter 3: Self-efficacy beliefs

This explores the data on perceived self-efficacy from the participant/non-participant surveys and the various before-and-after surveys.

Chapter 4: Self-esteem

This explores the data on self-esteem from the participant/non-participant surveys and the various before-and-after surveys.

Chapter 5: Relationships between self-efficacy and self-esteem

This explores the nature of the relationships between changes in self-efficacy and self-esteem and the implications for sport-for-development programmes.

Chapter 6: Gender attitudes

This explores the nature and extent of changes in participants' attitudes to a range of gender-related attitudes to sport, domestic rights and responsibilities, wider issues of women's societal role and ethical issues about marriage and pregnancy.

Chapter 7: HIV and AIDS

This explores data from the participant/non-participant surveys and one before-and-after survey to examine the relative effectiveness of sport-for-development organisations in disseminating information of HIV and AIDS.

Chapter 8: Peer Leaders

This explores data from a before-and-after survey of the Magic Bus peer leader training programme and retrospective in-depth interviews with SCORE community sports volunteers. It examines the impact of the training and, via the SCORE interview data, examines some issues about programme delivery.

Chapter 9: Conclusions

This provides a broad overview of, and critical reflection on, the aims and objectives of the research, various aspects of the research process, the data and what it tells us about the impact of participating in *these* sport-for-development organisations. It finishes with some comments about the need for greater conceptual and theoretical clarity and a proposal for the use of programme theory as a basis of programme design and delivery and for M&E.

CHAPTER 1: THE ORGANISATIONS

In this chapter we provide an introduction to the organisations included in this report, the nature of the work undertaken and some reflections on certain limitations with the data. A fuller outline of the various projects and their aims and objectives is included in Appendix 2.

1.1 Magic Bus. Mumbai, India

Magic Bus works in the Dharavi, Colaba, Mumbai Port Trust slums of Mumbai. It aims to empower children and youth with positive experiences to discover and develop through sport. Its broad goals are to:

- Sensitise and advocate the child's right to play.
- Promote gender equality.
- Develop personal and social skills.
- Bring the community together through sporting opportunities by giving exposure to excellence and fair play.
- Become socially sustainable by empowering youth to become peer leaders.

Magic Bus has a formal curriculum-based approach organised around sport. This starts with the Explorer programme for 7-9 year olds and progresses via Challenger One (10-12 years) and Challenger Two (12-14 years) to the Voyager programme (15+ years).

Those involved in this study were drawn from the Voyager programme. To join this programme participants must have taken part in the Challenger 2 programme, which is viewed as a preparation for the Voyager programme, which seeks to 'empower them to realise their potential and make the choices necessary to embark on a meaningful life journey' (www.magicbusindia.org). The objectives of the programme are to enable participants (www.magicbusindia.org):

- To make meaningful choices, become responsible for their own growth and to move towards self-reliance.
- To develop a sense of self-belief and positivism.
- To understand the importance of having a direction and explore strategies to reach their goals.
- To understand their role as an individual in order to make a positive contribution to society.

Before-and-after survey: Voyagers

Participants in the Voyager programme were surveyed at the start of the programme and seven months later. This survey point reflected the needs of this project and may not be a fair reflection of the final impact of the Voyagers' programme. Self-completion questionnaires were used, with an interviewer present to translate and help with any lack of understanding.

The achieved sample consisted of 36 males and nine females, aged 14-18.

Limitations

Care needs to be taken when viewing this as a before-and-after survey. Although the first survey point was at the beginning of the Voyager programme, all participants had been taking part in Magic Bus sport-led programmes for at least two years. Consequently they were not new to the general culture and ethos of Magic Bus.

Before-and-after survey: Peer Leader training programme

Magic Bus has recently moved from being largely top-down organisation providing programmes for young slum dwellers to developing a peer leader training programme to facilitate the emergence of leaders and sustainable community-led programmes. Trainee peer leaders were selected from the Magic Bus Voyager programme because they had shown most interest, commitment and were regular attendees over a three year period. The peer leader training programme is designed to build on the competencies that the young people have developed via participation in Magic Bus programmes. In 35 sessions per year the training combined workshops and practical training sessions, in which the trainees assisted in the delivery of activity sessions. Issues dealt with included awareness of self, community and personal and social change, personal and social development issues, leadership and facilitation skills, gender and HIV and AIDS issues, sports skills, competency and facilitation.

As with the Voyagers programme, self completion questionnaires were used, with an interviewer present to translate and help with any lack of understanding. For every statement the same language and examples were used.

The achieved sample consisted of 12 males and 5 females, aged 14-18.

Limitations

Because the trainee peer leaders were chosen from those who had been in Magic Bus for some time, the before-and-after nature of this survey is somewhat problematic. However, as most peer leader training will be of this type – selected from current participants with potential - it can be regarded as a fair before-and-after examination of peer leader training programmes, which are at the heart of sport-for-development work.

1.2 Praajak and Railway Children. Kolkata, India

Praajak is a social development agency which works with marginalised children and adolescents addressing issues of education, health and social rehabilitation. It works mainly with males because it sees crime, violence, sexual abuse, gambling and substance abuse as determined by the social construction of masculinity.

Railway Children

This project focused on their work with ‘railway children’ – young people (mostly boys) who run away from home and work on railways. The push factors are various forms of abuse, family poverty and proximity to railways. They earn money by sweeping the trains with small brooms and begging from passengers, or collecting discarded plastic water bottles, re-filling them with untreated water and selling them to rail passengers. The monies earned can be substantial – perhaps 2,500-3,000 rupees per month (equivalent to a graduate probationary starting salary in an administrative job). This level of income provides access to drugs, sex and extensive free travel on trains. This poses problems for attempts to return young people to their families, who often ask for their children not to be returned, as they have a better life with Praajak. It also poses problems for attempts to direct the young people into more mainstream employment, as they are unlikely to stick at hard(er) work.

Praajak works with about 30-50 young people at each location, providing a ‘safe house’ and educational activities (e.g. health education). The young people are required to purchase the ingredients and cook their own food in order to try to break the begging/charity cycle and to develop a sense of collective responsibility. Rules are agreed about keeping the shelter tidy, clearing up beds, sharing cooking tasks and respecting others. Praajak also seeks to educate the children about saving/investment. In one location they provide a bank (with pass books) and in another they keep a record book and provide security for the children’s earnings. The children do not save all their earnings with Praajak, keeping some with the station vendors, who charge exorbitant fees. They do this because Praajak provides access at specific times and the money with the vendors can be accessed at all times, especially for drugs or sex.

Data collection

The before-and-after survey

Although the young people appear to be confident, Praajak personnel regard this as context-specific - ‘railway confidence’. To remove them from the railway environment, address issues of confidence and try to develop more positive attitudes Praajak ran a series of three outdoor physical activity camps between April 2008 and November 2009. Three waves of three camps with different participants were held Tumling, Sandakphu, Matha and Jainti Hills in West Bengal and Guddi Khola in Orissa. Seventy-three participants were chosen from regular attendees at drop-in centres - those who participated in the collective activities and tasks and had a certain level of literacy.

A before-and-after interviewer-administered survey was conducted and the final sample consisted of 38 males aged 12-16 (mean age 13.6)

Limitations

Drop out

Given the nature of the participants and the long period of time over which the camps were held, it is not surprising that there was a substantial drop-out rate, with only 38 (63%)

completing all three camps. Comparative analysis of the before data for the drop-outs and those who remained indicates that there were no statistically significant differences between the two sub-samples in terms of average scores for self-efficacy and self-esteem. Nevertheless, with the majority dropping out it cannot be regarded as an objective evaluation of the outdoor activity programme.

Time between the camps

Although this seems to be a clear before-and-after study, during the relatively long period between the camps the participants would have continued to take part in the various Praajak activities and disciplines. Consequently, care needs to be taken in simply attributing any changes to the outdoor activity programme.

1.3 Elimu, Michezo na Mazoezi (EMIMA). Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania

EMIMA, which is Swahili for education, sport and physical activity, was founded in 2001 and is an after-school and weekend programme in Dar-es-Salaam. It has a number of centres connected to schools in some of the poorest communities. It seeks to use sports programmes as a tool for the development of life skills and to raise awareness of HIV and AIDS, gender equality and sexual health. As part of this EMIMA use the Kicking AIDS Out approach of integrating sport skills and life skills through movement games, role plays, drama and other cultural and recreational activities. It also uses adapted sport-related symbolic activities to build awareness about HIV and AIDS (for more information see www.kickingaidsout.net). In addition to sport it also provides opportunities to take part in dance, drama, music and arts and crafts.

Data collection

The surveys

Two different approaches were used for the EMIMA data collection, although both used an interviewer-administered questionnaire. Firstly, a comparative participant/non-participant approach was adopted. This was because the fluid nature of recruitment to the general EMIMA programme made it difficult to undertake a straightforward before-and-after study. Secondly, a before-and-after study was undertaken of a new UK Sport funded *Girls Empowerment Programme (GEP)*. In the early stage of this project it was unclear when the GEP would start, hence the decision was taken to undertake the participant/non-participant study.

Participant/non-participant survey

EMIMA respondents

They were selected randomly from the registers of the three largest centres (Buguruni, Vingunguti and Mivinjeni). The girls and boys were interviewed individually at Vingunguti. The questionnaire was completed by 25 males and 25 females aged between 12 and 18.

Non-EMIMA

Respondents were selected randomly by the head teachers of the primary school (year 7 pupils) and secondary school (years 1-5) located nearest to each of the three centres. The pupils were interviewed individually within one of the classrooms. The questionnaire was completed by 33 males and 30 females aged between 12 and 18.

Nine sports students (five male and four female) from Dar-es-Salaam University were recruited and trained as interviewers. The questionnaire was translated from English to Swahili by the EMIMA management team and the interviewers gave feedback on the translation of the questionnaire. The understanding of the Swahili version of the questionnaire was tested on some EMIMA peer leaders and participants and some changes to the translation were made.

This is as close as we get to a ‘control group’ approach – i.e. a group of individuals who have not experienced the various stimuli represented by the EMIMA programme. Consequently, it provides an opportunity to compare and contrast a general population with young people who have been participating in a sport-for-development programme for at least 18 months.

Girls’ Empowerment Programme: before-and-after survey

The second part of the research was supposed to be a before-and-after study of the GEP funded by UK Sport. The ambitious aims of this programme were:

- To develop a network of positive female role models and leaders by empowering girls through sporting and educational opportunities.
- To improve physical and mental well-being of thousands of girls, including orphans and girls with disabilities, through opportunities to participate in sport and get educated on the issues that profoundly affect their lives, such as HIV and AIDS, physical abuse, girls’ rights and sexual and reproductive health.
- To improve leadership and life skills of girls participating in the project.

Data collection

The initial data were collected during July 2008. Trained female interviewers collected data from 60 young women aged 12-22 years of age at five EMIMA centres. The second phase interviews were conducted eight months later, in March 2009.

Limitations

There are a number of important limitations with the survey.

‘Before’ interviews

The initial interviews were not strictly ‘before’ interviews. Most of the participants in the programme were recruited from those already participating in EMIMA activities and the

‘before’ survey was undertaken approximately three months after the GEP programme started - 46 per cent had been taking part in ‘EMIMA activities’ for at least four months. No question was asked about how long participants had been taking part in the GEP, because those responsible for the survey felt that they ‘would not necessarily be familiar with the term ‘Girls Empowerment Programme’’. As far as the young women were aware they were taking part in various activities run by EMIMA, which happened to include some additional activities for girls in addition to the regular sports, music, drama and Kicking Aids Out approaches.

Drop out

Because one centre stopped operating and girls left another because of a dispute, only 35 of the initial 60 (58%) were available for the follow-up interview. Comparative analysis of the before data for the drop-outs and those who remained indicates that there were no statistically significant differences between the two sub-samples in terms of average scores for self-efficacy and self-esteem. However, as only one third (35%) of the initial sample remained, it cannot be regarded as an objective evaluation of the overall GEP.

Social desirability bias

Social desirability bias refers to the tendency of respondents to reply in a manner that will be viewed favourably by others, or which will affirm themselves. We will discuss this issue in more detail in Chapter 2, but here it is sufficient to note that follow-up interviews were undertaken by individuals directly involved in the GEP – the Acting Manager and the Project Coordinator, and two female leaders from EMIMA. This is clearly a sub-optimal approach and contains a strong risk of social desirability bias. All projects were strongly advised not to adopt such an approach to data collection.

These three factors mean that great care must be taken in the interpretation and meaning of the data from the EMIMA GEP second survey. As we will see, it has produced data rather different from the other surveys.

1.4 Kamwokya Christian Caring Community (KCCC). Kampala, Uganda

KCCC is a faith and community-based NGO which seeks to improve the quality of life for orphans, vulnerable children, women, youth, the disabled and those infected with and affected by HIV and AIDS in impoverished and low-resourced areas in Kampala District. It provides health care, a primary school and micro-finance support for small local businesses. Within this context KCCC also runs the All Star Sports Academy, which in addition to providing sporting opportunities for local primary schools holds weekend soccer clinic and claim to deal with about 900 young people per month in total. School scholarships are available for talented players through this programme and these are a significant attraction.

KCCC also runs the Treasure Life Centre (TLC). In addition to free health services, peer-to-peer counselling, behaviour change workshops, entrepreneurship skills training and dance and drama facilities it offers opportunities for both males and females to play netball both recreationally and competitively.

Data collection

Here two before-and-after surveys were conducted with participants in ASSA and the TLC netball programme.

Limitations

All Stars Sports Academy (ASSA)

This programme seeks to combine soccer development with issues of HIV and AIDS, via both pedagogical and Kicking AIDS Out approaches. Because this programme was relatively stable and had only intermittent recruitment it was not possible to identify a group of new participants for a true ‘before’ study.

Accordingly, an initial survey was conducted in March 2008 with a second phase conducted between January and April 2009. This gave a time period between the first and second surveys of between 10 and 13 months. This also meant that there was no single ‘after’ survey point, as required by the project methodology.

Treasure Life Youth Centre

The initial KCCC proposal referred to a ‘*scaling up*’ of the existing sporting activities in order to *increase accessibility*. Consequently, because we could not conduct a before-and-after survey with ASSA, it was agreed that we would delay the ‘before’ survey to concentrate on new recruits. However, the ‘before’ survey of TLC participants was undertaken with those who had been taking part in TLC activities for between 6 months to 2 years. Consequently we have no information about participants before, or even in the early stages of, participation and therefore cannot make any reliable statements about the impact of the programme on new recruits. Any statements relate to a ‘middle period’ of participation – a very difficult impact to understand or assess without detailed information about programme content during this period.

Further, like the ASSA data, the ‘after’ data were collected over a four month period rather than at one point in time. The initial survey was conducted in March 2008, with the second phase of data collection undertaken between January and April 2009. This means that these respondents, as with ASSA, were responding to different experiences and are not strictly comparable.

Because of the relatively small sample sizes and the fact that neither was a real before-and-after sample, they were combined for analysis. The combined sample consists of 24 males and 20 females between the ages of 12 and 26, with an average age of 17.6.

Sport plus

KCCC highlights a more general problem in seeking to evaluate the impact of sports participation within the context of sport-for-development programmes. In addition to ASSA and TLC KCCC runs the Motivation and Personal Development Skills Programme (MPDSP). This is a peer-led series of lectures, brainstorming, personal reflection and group discussion about the prevention and transmission of HIV and AIDS and sexually transmitted diseases, as well as cultural/traditional practices that relate to the spread of HIV, skills in care and support for people living with AIDS, gender and reproductive physiology, general health guidelines and substance abuse.

Such activities, which are widespread in sport-for-development organisations, place major limitations on our ability to attribute any measured changes in self-evaluations, attitudes and knowledge to 'sport'. Consequently, and this will be emphasised in the report, it is best to view any measured changes as reflecting participation in the various activities of sport-for-development *organisations*, rather than sport-for-development.

Control group

To try to salvage something from these flawed surveys it was agreed to undertake an additional interviewer-administered survey of a population in a different part of Kampala who had not taken part in KCCC sporting activities. It was agreed that the sample would be broadly similar to the combined KCCC sample, with 23 males and 23 females aged between 14 and 22. In fact the survey was not undertaken in Kampala, but in the Kennedy Secondary School in Entebbe. Respondents completed questionnaires under interviewers' guidance during one day.

Interviews

In addition to the control group survey, in-depth interviews were undertaken with participants in ASSA and TLC to explore participants' experiences of taking part in the two programmes and the nature of the programme processes and elements which had most impact on them. Two interviewers who were not involved in programme delivery were trained at a workshop in Cape Town. The workshop dealt with the assumptions underpinning sport-for-development and the nature and processes of in-depth interviewing. The interview schedule was designed collaboratively and sought to provide the basis for an examination of participants' experiences, especially in relation to the issues explored in the surveys (these are outlined in Chapter 2).

However, the subsequent interview data were of little value, largely because the interviewers had little understanding of the theoretical issues involved. Despite the workshop placing strong emphasis on the need to understand the assumptions underpinning the programmes (programme theory or the theory of behaviour change) and the need to explore participants' experience of programme processes, the interviews were little more than one-dimensional question and answer sessions. There was a failure to seek clarification or explore responses

in-depth and rather questionable assertions were left unexplored. It was clear that the interviewers were unable to make judgements about the theoretical significance of responses. This lack of understanding of programme theory – how sport-for-development programmes contribute to ‘personal development’ - is dealt with in more detail in Chapters 2 and 9. However, it is clear that this, and the use of inexperienced interviewers, place significant constraints on the collection of qualitative data as part of an M&E strategy.

1.5 The Kids’ League. Gulu, Uganda

Building on the success of the Kampala Kids’ League, the Kids’ League was established in the conflict zones of northern Uganda in 2003. The aims of the organisation are to use sport to help young people aged 8-15 to improve their lives via the development of education, health and life skills awareness. Football and netball are used to transmit health and education messages. The Kids’ League also aims to break down social, economic and religious barriers by inviting young people from Protestant, Catholic and Moslem schools to mix with out-of-school children, orphans, street children, ex-child soldiers and traumatised children to help break barriers down and bond friendships.

The organisation provides time-limited, 6-7 weeks, soccer and netball programmes run by trained community volunteers in Gulu (northern Uganda) for internally displaced people. Young people are recruited to these ‘leagues’ on a broadly rotational basis to ensure that everyone has a chance to take part. However, it is inevitable in such compact communities that many will have taken part in Kids’ League activities prior to this, although this was not the case in our sample.

Data collection

Before- and- after survey

The initial data collection was undertaken at the start of the programme in early December 2008, with the after survey conducted at the end of January 2009. This produced the largest sample, with 52 males and 65 females aged 14-15 years.

Limitations

A 6-7 week programme is a relatively short period in which to assess an impact and certainly we need to be careful about assuming any permanent or long term outcomes on the basis of these data.

1.6 Sport Coaches Outreach (SCORE). South Africa

Sports Coaches' Outreach (SCORE) is a South African NGO which aims to empower individuals and develop communities through sport and recreation. It uses both international and South African volunteer trainers and coaches to implement programmes, train local sports leaders and teachers and set up sustainable structures. SCORE provides a series of 3-5 day training workshops for community sports volunteers which are scheduled over a period

of 3 – 5 days; cover 3 – 5 components on average, and have up to 3 workshops in a year. The titles of the workshops are:

- Sport Volunteer Leadership.
- Active Youth.
- Basic Sports Administration.
- Kicking Aids Out.

Data collection

Plan A

SCORE specialises in training coaches and peer leaders to contribute to community development through sport and recreation. An initial attempt to undertake a before-and-after study of the impact of peer leader training was abandoned because the programme was based on a surrogate approach, in which teachers were trained to enable them to train final year *primary pupils* at a time of their own choosing and with no obvious quality control – which would have been difficult with such random timing and in disparate communities. Consequently, this was an inappropriate programme for the needs of the project, as it would not have permitted an exploration of the quality and effectiveness of the *SCORE training programme*. Rather it would simply have been an evaluation of a wide variety of teachers of unknown quality and provided no predictable time scale for the research.

Plan B

It was agreed to undertake in-depth interviews with 20 ‘long-standing’ peer leaders in several communities to explore aspects of their training and practice and its impact on them. A sample of peer leaders was selected by programme staff and a local contact person. They were to be between the ages of 16-26 and have been involved with SCORE for more than 18 months. The peer leaders were selected as follows:

Limpopo Province

- Moshati 3 males /2 females
- Appel 2 males /3 females

Western Cape Province

- Khayelitsha 2 males/ 2 females
- Dysselsdorp 2 males/2 females
- Zoar 1 male / 1 female

An externally recruited experienced female interviewer and SCORE’s chief trainer attended an in-depth interview training workshop in Cape Town. The workshop dealt with the assumptions underpinning sport-for-development and the nature and processes of in-depth interviewing. The interview schedule was designed collaboratively and sought to provide the basis for an examination of the impact of the SCORE community sports leader training

programme on areas of personal and social development, paralleling the issues being addressed in the surveys of participants in the other programmes.

The use of a SCORE trainer was clearly sub-optimal and contained the possibility of social desirability bias. However, because we faced difficulties in recruiting a male interviewer and we needed an English/Afrikaans speaker we had to compromise. The interviews in Limpopo were conducted with the assistance of an interpreter.

Limitations

Although we were assured that it was unlikely that the trainer would be known to the interviewees, the interview data and fieldwork notes raise some suspicions that, in certain circumstances, this was not the case. Further, the use of a local interpreter who was known to some of the interviewees introduced a number of complications relating to the mediation and interpretation of interviewee responses. These issues are dealt with in more details Chapter 8

1.7 Plus sport or sport plus?

The initial project was based on a loose distinction between plus sport and sport plus organisations. It also sought to test the hypothesis that *sport* contributes to the personal development and well-being of disadvantaged children and young people and brings wider benefits to the community.

However, it is clear that it is difficult to sustain a strict division between plus sport and sport plus organisations. In nearly all cases sports activities are embedded in a variety of inter-related activities aimed to contribute to social and personal development. Although this is most obvious in the case of KCCC's Motivation and Personal Development Skills Programme, others provide a series of parallel workshops and a variety of activities. Such a mixture of activities place major limitations on our ability to attribute to 'sport' any measured changes in self-evaluations, attitudes and knowledge.

However, although this might be regarded as a methodological limitation, it reflects the situation in most sport-for-development organisations, so these programmes are not 'unrepresentative'. Here it is worth noting Pawson and Tilley's (2006:4) argument that in all forms of social intervention 'it is through the workings of entire systems of social relationships that any changes in behaviours, events and social conditions are effected'. It is obvious that the culture, ethos, social relationships and activities (even the practice of sport) will vary between such varied organisations. Consequently it is best to view any measured changes as reflecting participation in the various activities of sport-for-development *organisations*, rather than sport-for-development.

We now turn to an exploration of the methodological and theoretical basis of the research.

CHAPTER 2: METHODOLOGICAL AND CONCEPTUAL ISSUES

2.1 Understanding programmes and outcomes

Following an introductory workshop in Dar-es-Salaam for all participating organisations, the author visited each of the organisations to observe the programmes in operation and to run workshops to explore the conceptual and theoretical assumptions of sport-for-development as a basis for agreeing outcome measures relevant to each programme. However, most programme personnel had difficulty in formulating researchable project outcomes with the conceptual precision required for evaluation. In part this reflected a lack of monitoring and evaluation experience and an understanding of the requirements for rigour and robustness. However, these difficulties also reflected the very ambitious and poorly defined outcomes which had been proposed and accepted as a basis for funding by both Comic Relief and UK Sport.

Related to this, many had difficulty in articulating *why* and *how* the various programmes might produce various outcomes. All found it difficult to outline a programme theory - the various components, mechanisms and sequences of causes and effects which are presumed to lead to desired outcomes. This reflected a largely uncritical and one-dimensional view of 'sport' as having inherent properties and inevitably positive outcomes – 'development'. However, although participation in sport is a necessary condition to obtain certain benefits, it is not a sufficient condition. For example, Svoboda (1994) suggests that the presumed positive outcomes are 'only a possibility' and Patriksson (1998) argues that:

Sport, like most activities, is not a priori good or bad, but has the potential of producing both positive and negative outcomes. Questions like 'what conditions are necessary for sport to have beneficial outcomes?' must be asked more often.

This raises significant questions about the utility of seeking to evaluate programme performance on the basis of vague and ill-defined outcomes, which may have little relation to programme processes, mechanisms and content.

There are two further issues to consider. Firstly, few sport-for-development organisations are simply sports organisations and sport is embedded in a series of other activities all aimed at achieving certain outcomes. This makes the isolation of 'sports effects' very difficult. Secondly, there was a consistent failure to consider the nature of the assumptions made about participants and their supposed 'personal development needs'. We will return to these issues below.

Discussions around these issues served to sensitise to the need for a more critical understanding of programme design and delivery. However, in the early stages of the project such issues were underdeveloped and outcomes were decided largely on the basis of rather poorly articulated, common sense, assumptions about participants and processes.

2.2 Defining the outcomes

Although some of the issues explored necessarily reflected the concerns of each project, there was a need to have a degree of standardisation to provide some comparability. As a strategic objective of the project was to develop the M&E understanding and expertise of staff it was decided to advise on, but not impose, issues for investigation. In the workshops participants were provided with a series of questionnaires and questions which related broadly to the issues which they and the funders wished to explore, such as self-efficacy, self-esteem, gender attitudes, HIV and AIDS (some of these are explored in more detail below). Broad agreement was reached about the thematic content of the questionnaires and these were then designed by the organisations' staff with email support from the author. The programme providers' understanding of the ability or willingness of their participants to answer certain questions or types of questions (e.g. complex scales; multiple choice questions) informed the content and design of the questionnaires. However, in some cases this reduced the degree of comparability.

Nevertheless, there are broad similarities between the issues addressed across all programmes and Table 1 outlines the range of issues addressed. The numbers in brackets refer to the items in the various lists and scales used to address each issue. In the case of self-efficacy the standard scale used (see below) has twelve items and a strongly agree/strongly disagree choice. However, some of the programmes adapted this to their own needs – hence the various differences, which will be discussed in more detail later. All used the standard Rosenberg self-esteem scale.

Table 1: Issues addressed in the surveys

Sporting ethics	Gender attitudes	HIV	HIV: sources of info	Self-efficacy <i>12 item scale</i>	Self-esteem
KCCC (8)	KCCC (12)	KCCC (17)	KCCC (10)	KCCC Yes/no: 7 items	KCCC
EMIMA (5)	EMIMA (11)	EMIMA (14)	EMIMA (9)	EMIMA(i) (8) EMIMA (ii) (12)	EMIMA
Magic Bus (9)	Magic Bus (10)			Magic Bus (12)	Magic Bus
Kids League (9)	Kids League (11)			Praajak Agree/disagree: 11 items	Praajak
				Kids League (12)	

Friendships/networks/trust	Fatalism	Moral judgements	Social efficacy
KCCC (6)	Praajak (8)	Praajak (2)	KCCC
Magic Bus (2)		Magic Bus (3)	Praajak (<i>a version</i>)

Where only one or two organisations have collected often non-comparable data we have omitted it from this report (analysis of these data can be found in the individual organisations' reports).

Many of the issues addressed are relatively descriptive and self-explanatory, simply assessing levels of knowledge - HIV and AIDS - or values and attitudes (gender attitudes). However, there were two key conceptual issues which, in various forms, were addressed by all projects - self-efficacy and self-esteem - and we provide a brief discussion of them below.

2.3 Components of personal development

2.3.1 Introduction

As already noted, most of the organisations found it difficult to formulate desired programme outcomes with the conceptual precision required for evaluation. In discussions with the personnel and the clients, and drawing on previous research, it was decided to use two core concepts to explore issues of 'personal development' - self-efficacy and self-esteem. Self-efficacy relates to an individual's perception of her or his ability to achieve a task, to solve a problem and is usually rooted in practical experience. Self-esteem relates to an individual's assessment of her or his own self-worth. Some sport-for-development programmes assume that the development of skills, sporting expertise and competence - self-efficacy - will lead participants to feel better about themselves and thereby increase their self-esteem. The presumption is that a sense of self-worth is necessary for personal and social development. We now turn to a more detailed discussion of these two concepts.

2.3.2 Self-efficacy beliefs

This refers to an individual's belief in her/his ability to plan and perform a task, to achieve a particular outcome, to address difficult issues. It is worth noting Bandura's (1997:382) distinction between self-efficacy beliefs and a more general notion of 'self-confidence'.

Confidence is a nonspecific term that refers to strength of belief but does not necessarily specify what the certainty is about. I can be supremely confident that I will fail at an endeavour. Perceived self-efficacy refers to belief in one's agentic capabilities that one can produce given levels of attainment. A self-efficacy belief, therefore, includes both an affirmation of a capability level and the strength of that belief. Confidence is a catchword rather than a construct embedded in a theoretical system.

Bandura (1994: 2) defines *perceived self-efficacy* as:

'people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives. Self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave'.

People with high self-efficacy are more likely to view difficult tasks as something to be mastered, rather than to be avoided. Importantly this is closely related to notions of *resilience* – the ability to deal with difficult situations, to overcome set-backs, to learn from defeat.

Consequently, the concept of perceived self-efficacy might be regarded as a basic building block for personal development.

2.3.3 Sport and self-efficacy

The nature and practice of sport would seem to provide an effective medium for the development of self-efficacy beliefs. The emphasis on practice, skill development, mastery and learning from defeat all seem to be important contributors to the development of perceived self-efficacy – the sense that particular competencies can be developed and particular tasks achieved. Also, the concept lies at the core of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), which emphasises learning via observation and imitation and the role of social experience in the development of personality.

Peer leaders

Most researchers argue that the *context* in which this occurs is also important. It is more likely to develop in supportive environments in which personal progress is supported and affirmed. From this perspective people are most likely to learn where there is a lack of social distance and a perceived similarity between the teacher and the learner (this may be especially important for females in certain cultures with few public female role models); there is a *self-efficacy expectation* on the part of the learner (i.e. she/he is capable of developing the skill/competing the task - strengthened by the similarity with the teacher); and there is an *outcome expectancy* that the performance of the activity will have desirable outcomes (which is affirmed and reinforced by the programme ethos and the teachers). This approach is clearly implicit in the peer-leader approach of many sport-for-development programmes.

Consequently, the issue of self-efficacy lies at the centre of concerns with personal and wider social development and is a desired outcome which is implicit (although rarely systematically articulated) in many sport-for-development programmes. This was widely recognised in the fieldwork workshop discussions.

2.3.4 Measuring self-efficacy

Self-efficacy was measured using a widely used 12 item Likert scale (Appendix 3), based on a series of positive and negative statements, with which respondents are asked to strongly agree/strongly disagree. The series of statements were each allocated a score (0-3; 3-0) and an overall score was produced for each respondent. If data are collected for all scale items it is possible to sub-divide the scale to explore issues of initiative (the extent respondents are willing to deal with difficult issues), effort (the extent to which respondents are willing to stick at a task) and persistence (respondents general assessment of their ability to deal with unexpected issues) (Appendix 3).

Limitations

However, as indicated in Table 1, not all programmes used the full scale or the standard response system. This reduced the comparability of the data, although it still produced programme-relevant information.

2.3.5 Issues to consider about perceived self-efficacy

A number of issues need to be taken into account when considering perceived self-efficacy:

- Self-efficacy is often context/activity-specific and may not go ‘beyond the touchline’, when the individual confronts other difficulties. In other words the development of *sporting self-efficacy* within a particular context may not be transferred to a wider sense of perceived self-efficacy. However, we have used a generic measure which seeks to address issues of more general self-efficacy beliefs.
- The trans-theoretical theory of behaviour change posits that there are several stages involved in behaviour change – precontemplation of the behaviour; contemplation of the behaviour; preparation to adopt the behaviour; action in which the behaviour is adopted; and maintenance of the new behaviour. It suggests that shifts from pre-contemplation to contemplation to action (e.g. joining a sport-for-development programme) depend on a certain level of perceived self-efficacy. As participation in the programmes is mostly by choice, it might be assumed that most participants already have a reasonable degree of self-efficacy. The data seem to indicate that this is so.
- It is possible that high initial perceived self-efficacy might be an over-estimation and that participants fail to develop skills and competence in sports programmes or recognise that they have over-estimated their abilities, especially in comparison with others. In such circumstances it is possible to experience a reduced perceived self-efficacy. Again, the data indicate that this can occur.

2.3.6 Self-esteem

Whereas perceived self-efficacy relates to an individual’s perception of her or his ability to achieve a task, self-esteem relates to an individual’s assessment of her or his own self-worth. In this project self-esteem was measured via the widely used Rosenberg self-esteem scale (Appendix 4). This is a ten item Likert scale with items answered on a four point scale - from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The ‘normal’ range for responses is regarded as lying between 15 and 25, although there may be cultural variations and we will discuss this below.

Self-esteem is regarded both as a relatively enduring personality characteristic (trait self-esteem) and subject to short-term variations (state self-esteem). The strength of one’s self-assessment can change with circumstances and is also dependent on how one is treated by significant others – this is especially so if trait self-esteem is weak. A sense of self-esteem may relate to performance in a variety of roles occupied by an individual and the relative

importance attributed to each – son/daughter, friend, student, father/mother, partner, footballer or peer leader. In other words, aspects of self-esteem are dependent on a range of often changeable factors. Participation in sport *may* be a contributor to the strengthening of self-esteem – but, being good or bad at something about which you care little will have limited impact on how you value yourself.

Like perceived self-efficacy, self-esteem is also partly dependent on context - the nature of the participants, the social environment and even individual characteristics. In other words changes in self-perception may result not directly from sport, but from the manner in which the programme is delivered and the nature of the social relationships involved. Therefore self-esteem, to some degree, is dependent on how individuals are treated by others - recognition, acceptance, status and appreciation are important to a sense of self-worth. ‘Attractiveness’ factors which make people stay with such programmes cannot be separated from those that promote self-esteem - for example, the qualities of the leader, the exercise setting, relationships with other participants and a sense of belonging.

Consequently, as with perceived self-efficacy, there is a danger of adopting overly-individualised versions of self-esteem, which ignore the wider cultural and economic environment which strongly influence how individuals are able to view themselves and on which a single sports programme may have minimal effect. Also, and we need to bear this in mind when looking at the data, the greatest improvements in self-esteem are likely to occur in those who are initially low in self-esteem, physical self-worth and body image (Fox, 1992).

2.3.7 Why self-esteem?

Although self-esteem is used widely in sport-for-development rhetoric, its *significance* is subject to debate. Self-esteem is often viewed as a sort of social vaccine which represents an all-purpose solution to a range of social problems (crime, low educational achievement, drug-taking, ‘development’ and ‘empowerment’). However, Emler’s (2001) comprehensive review of research evidence suggests that young people with low self-esteem are *not* more likely to commit crimes, including violent crimes; use or abuse illegal drugs; drink alcohol to excess or smoke or fail academically. In fact, high self-esteem can be a source of problems, as those with very high self-esteem are much more likely to engage in physically risky pursuits, reject social influence and hold prejudiced attitudes towards ethnic minorities (Elmer, 2001; Baumeister et al, 2005). Consequently, care needs to be taken as to the sources, meaning and implications of self-esteem and this has clear implications for the practice of sport-for-development.

This not to imply that the development of a strong self-esteem is not ‘a good thing’ – clearly having a positive view of oneself is to be encouraged, especially for many deprived and oppressed social groups. However, it is essential to be circumspect about claims that such self-evaluations will make substantial differences to behaviour and ‘development’.

It is also worth noting Emler’s (2001:45) cautionary comment that:

‘...very few people have low self-esteem in an absolute sense – in that they more often describe themselves in negative than in positive termsTherefore, the references in research to low versus high self-esteem almost always mean a distinction between those whose self-esteem is very positive and those whose self-esteem is slightly positive’.

There is a general tendency for scores to be skewed towards high self-esteem (Adler and Stewart, 2004) - this is especially so in western cultures which increasingly emphasise individualism and rights (evidence indicates that this has now reached rather extreme proportions among young people in the USA). Indeed, Blascovich and Tomaka (1991: 123) argue that ‘an individual who fails to endorse self-esteem scale items at least moderately is probably clinically depressed’ – suggesting that even the restricted range of self-esteem scores is useful among, and representative of, non-depressed individuals. In this research we are not concerned with individual diagnosis but with the distribution of, and changes in, self-esteem across a range of populations, which makes it a more robust and useful measure. However, as we will see, this has substantial implications for our assumptions about participants, the desired outcomes for sport-for-development programmes and the establishing of meaningful performance indicators.

2.3.8 Age and development

Many concepts implicit in the notions of ‘personal development and well-being’, such as self-efficacy, self-esteem, gender attitudes, moral reasoning, assume a particular stage of emotional and cognitive development. For example, developmental psychologists suggest that it is not until the early teenage years that young people begin to develop an abstract adult intelligence, begin to reason beyond their own experience, think hypothetically and begin to anticipate achievement. Such traits are associated with the ability to reflect meaningfully on oneself and one’s abilities and this is required to address subjective and experiential issues of self-efficacy and self-esteem. Although the precise timing of such development phases may vary between cultures and circumstances, we initially decided to survey those aged 14 and over. However, in some cases in order to achieve reasonable sample sizes we reluctantly have had to include respondents as young as 12. Many of the individual project reports include younger children and this raises doubts about the validity of some of their findings.

A more general sociological reason for concentrating on these age groups is that it is during this period when young people are developing into adults and making decisions based on self-evaluation, values and attitudes which will impact on adult behaviours and choices, including sexual behaviour.

2.4 What do we assume about participants?

Related to the issues of ‘developmental age’ are the assumptions about participants which underpin programmes. Much policy and programming in sport-for-development is based on the simple assumption that sport will have positive effects, which in turn seems to be based on an implicit *deficit model* of participants. The implicit assumption is that young people living in ‘disadvantaged communities’ are themselves deficient and in need of ‘personal

development' of the type that sport is presumed to deliver - self-efficacy, self-esteem, social skills, improved moral reasoning and knowledge about HIV and AIDS.

However, if this individual deficit model is not accurate, or at least over-generalised, then it poses three sets of issues:

- Defining and assessing the impact of sport-for-development programmes. If such young people are not as 'deficient' as assumed, then there may be a need to re-evaluate the nature and *extent* of expected programme impacts and how programme success is defined.
- If the target group is not uniformly deficient in certain ways, what implications would this have for programme content and delivery? Should the aims of the programmes be to compensate for 'deficient' individuals, or to provide contexts and opportunities for relatively normal young people to develop?
- If the deficit model is over-generalised does this imply that the programmes are targeting the wrong groups? As most participation in sport-for-development programmes is free and freely chosen, we are mostly dealing with *self-selected populations* and ones that may not be representative of the communities from which participants are drawn.

The issues raised by a deficit model will inform much of what follows and will be explored via the comparisons of participant and non-participant data in EMIMA and KCCC and in the 'before' data from the various before-and-after surveys.

2.5 Social desirability bias

This is an issue which is present in most research in which respondents are asked to provide evaluations of their personal abilities and qualities. It refers to the tendency of respondents to reply in a manner that will be viewed favourably by others, or which will affirm themselves. This may be a particular issue in sport-for-development programmes, in which vulnerable young people are dependent on programme providers for access to free programmes which they value. We have already expressed concern about the potential for social desirability bias in EMIMA's second survey because of the use of interviewers who were directly involved in programme delivery.

Further, the rhetoric of such programmes constantly emphasises notions of self-worth, self-improvement and achievement. In such circumstances there will be clear pressures to provide the expected responses and to affirm the value of the programme (this is most obviously seen in the selective ad hominem and case study 'evidence' so widely used in sport-for-development). Also, in certain circumstances some extreme responses may be indistinguishable from narcissism and adolescent bragging.

An interesting extension of this issue which was raised in this project is that notions of self-esteem are culturally specific. For example, it was argued in 94 per cent Muslim Senegal that

the individualised Western concept of self-esteem was not relevant in cultures where self-esteem is derived from the *subordination of self* to the collective needs of communities. In India it was suggested that because many women are taught to subordinate their sense of self and where their opinions are not sought or valued, they may suffer a type of ‘cognitive dissonance’ when asked for their opinions - especially about their own value and worth. In such cases self-esteem might be viewed in terms of humility rather than personal worth. While such possibilities cannot be ignored, there is a considerable consistency in our data across programmes and cultures and samples in which Muslims are the majority. Also, it is possible to offer some reasonable explanations for the measured differences between the various samples.

2.6 Issues of meaning and interpretation

Within the context of the above issues we need to be aware that the questionnaires were developed in English and translated into other languages such as Swahili and Hindi and, in certain circumstances, explained in the local vernacular. Issues of meaning and nuance might be changed in such translations, although we have no way of knowing. To try to take such issues into account the questionnaires’ content and presentation were agreed with programme providers as being understandable and relevant to the cultural context.

However, the fieldwork report on the SCORE in-depth interviews indicates that even some apparently simple issues (e.g. ‘satisfaction’) were not fully understood and had to be re-phrased. Also some who undertook the survey interviews speak of similar situations. Issues of age, education, culture, experience, intelligence and context all combine to present problems for this type of research and such issues need to be borne in mind.

2.7 Necessary and sufficient conditions

We have already noted Patriksson’s (1998) argument that we need to seek to understand the conditions necessary for sport to have beneficial outcomes. This statement points to several key issues:

- All forms of social interventions are capable of having positive, negative and no impacts. Outcomes are contingent and not pre-given.
- Participation in different types of sports programmes will impact on different people in different ways. To expect that all participants will experience positive development is naïve.
- It is possible that participation will result in a *decline* in factors such as self-efficacy and self-esteem. However, as we will see, such declines may not be regarded in any simple way as ‘negative outcomes’.
- In general the *meaning* and *relevance* of data can only be derived from the various contexts in which they were generated.

Such a perspective places significant limitations on our ability to generalise about ‘sport-for-development’. As indicated in Chapter 1 there are significant, if poorly articulated, variations between the different programme processes and mechanisms. Only the short-term Kids’ League programme can be regarded as a simple sport-for-development programme. In all the other organisations sport is embedded in a range of other activities and social relationships—workshops, discussion groups, drama and so on – few of the respondents in these surveys were simply ‘sports participants’.

However, although this might strictly be regarded as a methodological limitation, it reflects the situation in most sport-for-development organisations. Most on-going sport-for-development programmes are embedded in a wider set of organisational activities and participants take part in a number of activities and are subject to a range of processes which will have varying influences on their values and attitudes. As Pawson and Tilley (2006:4) suggest, this is a relatively widespread phenomenon as ‘it is through the workings of entire systems of social relationships that any changes in behaviours, events and social conditions are effected’. It is obvious that the culture, ethos, social relationships and activities (even the practice of sport) will vary between such varied organisations. Related to this is the strong possibility that measured similarities in outcomes might well be produced by different processes.

Although this raises vital issues, our ability to explore them is limited. However, care needs to be taken in using the data in this report to generalise about ‘sport-for-development’ - we are not comparing the same things, but different programmes, in different cultures and a variety of social processes which happen to be labelled ‘sport-for-development’. At the very least we need to recognise that the data relates to the operation of sport-for-development *organisations* and associated social processes.

Within this context it is difficult to sustain the conceptual distinction between plus sport and sport plus. While organisations may place different emphasises on the role and importance of sport, in most cases participants are involved in a variety of non-sporting activities and relationships which make it extremely difficult to identify the precise impact of sport.

2.8 Why surveys?

We chose to use either self-completion or interviewer-administered questionnaires for the majority of the data collection for several reasons:

- The lack of research expertise and a lack of understanding of programme theory meant that qualitative data gathering via in-depth interviews would have been impractical. Where this was attempted via the training of inexperienced personnel in KCCC the results were very limited, with little in-depth exploration of meaning or process (see Chapter 1).
- The face-to-face collection of qualitative data by organisational personnel would have almost inevitably led to social desirability bias.

- The need to provide technical support and assistance via email meant that the design of questionnaires and the implementation of surveys was the optimal logistical approach.
- One of the aims of the project was to contribute to the development of organisational M&E expertise. This was best achieved via developing the intellectual and technical aspects of questionnaire and survey design, survey implementation and subsequent quantitative data analysis and reporting.
- The use of questionnaires and the collection of quantitative data permitted some degree of inter-programme comparability.
- Much existing information relating to sport-of-development programmes is qualitative – ad hominem stories and case studies – or post facto surveys. This approach made an original contribution to the evaluation of the impact of such programmes.

2.9 The types of surveys

There are three possible approaches to assessing the impacts of participation in sport-for-development programmes:

- (i) Randomly allocated participant and non-participant groups in which before-and-after surveys are conducted to assess the relative impact of sports participation. If such an approach was reasonably longitudinal it could also control for developmental changes which might have occurred, irrespective of participation in sport. This is the ‘gold standard’, but for logistical and resource reasons was not possible.
- (ii) A before-and-after survey of participants in a sport-for-development programme, with any changes assumed to be a function of participation in the programme. This was the main method adopted for the project. However, in some circumstances, especially the EMIMA second survey and KCCC, the participants had been taking part in the programme for some time and these cannot be regarded as true before-and-after studies.
- (iii) A cross-sectional comparison between roughly matched samples of participants and non-participants selected from broadly similar communities. We adopted this approach for EMIMA and KCCC, with participants who had been in the programmes for periods of between 4 months and two years. The hypothesis is that participants who have been in sport-for-development programmes for some time will differ in significant ways from non-participants. One limitation of this approach is that it may tell us little about the impact of the programmes. For example, if we find no difference between the two groups this *might* reflect the

fact that those who took part in sport-for-development projects were initially 'deficient' and that participation has improved their scores on a number of factors. If we find a difference it might be explained by self-selection – those who choose to participate in sport-for-development programmes are different from non-participants. However, the data indicate that this is unlikely and such an approach provides useful comparisons.

We now turn to the data.

CHAPTER 3 SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS

3.1 Introduction

As illustrated in Chapter 2, perceived self-efficacy can be regarded as one of the basic building blocks for personal development as it relates to a person's beliefs in his or her ability to succeed in specific situations – to plan and to achieve goals. People with high self-efficacy are more likely to view difficult tasks as something to be mastered, rather than to be avoided. This is closely related to notions of *resilience* – the ability to deal with difficult situations, to overcome set-backs, to learn from defeat. Also it could be argued that the nature and practice of sport makes it an effective medium for the development of certain self-efficacy beliefs. The emphasis on practice, skill development and mastery and learning from defeat all seem to be important contributors to the development of perceived self-efficacy – the sense that particular competencies can be developed, tasks achieved and participants can learn from defeat.

In this section we will explore two types of data:

(i) Participant and non-participant comparisons

This analysis is based on surveys of participants in EMIMA and KCCC and *non-participants* drawn from the same community (EMIMA) and an equivalent community (KCCC) (see Chapter 1). The EMIMA respondents had been taking part in activities for at least 18 months and the KCCC respondents for between 6 months and two years. We chose to use the 'before' data for KCCC as this was more or less equivalent to the EMIMA sample and meant that all respondents would have completed the questionnaire once, thus avoiding any test/re-test issues. The sport-for-development assumption would be that participants who had been taking part for a minimum of six months would score higher on many of the 'personal development' factors than non-participants (irrespective of their pre-participation scores).

Limitations

Because the full self-efficacy scale was not used in these surveys we are not able to provide an overall score for purposes of comparison. Further, KCCC used a yes/no option – hence the different scores. Despite these limitations we can explore and compare the various elements of the concept, although the data can only be regarded as indicative.

(ii) Before and after surveys

Data will be analysed from the before-and-after surveys of participants in the Kids' League, EMIMA (GEP), Magic Bus Voyagers, Praajak and KCCC.

Limitations

There are three broad factors which must be borne in mind when interpreting the data.

- Only the Kids' League can be regarded as true 'before-and-after' survey, as respondents in the other surveys had been taking part in this or associated organisational programmes for some time before the initial survey and during the period up to the second survey. However, although this might strictly be regarded as a methodological limitation, it probably reflects the situation in most sport-for-development organisations. On-going programmes embedded in a wider set of organisational activities are relatively widespread and identifying precise sports-specific effects is very difficult.
- Praajak chose to collect their data using a yes/no format and using an 11 item scale instead of 12, so the full concept was not operationalised. Consequently, we cannot produce directly comparable scores.
- KCCC chose to use an *agree/disagree* format and a seven item scale. As with Praajak the full concept was not operationalised and we cannot produce comparable scores.

Note

- (i) The statistical tests undertaken on the data are described in Appendix 5.
- (ii) For ease of reading and analysis all tables and figures have been included in appendices.

3.2 Analysis

3.2.1 Participants and non-participants

EMIMA

On the measures used in the EMIMA surveys there were no statistically significant differences between the two sets of respondents' evaluations (Appendix 6) in relation to the *effort* components of self-efficacy. In both samples males had slightly higher scores than females and non-EMIMA males had the highest scores, but the differences are negligible. In terms of the limited measures of *initiative* and *persistence*, there were again no statistically significant differences between participants and non-participants., although non-EMIMA females had consistently higher scores than EMIMA females, with the differences between the males being random.

KCCC

In terms of the measures of *effort* non-KCCC respondents recorded statistically significant higher scores - there was only a 5 per cent chance that the differences occurred by chance. Non-KCCC females recorded the highest scores and much higher than the KCCC females. However, on measures relating to *initiative* and *persistence* KCCC participants consistently recorded higher scores than non-participants, although most of the differences were not statistically significant – i.e. they could simply reflect chance, or the type of people attracted to KCCC (Appendix 6).

We need to acknowledge that we do not have information about EMIMA and KCCC participants before they took part in the programmes and it is theoretically possible that participation has increased various aspects of their perceived self-efficacy and made them more like other members of the community. However, this is unlikely. Both samples were drawn from broadly similar communities and it is perhaps not surprising that there are no significant differences between the two groups of young people on the self-evaluation measures used in this study.

3.2.2 The before-and-after surveys

Before

- The first, and most significant, finding is that in all the ‘before’ data the distribution of self-evaluations conformed broadly to a bell-shaped curve – a relatively normal distribution (Appendix 7). Although minorities recorded both weak and very positive evaluations, the majority of respondents fell within a relatively normal range. Such data raise significant questions about any presumption of a standard, universal, need for ‘personal development’.
- Given the diversity of populations, cultures and contexts it is not surprising that there were slight variations in average scores between the three samples that used the full scale. The Kids’ League (the largest sample) had the highest average score (22), followed by the all-female EMIMA (21.6) and Magic Bus Voyagers (20). However, there was little overall difference in the *distribution* of values, with each group containing the same degree of individual diversity – although the Kids’ League and Magic Bus contained a number of individuals with lower self-efficacy scores than the all-female EMIMA sample (who had been participating in the programme for some time).

After

- The two African programmes – EMIMA and the Kids’ League – recorded statistically significant increases in their average self-efficacy scores. However, indicating that outcomes are contingent and possibly culturally-specific, Magic Bus Voyagers experienced a marginal, but non- statistically significant, *decrease* (Appendix 7).
- Again illustrating the contingent nature of impacts, using the limited scales, KCCC recorded a statistically significant *decrease*, with Praajak recording a non- statistically significant *increase*.
- However, the averages disguise a more complex and important set of effects. In all three projects using the full scale there were very high levels of adjustment of scores between the two surveys – in the Magic Bus Voyagers’ sample 93 per cent changed their scores, with 91 per cent in the Kids’ League and 88 per cent in EMIMA. The importance of such adjustments is that they included both increases and *decreases* in

self-evaluations – a more complex set of impacts than is assumed in much sport-for-development rhetoric.

- The all-female EMIMA sample exhibited the clearest positive changes, with only 17 per cent decreasing their self-evaluation, while three-quarters (76%) increased (this may in part reflect a possible social desirability bias). In the Kids' League two thirds (67%) improved their self-evaluation and a quarter (26%) experienced a decline. Among Magic Bus Voyagers the impact of the programme was more evenly spread, with about half (49%) increasing their self-efficacy and 44 per cent decreasing (Appendix 8).
- Even more importantly, there was a clear tendency in all three projects for those with scores at or below the average to *increase* their score and for those with scores above the average to *decrease* their scores – leading to reduced diversity within the groups. Although there were project-specific variations, the overall picture (for the full scale) is that many of those with the weakest self-evaluations improved their score – as would be expected on the basis of previous research (Fox 1992). This seems to indicate that those with lower self-efficacy have, in the right circumstances, the most to gain. Also there is a pattern for those with initially higher self-evaluations to adjust their evaluations downward (Appendix 8).
- On the limited scales, half of KCCC participants recorded a *reduction* in perceived self-efficacy, with about one quarter increasing their evaluation. Among Praajak participants, 58 per cent increased their self-evaluation, with 43 per cent recording a *decrease*.
- In the Kids' League the majority of females (51%) and males (55%) with initially *lower-than-average* self-efficacy scores increased their scores – with a quarter of females and one fifth of males with above average scores reducing them. Consequently, there was no statistically significant difference in the *degree of change* between males and females – the programme did not benefit significantly one sex more than the other. The picture in Magic Bus Voyagers is different, with females substantially increasing their average score to exceed that of boys, whose average score decreased. Not surprisingly, the difference in this *degree of change* was statistically significant - the Voyagers programme had a more positive impact on females. However, because the female sample was very small (n: 9) such data can only be regarded as indicative.
- The KCCC sample recorded a statistically significant reduction in the average. Further, females, who had a lower before self-evaluation than males, also experienced a substantially greater decline than males. This reduction in self-efficacy may be related to the fact that, as we will see, female respondents also adopted more negative attitudes towards the statement that girls *have less talent for sport than boys*.

- In terms of the component parts of perceived self-efficacy - initiative, effort and persistence - all recorded increases of varying degrees of significance. However, in terms of personal development, it is worth noting that all recorded the highest relative scores for *effort* and the lowest for *persistence*. Perhaps reflecting circumstances and culture, Magic Bus Voyagers consistently recorded much lower scores on these elements.
- These various shifts in self-evaluation are reflected in changes in the diversity of the groups. For example, the all-female EMIMA group, which recorded the greatest increase in perceived self-efficacy, became a less diverse group (SD: 3.46-2.74); the Kids' League who also increased the average score became a slightly less diverse group (SD: 3.85-3.68); Magic Bus Voyagers experienced a *decrease* in average scores and also became a less diverse group – explained largely by the reduction of some initially relatively high individual self-evaluations (Appendix 7).
- Praajak, using the more limited scale, illustrates the same broad pattern - a non-statistically significant increase in the average score and a slight reduction in diversity. However, KCCC deviates from this general pattern as it was and remained the least diverse group. However, although it experienced a statistically significant *reduction* in the average self-efficacy score it also increased in diversity.

3.3 Implications

In terms of policy and practice, there are a number of important conclusions to be drawn from these data.

The deficit model

With such a variety of self-evaluations the data raise significant questions about simple deficit models of young people and easy generalisations about 'development needs'. Although most of these young people live in highly deprived social and economic circumstances they cannot be regarded as uniformly 'deficient'. In fact it might be conjectured that living in such economic deprivation means that many have to have relatively high levels of perceived self-efficacy in order to survive. Further, many live in relatively homogeneous cultural and religious communities which serve to sustain relatively normal levels of self-efficacy beliefs – albeit with inevitable individual differences. Such diversity raises interesting questions about the definition of 'target groups' and their presumed 'needs', programme design and delivery and the definition of appropriate performance indicators.

Changes in self-evaluation

The extent of changes in self-evaluation raises interesting questions about how we assess programme-effects, especially as the implicit deficit model would imply that all, or most, will *increase* their perceived self-efficacy. Firstly, it is inevitable that participation in different

programmes will affect different people, in different contexts in different ways and it would be very surprising if decreases in self-evaluation did not occur. Even in the exceptionally positive results produced by EMIMA, nearly one fifth (17%) of participants reduced their self-evaluation and a number of individuals who started with below average scores *decreased* their evaluations. Clearly perceptions of self-efficacy are tested constantly and more so when participating in new activities or in mixed-ability groups - you discover that you are better or worse than you thought. It is possible that a reduction in self-efficacy is merely a realistic adjustment based on practical experience, which is not necessarily a negative outcome. But it is certainly one of which programme providers should be aware.

The direction of change

Although there were project-specific variations, the overall picture (for those who used the full scale) is that many of those with the weakest self-evaluations improved their score. This would be expected on the basis of previous research (Fox, 1992), which indicates that those with low self-efficacy have, in the right circumstances, the most to gain. Also there is an associated pattern of those with initially higher than average self-evaluations lowering this as a result of participation. This pattern was most obvious in Magic Bus and the Kids' League.

In terms of sex-related impacts the only robust mixed-sex data set – the Kids' League – indicates that there was no significant difference in the *degree of change* between males and females – the programme did not benefit significantly one sex more than the other.

Group diversity

These various shifts in self-evaluation are reflected in the shifts in the relative diversity of the groups. For example, the all-female EMIMA, which experienced the greatest increase in self-efficacy, became a less diverse group (SD: 3.84-3.18); the Kids' League which also increased average self-efficacy became slightly less diverse (SD: 3.85-3.68); Magic Bus Voyagers experienced a *decrease* in average scores and also became a less diverse group – explained largely by the reduction of some initially relatively high self-evaluations. Perhaps such outcomes are not surprising. If the aim of most sport-for-development organisations is to emphasise inclusivity, then groups are likely to become less diverse over time. However, it is important not to over-emphasise this clear trend, as the groups remained diverse and there were real differences between the three programmes. Such effects are mediated by the nature of participants, programme practice and ethos and cultural context.

We now turn to consideration of a concept which emphasises individuality – self-esteem.

CHAPTER 4: SELF-ESTEEM

4.1 Introduction

Perceived self-efficacy relates to an individual's perception of her or his ability to achieve a task or to solve a problem and is usually based in practical experience. However, self-esteem relates to an individual's assessment of her or his own self-worth and this may or may not relate to actual perceived capabilities (we will look at the relationships in Chapter 5). Sport *may* contribute to the strengthening of self-esteem, but, being good or bad at something about which you care little will have limited impact on how you value yourself.

Self-esteem is regarded both as a relatively enduring personality characteristic (trait self-esteem) and subject to normal, short-term variations (state self-esteem). One's self-assessment can change with circumstances and is also dependent on how one is treated by significant others – this is especially so if trait self-esteem is weak. Therefore self-esteem, to some degree, is dependent on how individuals are treated by others - recognition, acceptance, status and appreciation are important to a sense of self-worth. It is also susceptible to social desirability bias - respondents want to give a positive impression - and this might be a particular problem in performance and success-oriented sport-for-development projects.

As with self-efficacy we will explore two types of data:

(i) Participant and non-participant comparisons

This analysis is based on surveys of participants in EMIMA and KCCC and *non-participants* drawn from the same community (EMIMA) and an equivalent community (KCCC) (see Chapter 1). The EMIMA respondents had been taking part in activities for at least 18 months and the KCCC respondents for between 6 months and two years. We chose to use the 'before' data for KCCC as this was more or less equivalent to the EMIMA sample and meant that all respondents would have completed the questionnaire once only.

(ii) Before and after surveys

All organisations used the standard Rosenberg self-esteem scale so we can present data from the Kids' League, EMIMA (GEP), Magic Bus Voyagers, Praajak and KCCC.

Limitations

The project-related limitations outlined in Chapter 2 must be borne in mind when interpreting the data.

4.2 Analysis

4.2.1 Participants and non-participants

EMIMA

Although the non-EMIMA sample recorded a marginally higher average score than participants, the difference was not statistically significant. Despite having been in the EMIMA programme for at least 18 months, participants appear to have remained relatively representative of the community from which they are drawn (Appendix 9).

KCCC

KCCC presents a different picture. It also had a lower average self-esteem score than the non-participant sample, but the difference was statistically significant. The KCCC average score was the lowest in all the surveys undertaken for this project and there was a distinct skew towards the lower end of the 15-25 ‘normal’ range. On the other hand several non-participants recorded self-assessments in excess of the ‘normal’ range (Appendix 9). Further, the KCCC sample had *much* less diversity than the non-participant sample (an SD of 1.57 compared to 3.71). On this basis one might describe the KCCC group as both humble and homogeneous.

This very distinct pattern might in part be explained by a ‘levelling’ impact of participation in team sports, although data from the other surveys suggest this is unlikely to produce such a low average and lack of diversity. Alternatively, the lack of diversity on this measure might reflect the fact that the KCCC respondents are drawn from a tightly defined geographical area, with a sense of local identity created and supported by shared poverty and membership of programmes run by a strongly religious organisation.

Consequently both of the participant samples had lower average scores for self-esteem than non-participants, although only in the case of KCCC was this statistically significant and the KCCC sample was particularly distinctive. One interpretation of these data is that there are a variety of sources of self-esteem and participation in a sports-for-development programme will be only one, relatively minor, influence.

4.2.2 Before-and-after surveys

Before

- As with self-efficacy, the ‘before’ data in all surveys indicated that participants hold a wide variety of self-evaluations. Although each project had a slightly different profile, the distribution of self-evaluations conformed broadly to a bell-shaped curve – a relatively normal distribution (Appendix 9).
- The majority of respondents scored within the range regarded as ‘normal’ (15-25) (although the definition of normal may be partly cultural).

- There was some slight variation in average scores, with the all-female EMIMA (20.8) and the Kids' League (20.4) having the highest – although the Kids' League contained some *very* high individual self-evaluations (which reduced in the after data). The lowest average scores were recorded by the two Indian projects – Magic Bus (18.8) and the all-male Praajak (18.9) - and KCCC (18.4). As noted above, the KCCC sample was a highly distinctive group, with *much* less diversity than the others and with all but one falling within the 'normal' range, with a skew towards the lower end of the range (Appendix 10).
- Both Indian programmes had the highest proportion falling below the lower end of 15-25 'normal' range - Praajak (16%) and Magic Bus (14%), even though respondents had been participating in Magic Bus programmes for at least two years. KCCC had 9 per cent falling below this level, with the Kids' League having 7 per cent. The distinctive all-female EMIMA sample (who had been participating in EMIMA activities for at least four months) had only 1 per cent of respondents below the bottom of the normal range - a very distinctive distribution.
- KCCC participants, who were recruited from a relatively coherent and geographically bound community, had easily the most homogeneous 'before' sample (SD: 1.57). Magic Bus Voyagers had the most heterogeneous (SD: 4.63) and it also had the most heterogeneous distribution for self-efficacy.

After

- Average self-esteem scores increased for all projects except Praajak, which recorded a minor and non-statistically significant decline (Appendix 10).
- However the increases were not statistically significant, meaning that they could have occurred by chance. The exception to this was the all-female EMIMA sample, which also recorded a statistically significant increase in self-efficacy. Here, with a number of *very* high scores, it is possible that social desirability bias exaggerated an underlying trend.
- As with self-efficacy, the averages disguise a more complex set of effects. In all projects there were very high levels of adjustment of scores – in the Praajak sample 93 per cent changed their scores, 91 per cent in KCCC and EMIMA, 87 per cent in the Kids' League and 79 per cent in Magic Bus Voyagers (Appendix 10).
- The all-female EMIMA sample exhibited the highest proportion of positive changes, with 58 per cent increasing their evaluation. Nevertheless, one-third (33%) recorded a *decrease* in self-esteem scores. In the Kids' League 47 per cent increased and 40 per cent decreased their scores; changes in KCCC were evenly balanced with just under half recording both an increase and a decrease.

However, the two Indian programmes were distinctively different. In Magic Bus Voyagers only one-third (34%) increased their scores, with 45 per cent recording a decrease. The biggest reduction in self-esteem was recorded by Praajak – 55 per cent, which accounted for the fact that this programme was the only one to record a decline in the average score. Perhaps, this partly reflects the fact that part of the railway children’s self-esteem was context-specific – ‘platform confidence’ – and that the changed contexts, new relationships and adventure training led to a re-evaluation (although it must be remembered that during the long period before the first and last camps all were involved in the on-going Praajak activities and relationships). However, the individual element of any explanation is indicated by the fact that two individuals recorded scores in excess of the normal range (and at least one of these started with a *below normal range score* – an extraordinary increase) (Appendix 10).

- Excluding the EMIMA data, overall nearly half (46%) of the female participants experienced an increase in self-esteem, compared to 41 per cent of males. Males were slightly more likely to experience a reduction - 44 per cent compared to 39 per cent for females.
- As with self-efficacy, there is a clear tendency in all projects for those with scores at or below the average to *increase* their scores and for those with scores above the average to *decrease* (Appendix 11). Of those who started with *below average scores*, in the Kids’ League more males (52%) than females (37%) increased their score. Conversely, in Magic Bus more females than males did so and in KCCC equal proportions of below average males and females increased their scores. Such data once again illustrate the contingent and relatively unpredictable nature of such effects.
- However, these are only general tendencies, as in several cases individuals with *above average* initial scores also *increased* their scores – most obviously in EMIMA and KCCC. Also in Magic Bus, Praajak and the Kids’ League there was a distinct pattern of some respondents with below average self-assessment to *reduce* their score (Appendix 11).
- Despite higher proportions of females increasing their scores, in the two most robust mixed-sex samples – the Kids’ League and KCCC - there were no significant differences in the *degree of change* between males and females. In other words these programmes did not seem to benefit significantly one sex more than the other. In the much smaller Magic Bus Voyager sample there was a statistically significant difference between the *degree of change* for females compared to males - similar to the situation with perceived self-efficacy. However, because of the very small sample size (n: 9) this can only be regarded as indicative. For example, it is not clear if such effects related to the nature of the programme, or reflected the processes involved in a small and coherent group of females.

- Unlike the shifts in perceived self-efficacy, the various adjustments to more ego-centric self-esteem did not always lead to reduced diversity within the groups. In the cases of KCCC, Praajak and EMIMA, diversity increased (in the case of EMIMA, this was caused by the emergence of some *very* high individual self-evaluations).
- Although the KCCC sample had been participating for some time, there was a rather dramatic increase in diversity, with the standard deviation increasing from 1.57 to 3.7 (even after removing two very extreme ‘outriders’). This is accounted for largely by major increases in several participants’ self-esteem - with four (3 male and one female) above the ‘normal range’. Also, the male average increased much more than the females’. It is difficult to explain such a growth in diversity of self-esteem and individuality among people who had been in the programme for a considerable period of time when the initial measure was taken. Further, this increase in self-esteem and increased diversity occurred in parallel with a *decline* in the average self-efficacy score (we will explore these relationships in Chapter 5).

4.3 Implications

The deficit model

As with self-efficacy, the key conclusion is that despite quite significant inter-project variations, all recorded a diversity of self-evaluations and in all projects the majority of young people had what could be regarded as ‘normal’ evaluation of their own self-worth. However, reflecting either cultural attitudes to self-esteem, or the highly deprived nature of participants, the two Indian projects had much higher proportions falling below what is regarded as the ‘normal’ range. If such measurements are valid, then some of these respondents had very low levels of self-worth and might have been in need of individual attention, rather than simply participating in a collective activity.

Changes in self-evaluation

All programmes except Praajak recorded an increase in the average score, although only EMIMA recorded a statistically significant increase. This paralleled the statistically significant increase in self-efficacy and this sample also had the highest proportion of scores above the top of the normal range. This might be explained by it being an all-female programme, with no comparisons with male players (which seems to have produced some negative female responses in KCCC), leading to the development of high levels of self-evaluation. However, our concerns about social desirability bias must be borne in mind, especially in relation to some of the extremely high scores, which may have exaggerated an underlying trend.

Although higher proportions of females increased their scores, in the two most robust samples – the Kids’ League and KCCC - there were no significant differences in the *degree of change* between males and females. In other words, as with self-efficacy, these

programmes did not benefit significantly one sex more than the other (except in the exceptional circumstances of Magic Bus Voyagers).

Here, it is worth remembering that the two samples of KCCC and EMIMA participants, who had been in the programmes for some time, did not have higher average levels of self-esteem than non-participants. The mostly non-statistically significant increases in the average score may well still be within the community average, although this is not to deny the impact on *individuals*. However, although such programmes do lead to increases in individuals' self-esteem, the impact varies both between and within programmes in ways which are not wholly predictable and seem to contain a substantial element of individual chance.

The contingent and possible cultural nature of these outcomes is illustrated by the fact that the two Indian projects both finished with the lowest average scores and the greatest degree of variety (Magic Bus also recorded the lowest self-efficacy score). The Praajak average score declined and the Magic Bus Voyager score increased only marginally. However, if we exclude the very small sample of females in Magic Bus who experienced significant increases in both self-esteem and self-efficacy, we are left with the possibility that the nature of the two programmes and associated relationships and activities are less effective than many of the African projects. Or, the nature of these male participants is substantially different from many of the African respondents. Or, there are cultural issues about such ego-centric measures, which limit our ability to compare African and Indian projects. Perhaps the *meaning* of these measures is context-related.

Direction of change

As with self-efficacy, the strong tendency was for those with initial scores at or below average to increase their scores – a positive outcome. However, an outcome rarely considered in the rhetoric of sport-for-development, is that substantial proportions *reduced* their self-esteem (as also happened for self-efficacy). Further, in most cases this resulted in those with an initial *higher-than-average* self-esteem reducing their score. This may have reflected a more 'considered' approach to the completion of the questionnaire on the second occasion, or the experience of sport and associated collective activities leading to reconsideration.

In other words such re-evaluations cannot automatically be considered as negative outcomes - appropriate levels of self-esteem might be a better policy aim than some of the rather extreme levels achieved in EMIMA. As noted in Chapter 2, such very high levels of self-esteem are not necessarily a positive trait, with research indicating that such individuals are often likely to reject social influence, may be disruptive or take unnecessary risks – or they may simply reflect bragging. How one assesses such findings depends on how self-esteem is viewed and the aims of the programmes – although the evidence suggests that such issues are not considered in any systematic manner.

Group diversity

Unlike the shifts in perceived self-efficacy, the various adjustments to the more ego-centric self-esteem did not always lead to reduced diversity within the groups. In the cases of KCCC, Praajak and EMIMA, diversity on this measure increased - in the case of EMIMA, this was caused by the emergence of some *very* high individual self-evaluations. The extent to which this was a desired effect and the nature of its impact on group dynamics (if any) is a something for the programme providers to consider.

The contingent nature of impacts

These data again indicate the contingent, context-specific and often unpredictable nature of the impact of such diverse programmes on self-evaluations. Clearly participation in these programmes led to increases in the self-esteem of some participants – often those who started with *below average* self-evaluations and they were frequently female. It is probably many of these individuals who are chosen to represent the ‘success’ of such programmes. However, it is clear that they do not tell the full story of how such programmes operate, or their overall impacts. Despite the obviously positive impacts on a number of individuals all, but one of the projects experienced *non-statistically significant changes*.

The difficulties in generalising about these data are best expressed by Pawson et al (2004: 7):

It is through the workings of entire systems of social relationships that any changes in behaviours, events and social conditions are effected.... Rarely if ever is the ‘same’ programme equally effective in all circumstances because of the influence of contextual factors.

We now return to the issue outlined in Chapter 2 – the presumption that improved self-efficacy beliefs will lead participants to feel better about themselves and thereby increase their self-esteem, which is often viewed as necessary for personal and social development.

CHAPTER 5: RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SELF-EFFICACY AND SELF-ESTEEM

5.1 Introduction

As explained in Chapter 2, an implicit assumption of many sport-for-development programmes seems to be that participation will lead to a sense of increased achievement and strengthened self-efficacy. In turn this combination of achievement and belief in one's ability to plan and implement will lead to increased self-esteem. Spence et al (2005) refer to this as the 'hierarchical model'. Improved performance (e.g. football skills) may lead to an increase in physical self-efficacy (e.g. football skills) which, if valued, *may* lead to improved self-efficacy and, if valued, then *may* contribute to a strengthened sense of self-esteem. The combination of strengthened self-efficacy - I can do - and improved self-esteem - I am a person of value - are presumed to be desired individual 'development outcomes'.

However, the complication is that aspects of both are dependent on context. Changes in self-perception may result not directly from sport per se, but from sport *plus* – the manner in which the programme is delivered, the various associated activities and workshops and the nature of the social relationships involved. It is to some degree dependent on how individuals are treated by others - recognition, acceptance, affirmation and the degree of status achieved (e.g. taking on the role of peer leader) are important to a sense of self-worth. For example, 'attractiveness' factors which make people stay with such programmes cannot be separated from those that promote self-esteem - for example, the qualities of the leader, the exercise setting and relationships with other participants.

It is of course possible to view the measures of self-efficacy and self-esteem as two distinct measures and simply report the extent and direction of changes, as we have done in Chapters 3 and 4. However, as these are measures of changes in self-evaluation, it might be assumed that there is *some* relationship between them. Further, *if* sport-for-development programmes aspire to improve self-efficacy and self-esteem (the vague terminology used to describe most programmes does not make this clear), then an exploration of possible relationships in these two measures of self-evaluation has potentially important implications for programme design and delivery. It may also contribute to progress towards greater clarity in the definition of desired outcomes.

5.2 The strength of the relationships

5.2.1 The approach

Self-evaluations are dependent on a variety of personal, social and contextual factors and we do not have the detailed data to explore all aspects of such relationships. Also, because both measures were taken at the same point in time we cannot explore the *direction of cause* – whether self-efficacy impacts on self-esteem or vice versa. However, we can look at the broad *relationships between movements* in self-efficacy and self-esteem for those projects

which collected data on the full self-efficacy scale – EMIMA, Magic Bus and the Kids’ League. Interestingly, the project hierarchy of average self-efficacy scores is the same as that for self-esteem, with EMIMA having the highest average, followed by Kids’ League and then Magic Bus - indicating some degree of consistency between the two *sets* of self-evaluations.

In this section we explore the strength of the correlations between the *degree of change* in self-efficacy and self-esteem. To do this we used two statistical tests:

(i) The *correlation coefficient* tells us the extent to which there is a relationship between both measures and the strength of this relationship. A score of 1 would mean that there is a perfect positive correlation between the two measures – an increase in one being associated with a proportionally related increase in the other. A score of 0 indicates that the relationship is wholly random.

(ii) The *significance test* takes into account issues such as sample size and the probability that the measured relationship is a product of chance. For example, this might say that there is a 20 per cent probability that the measured relationship is by chance ($p=.200$). Usually a probability of 5 per cent or less ($p < .05$) is considered statistically significant.

5.2.2 Kids’ League

In the Kids’ League there were statistically significant increases for both male and female evaluations of self-efficacy, with males having the larger increase. In the case of self-esteem there were marginal and statistically non-significant increases for both sexes. In both cases there was no statistically significant difference in the *degree of change* between males and females – the programme did not benefit significantly one sex more than the other.

The Kids’ League produces the strongest correlation between changes in self-efficacy and self-esteem – especially for males. For males there is a strong relationship between *changes* in self-efficacy and self-esteem ($r_s=.505$), with a very strong level of significance ($p=.000$) – it is unlikely that this relationship has occurred by chance. This may reflect the wider research finding that boys place a relatively high emphasis on sport in terms of their self-definition.

The correlation coefficient for females is weaker ($r_s=.357$), but there is nevertheless some degree of relationship between changes in the two evaluations. Also, with a significance level of $p=.004$, it is unlikely that this relationship is a product of chance. Research would suggest that this effect might reflect either a positive attitude to body-image and physical self-esteem, or sources of social acceptance and friendship networks.

For whatever reason these data indicate that there is a relatively strong relationship between the degree of change in self-efficacy and self-esteem during the Kids’ League programme, although we do not know the direction of cause.

5.2.3 EMIMA

The increase in the average self-efficacy score in this all-female group was statistically significant. This group had the highest initial score and this increase is easily the strongest effect among all the projects. The increase in the average self-esteem score was also statistically significant (although this contained some extremely high scores).

However, despite these changes the correlation coefficient for *changes* in self-efficacy and self-esteem is relatively weak ($r_s=.229$) and a level of significance of $p=.200$ indicates that there is a 20 per cent chance that the relationship is random. In other words, although EMIMA exhibited statistically significant increases for both self-efficacy and self-esteem the relationship between the changes in these two evaluations is not particularly strong and subject to a considerable degree of randomness. Change in one facet of self-evaluation does not predict change in the other for this sample.

5.2.4 Magic Bus Voyagers

This programme illustrates a substantially different picture from the other two, with a statistically non-significant *decline* in the average self-efficacy score. However, although the average score for males decreased slightly, the female score increased to exceed the boys (although the female sample is very small).

There was a minimal increase in the average self-esteem score. Again the nine females started with a much lower average score than males, yet finished with a higher average score. Not surprisingly, in both cases the difference in the *degrees of change* was statistically significant, with the programme having its biggest positive impact on the small group of females.

The correlation coefficient for females is strong ($r_s=.622$) and the significance test indicates that there is only a 10 per cent possibility that the relationship is by chance. However, as this is a very small group, care needs to be taken and such data should only be regarded as indicative. The correlation coefficient for males is weak ($r_s=.217$), as is the significance ($p=.203$). This indicates that the relationship between changes in self-efficacy and self-esteem is weak, with a large element of randomness.

5.3 Conclusions

Although such data cannot be regarded as definitive, they do give us food for thought. In the project with the most statistically robust increases for both self-efficacy and self-esteem – EMIMA – the relationship between the *changes* in both measures is weak. There is a substantial degree of randomness, with increases in the measures operating relatively independently.

With the Kids' League there is a clear and robust relationship between changes in self-efficacy and self-esteem for males. The relationship is weaker for females, but although it contains a greater degree of randomness, there is also some degree of relationship.

In Magic Bus Voyagers there are statistically strong relationships between changes in self-efficacy and self-esteem in the very small sample of females. However, the relationship for males is weak, with a high degree of randomness.

The verdict on these data must be the Scottish one of ‘not proven’ – we do not have sufficient evidence to decide on guilt or innocence, or cause and effect. The data from the mixed-sex Kids’ League and Magic Bus Voyagers indicate the possibility that there is a relationship between changes in self-efficacy and self-esteem for females, but this is not supported by the all-female EMIMA data. The data from the Kid’s League illustrates a strong relationship for males between changes in self-efficacy and self-esteem, but this is not confirmed by the Voyagers’ data.

The explanation for some of these differences lies in the processes, relationships and experiences which ‘produced’ them. We have emphasised that we do not know the direction of cause – whether self-efficacy impacts on self-esteem or vice versa. Some of the programmes may, for example, place a substantial emphasis on developing self-efficacy and emphasising its relationship to self-worth. Further, this may or may not be more effective for females than males. On the other hand it is quite possible that a third factor - a set of experiences - leads to a parallel increase in both measures. Both measures are subjective evaluations and known to be influenced by a range of environmental factors and social processes. Some programmes may be successful at increasing both sets of beliefs, with no necessarily *causal* relationship between the two.

These data indicate that, in certain circumstances, for certain people there is a relatively strong relationship between *changes* in self-efficacy and *changes* in self esteem (even in programmes where the overall statistical significance of change is weak). That in itself is an important finding. However, the limitations of our ability to explain these changes and the nature of the relationship points to significant, and unexplored, questions about programme processes which lead to such differing outcomes. The answers to such questions have substantial implications for the development and delivery of sport-for-development programmes.

CHAPTER 6: GENDER ATTITUDES

6.1 Introduction

For many sport-for-development organisations issues of gender attitudes and behaviour are central to their mission. For some this reflects a commitment to the UN Millennium Development Goal of eliminating gender inequities in primary and secondary education and addressing issues of gender inequality more generally. For others, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, it is intimately related to issues of HIV and AIDS and based on an analysis that the spread of the disease is partly to be explained by the culturally, socially and economically subordinate position of girls and women. In this context many sport-for-development organisations aspire to change men's attitudes to women and to 'empower' women.

These issues were explored via a series of questions agreed by the various projects as broadly reflecting the desired outcomes of the programme. KCCC, EMIMA, Kids' League and Magic Bus all included questions relating to gender. Although each chose a slightly different selection, the broad categories of issues included were:

- Sports-specific gender attitudes.
- Women and men's role in the home.
- Women's rights to education.
- Women's role in business and politics.
- Women's rights in relation to choosing a marriage partner.
- Responsibility for preventing pregnancy.

These categories move from the immediate sporting environment in which one might expect the greatest impact on attitudes, via issues relating to domestic rights and responsibilities, to wider issues about women's societal role and moral and ethical questions about marriage and pregnancy.

6.1.1 Values and interpretation

Responses to many of these questions are often difficult to interpret and it is not always clear what the organisations would expect to achieve - what a successful outcome would look like. Firstly, it is not clear if such issues were dealt with via a formal 'curriculum' in which they are addressed directly and discussed. Or, as is more likely, the assumption is that attitude change occurs via the 'hidden curriculum' contained in the provision of inclusive sporting opportunities and the encouraging of a degree of mutual respect and understanding between the sexes. Secondly, many of these issues, which were chosen by the programmes, deal with deep-rooted cultural attitudes and in some cases religio-moral beliefs. In such circumstances there is no obvious reason to believe that participation in these programmes will change traditional attitudes towards such institutions as the family and gender-related responsibilities. In fact, some religious-based organisations may seek to reinforce them.

Because of these factors it is very unlikely that a consensus could be achieved on most of these issues in any survey, in any community. Consequently, it is difficult to decide on the precise ‘effectiveness’ of programmes. Thirdly, any evaluation of many of these answers entails clear value judgements. In a sense many of the attitudes simply ‘are’ and to evaluate them implies a set of normative judgements which also need to be defended.

Again we will explore two types of data:

(i) Participant and non-participant comparisons

This analysis is based on surveys of participants in EMIMA and KCCC and *non-participants* drawn from the same community (EMIMA) and an equivalent community (KCCC) (see Chapter 1). The EMIMA respondents had been taking part in activities for at least 18 months and the KCCC respondents for between 6 months and two years. We chose to use the ‘before’ data for KCCC as this was more or less equivalent to the EMIMA sample and meant that all respondents would have completed the questionnaire once only.

(ii) Before and after surveys

All organisations except Praajak asked questions about gender attitudes, although not all asked the same questions. In this chapter we concentrate on the most common issues.

Limitations

The project-related limitations outlined in Chapter 2 must be borne in mind when interpreting the data.

Care needs to be taken in interpreting these data because the relatively small sub-sample sizes mean that a few respondents can represent relatively large proportions.

6.2 Analysis

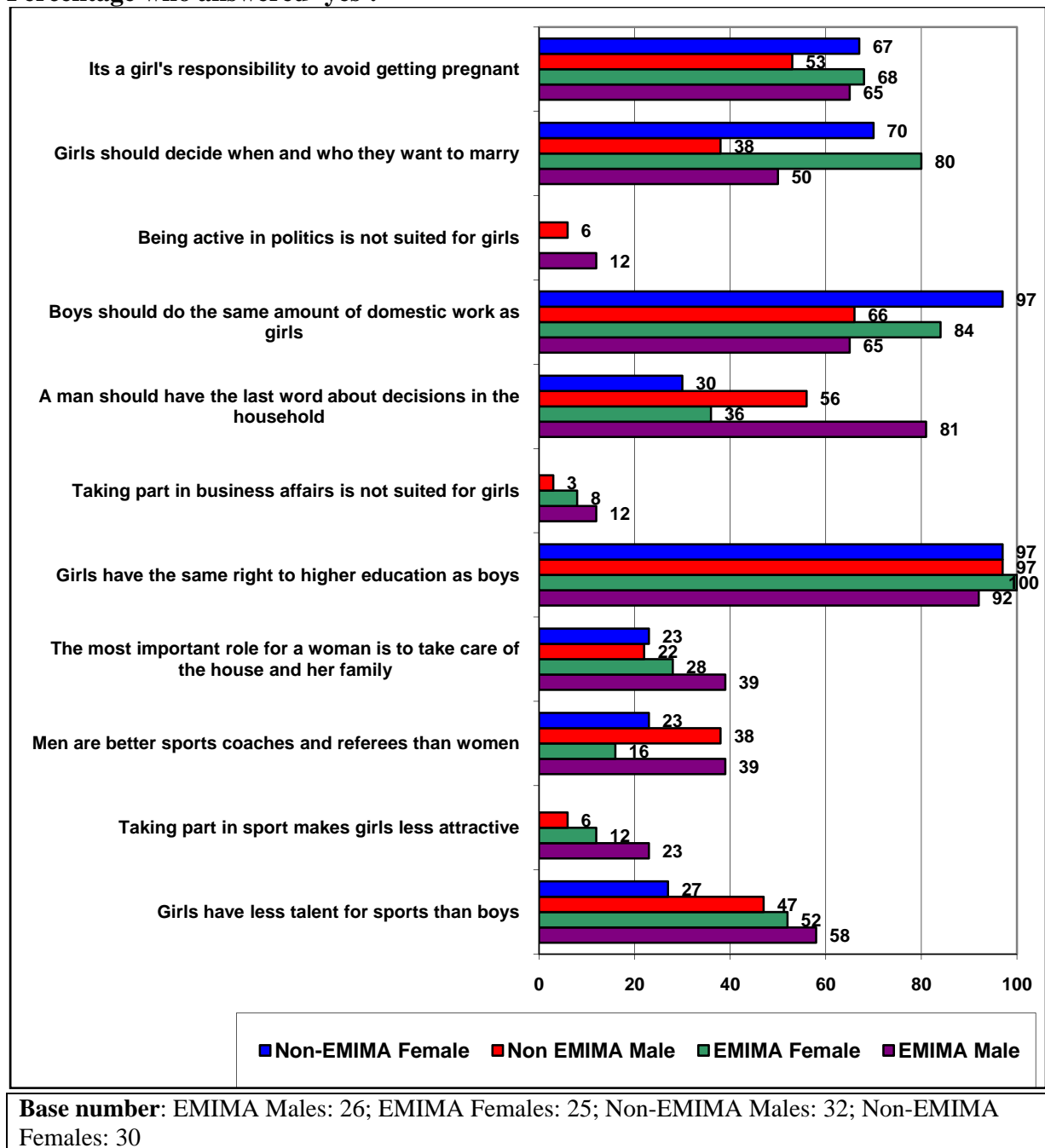
6.2.1 Participants and non-participants

Gender and sport

The evidence regarding the most immediate sphere of experience – sporting attitudes - is mixed and illustrates that even when dealing with issues relating to the core concerns of sport-for-development projects, impacts are contingent. Although they were minority positions, both EMIMA males and females were more likely than non-participants to believe that *girls have less talent for sport than boys* (Figure 1). The males were the most conservative on this issue and were more likely to agree that *taking part in sport makes girls less attractive* and that *men are better sports coaches than women*. It should also be noted that, although they were minority positions, EMIMA females also adopted slightly more conservative views than non-EMIMA females on some of these issues (although they

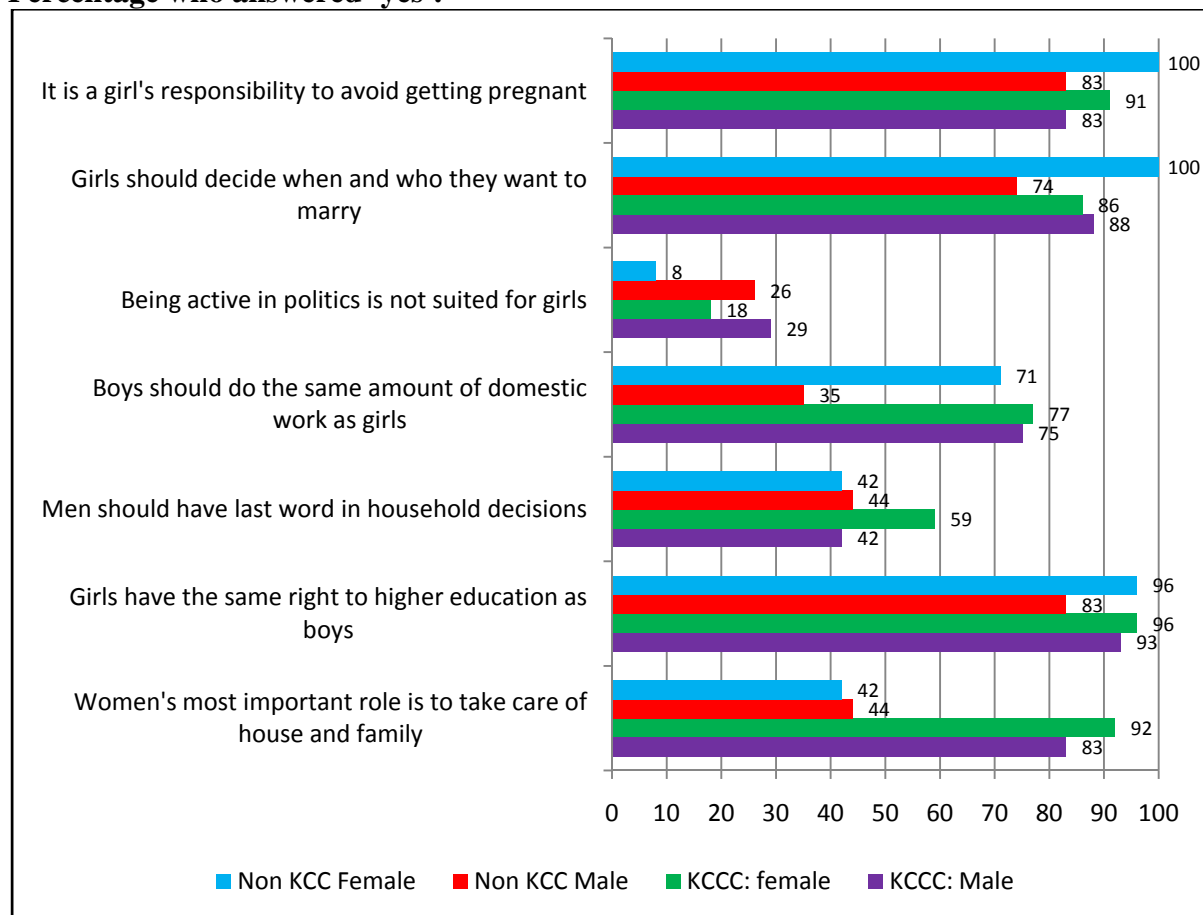
expressed the strongest disagreement with the statement that *men were better coaches and referees than women*).

Figure 1: Gender attitudes EMIMA and non-EMIMA. Male and female
Percentage who answered 'yes'.



The KCCC picture is different. In relation to *girls having less talent than boys* and *taking part in sport makes girls less attractive*, KCCC males were less likely than non-KCCC males to believe this, but much more likely than KCCC females (Figure 2). All were much more likely than EMIMA to believe that *men are better sports coaches than women*, with KCCC females more likely to believe this than KCCC males.

Figure 2: Gender attitudes. KCCC and non-KCCC. Male and female
Percentage who answered ‘yes’.



Base number: KCCC Males: 24; KCCC Females: 22; Non-KCCC Males: 23; Non-KCCC Females: 24

Although these are mostly minority opinions, the experience of participation in relatively competitive sporting environments seems to have emphasised perceived gender differences in abilities for many participants – in some cases they are more ‘conservative’ than non-participants. However, it is not clear what the organisations would have expected to achieve on such issues.

Women and the household

The data are difficult to interpret as there are few clear and consistent differences between participants and non-participants – itself an important finding - and many ‘conservative’ views are minority positions. Nevertheless KCCC and, especially, EMIMA males adopt more conservative views than others on some issues, especially that *the most important role for women is to take care of the house and family* and that *a man should have the last word about decisions in the household*. Also, KCCC females were more likely to hold more traditional views than non-participants on such issues as *women’s most important role is to take care of the house and family* and *men should have the last word in household decisions*. Possibly

indicating the importance of religion and culture, KCCC females were also more conservative than EMIMA females on these issues.

On the more general issue that *girls have the same right to higher education as boys* there was a high level of agreement among both participants and non-participants. In relation to the *girls deciding when and who to marry* there were high levels of agreement in the KCCC sample. However, EMIMA females had a clearly distinct position – agreeing with this position much more strongly than both non-participants and male participants.

One interesting issue relates to the statement that it is a *girl's responsibility to avoid getting pregnant*. In all categories of respondent there was majority support for this – although this was consistently higher in the KCCC participant and non-participant samples – about two thirds of the EMIMA females agreed and 91 per cent of KCCC females. Of course this is a somewhat crude question – it was chosen by the projects - and care is needed in its interpretation. Perhaps a question relating to joint responsibility would have been more informative.

6.2.2 Conclusions

It is difficult to evaluate such data and to understand what the organisations would expect to achieve – why would individuals from the same communities and faith groups differ on certain gender-related issues simply by taking part in sport-for-development programmes? These issues deal with deep-rooted cultural and religio-moral beliefs. For example, the majority Muslim EMIMA sample could be regarded as more ‘conservative’ on these issues than the majority Christian non-EMIMA respondents from the same community; the female members of the Catholic KCCC have a tendency to have more traditional views than the female non-participants and even the EMIMA participants.

If we simply regard most of the differences between participants and non-participants as not significant – they might have occurred by chance - it is reasonable to conclude that EMIMA and KCCC provide a valued and enjoyable experience, but that it is only one of a range of experiences and influences in the lives of participants. Consequently, to expect fundamental differences in self-evaluations and attitudes is unrealistic, even if there are systematic attempts to change them. The nature of the self-evaluations and attitudes which sport-for-development programmes seek to address are products of, and sustained by, a broader complex of social and cultural institutions. In such circumstances, while seeking to provide sporting opportunities and develop a degree of mutual respect and understanding between the sexes, there is no reason to believe that they seek to address certain ‘traditional’ attitudes towards the family and gender-related responsibilities. In fact, some religious-based organisations may seek to reinforce such attitudes.

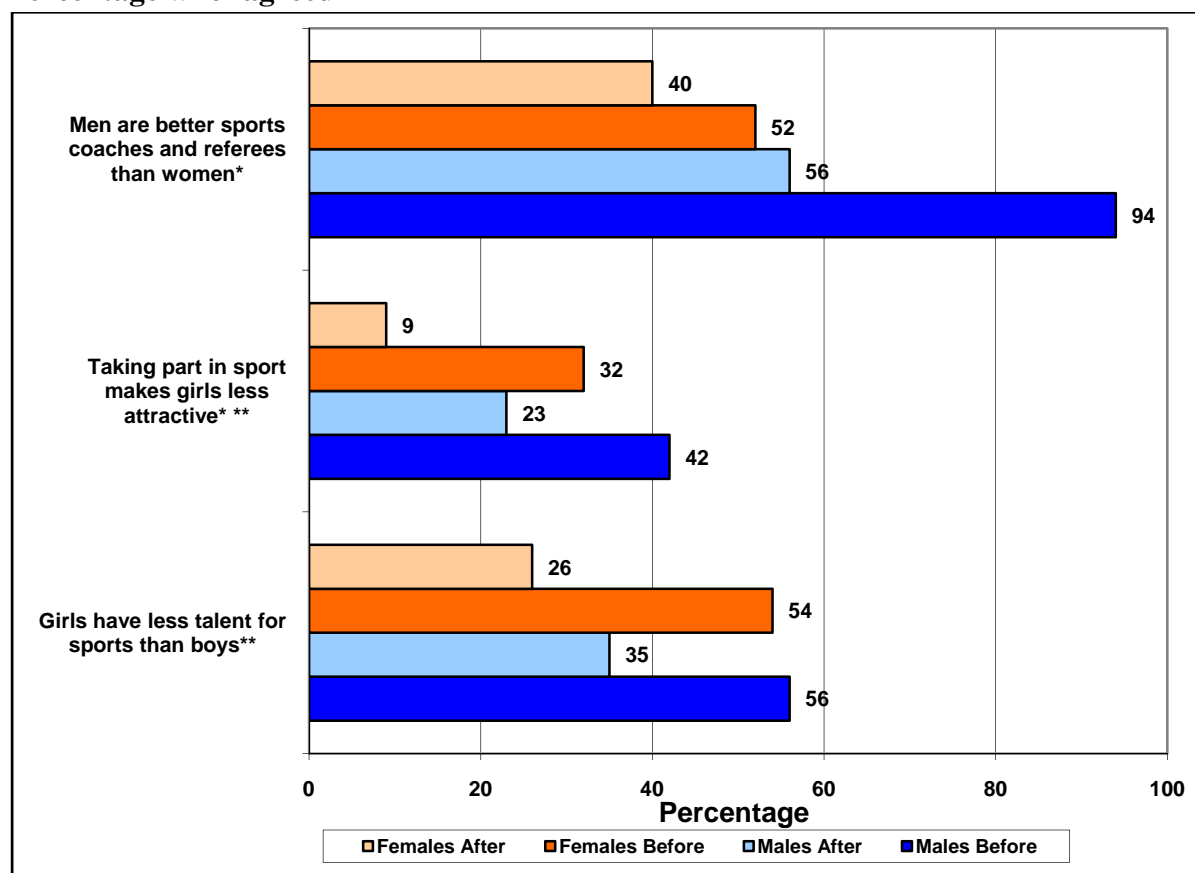
We now turn to the data from the before-and-after surveys which again serve to illustrate the essentially contingent nature of outcomes.

6.3 Before-and-after surveys

6.3.1 Kids' League

The Kids' League, which achieved increases in both average self-efficacy and self-esteem, also achieved substantial improvements in opinion by both sexes on all issues, with statistically significant movement for females relating to *girls having less talent for sport than boys* and *sport making girls less attractive*. The males had statistically significant improvements on the issues of *attractiveness* and *men being better coaches and referees than women*.

Figure 3: Sport and gender attitudes: Kids' League
Percentage who 'agreed'



Base number: Males: 52; Females: 65

* The difference for males is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$)

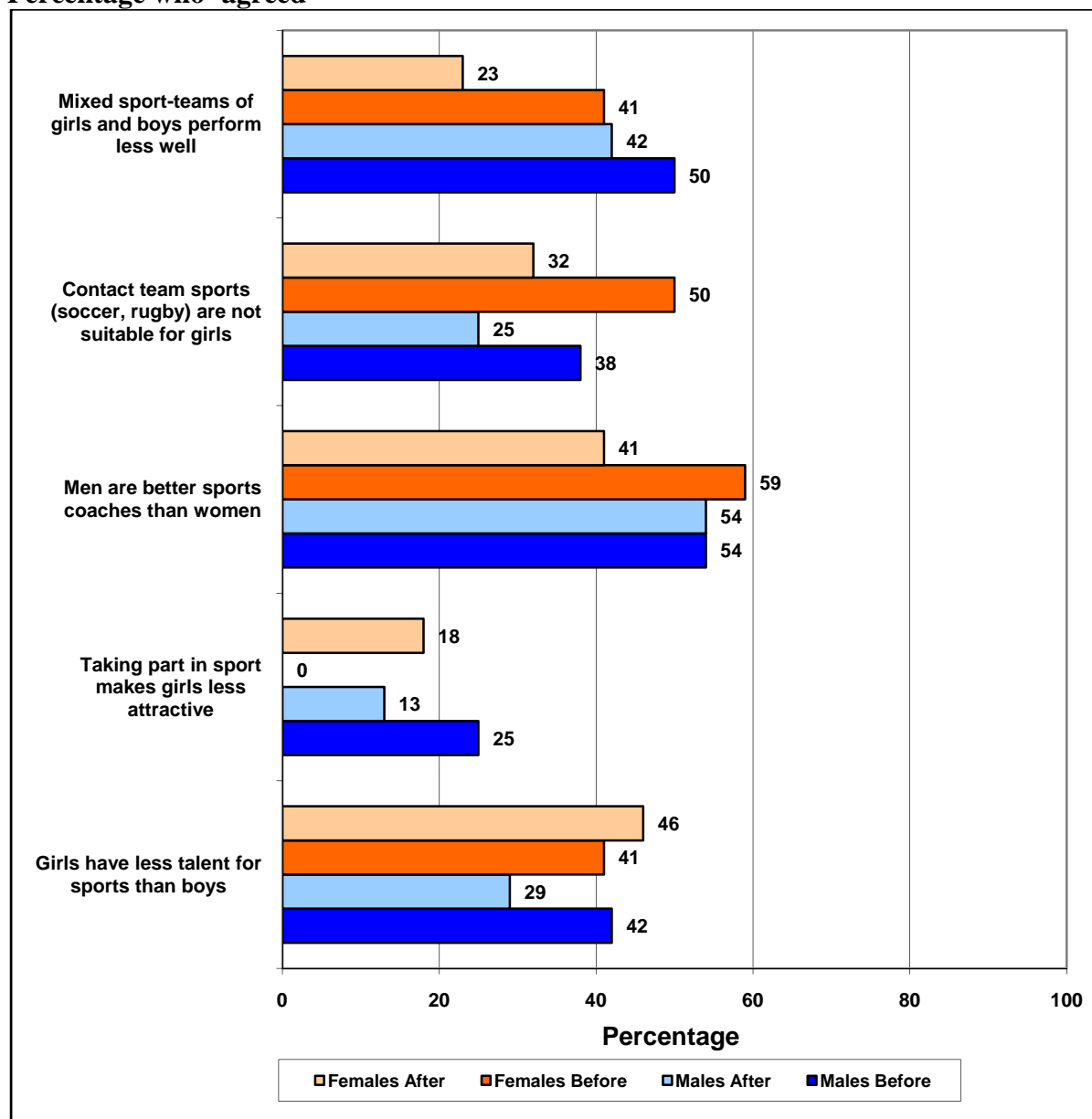
** The difference for females is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$)

Clearly the programme had a substantial positive impact on gender-based attitudes to sport. However, sex-based differences remained and even among young women a quarter still believed that *girls have less talent for sport* and 40 per cent believed that *men are better coaches and referees*.

6.3.2 KCCC

The KCCC data illustrate a more negative reaction, especially among females. Female respondents adopted more negative attitudes towards *girls having less talent for sport than boys* and that *sport makes girls less attractive* – perhaps paradoxically males’ opinions improved on both of these issues. Further, and rather confusingly, female attitudes improved regarding the *performance of mixed teams*. Male attitudes improved on all issues, except on the matter of *men being better sports coaches than girls*.

Figure 4: Sport and gender attitudes: KCCC
Percentage who ‘agreed’



Base numbers: Males: 24; Females: 22

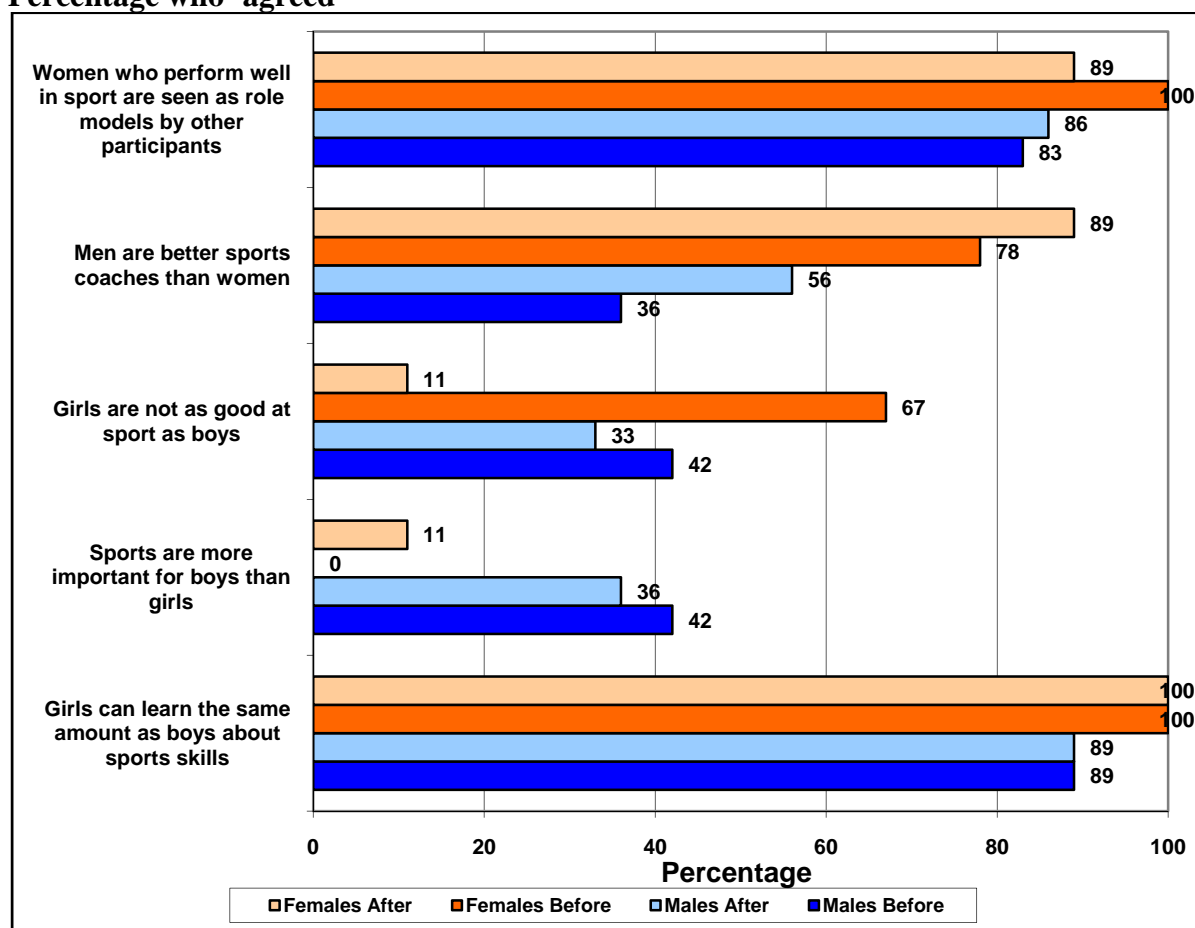
The overall effect of the KCCC programme was mixed, with males improving some attitudes, but some females adopting more negative stances. However, given that most of these respondents had been taking part in KCCC for some time before the first survey, it is difficult

to explain the negative shifts in female perspectives without more information about this period in the programme. However, females had a lower self-efficacy than males in the before data and experienced a substantially greater decline than males. Clearly the experience of both sport and the programme was a less than positive experience for some of the females (although it must be remembered that the numbers involved in such shifts are small).

6.3.3 Magic Bus Voyagers

Care must be taken with these data as there were only nine female respondents. It is interesting that there is almost unanimous agreement that girls can *learn the same amount as boys about sports skills*. Also, there was a decrease in the belief that *girls are not as good at sport as boys*. However, like KCCC and Kids' League, about one-third of males continued to believe this.

Figure 5: Sport and gender attitudes: Magic Bus Voyagers
Percentage who 'agreed'



Base number: Males: 36; Females: 9

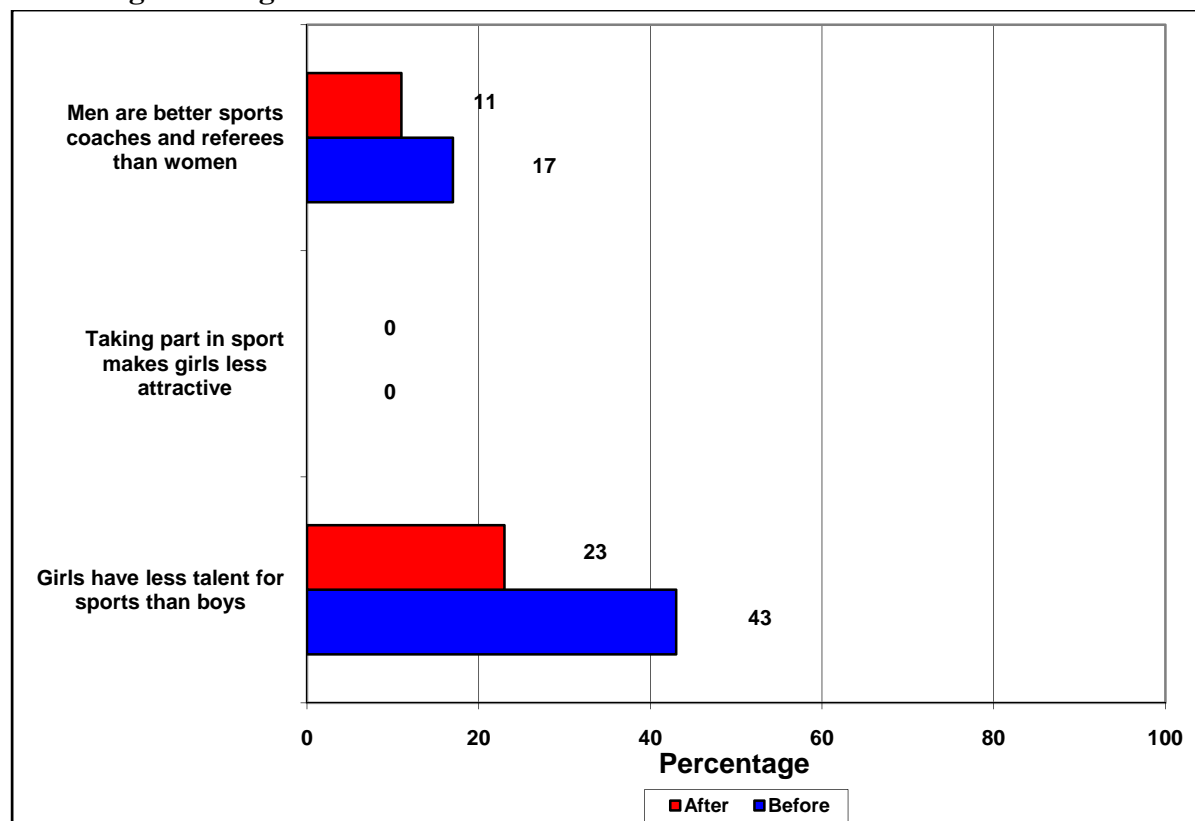
However, and mirroring KCCC and the Kids' League, a substantial proportion continued to *believe that men were better sports coaches than women*, with this belief increasing for both males and, especially, females. Once again, the practice and experience of sport served to reinforce perceptions of gender-based differences – differences which in these contexts may be real.

6.3.4 EMIMA

Firstly, these female respondents had been taking part in EMIMA activities for at least four months and had the most positive initial attitudes (as well as the highest average for self-esteem and second highest self-efficacy). So, in an all-female, rather confident, group, it is not surprising that no one thought that *sport made girls less attractive* and a much smaller proportion than in any other programme thought that *men were better coaches and referees*.

Figure 6: Sport and gender attitudes: EMIMA

Percentage who 'agreed' with the statement



Base number: 35

No changes were statistically significant

However, despite improvements, nearly a quarter still thought that *girls had less talent for sport than boys*.

6.3.5 Gender and sport: conclusions

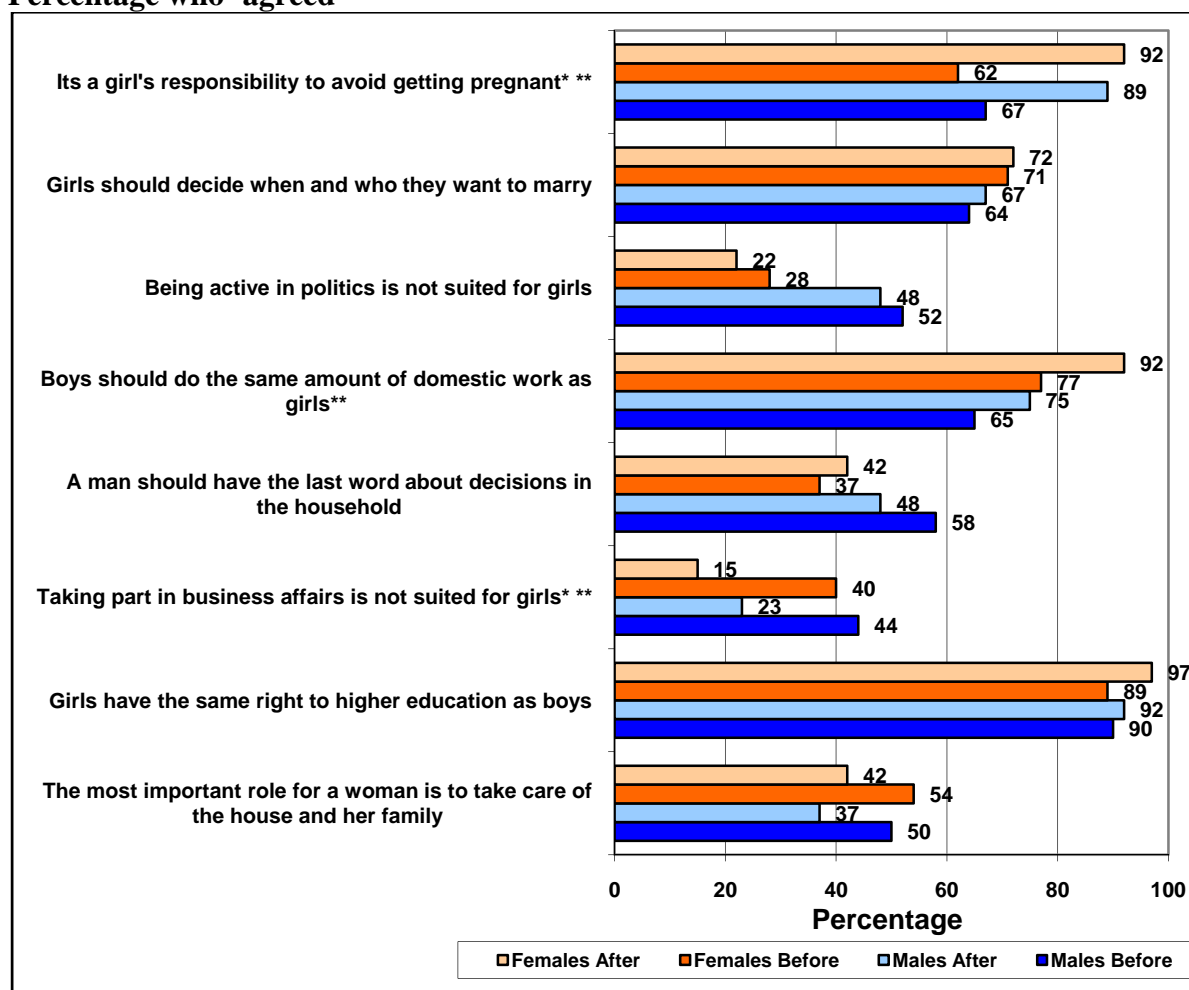
One conclusion from these data is that effects seem to reflect the nature and ethos of programmes and that certain attitudes are difficult to change – even when they may be part of the core inclusive ethos of a programme. Overall, the programmes had a generally positive impact on male attitudes, but within limits. The all-female EMIMA respondents started with the most positive attitudes and improved slightly. However, the experience of KCCC had a negative impact on female perceptions of *female sports talent* and *the impact of sport of girls' attractiveness* (paralleling their decline in self-efficacy). However, there were some 'negative' attitudes which remained and were held by a substantial proportion of female and male respondents – *girls having less talent for sport* and *men being better sports coaches*. It is not clear if this is simply a deep-rooted belief or is based on their experiences within the programmes. As these are widespread beliefs and may be reinforced in the relative performance of male and females in such programmes it is difficult to assess what programmes' might view as a successful outcome. Or what the significance of such beliefs is presumed to be.

6.4 Women's domestic and social roles

6.4.1 The Kids' League

The Kids' League achieved substantial improvements by both sexes on all sports-related issues, although sex-based differences remained and even among females substantial proportions retained what could be regarded as negative attitudes. The same pattern is repeated for more general attitudes, with opinion split on a number of issues.

Figure 7: General gender attitudes: Kids' League
Percentage who 'agreed'



Base number: Males: 52; Females: 65

*The difference for males is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$)

** The difference for females is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$)

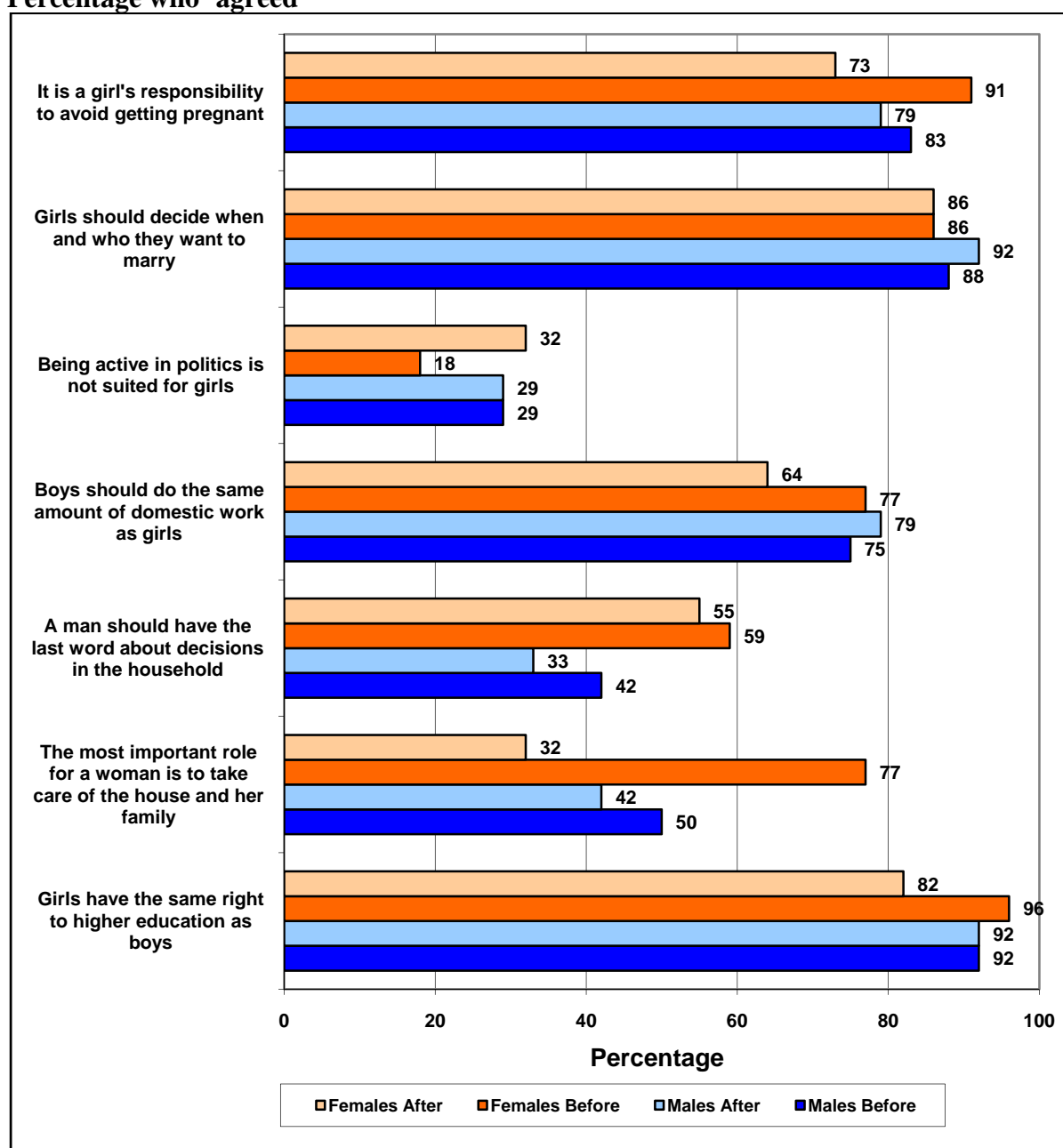
There were three areas of major agreement – *girls' right to education*; *boys should do the same amount of domestic work as girls* and *girls should decide when and who to marry* and there were some improvements on these scores. However, the fourth area of major agreement was that it is *a girls' responsibility to avoid getting pregnant* and this experienced a statistically significant increase for both males and females – it is unclear why such a significant shift in opinion should occur in a sports programme, or if it reflects wider influences.

A substantial proportion of both sexes retained what might be regarded as 'traditional' attitudes to *men having the last word in household decisions* and a *women's role in the home and family* (although both males and females improved their attitudes on this issue). On the other hand there were statistically significant improvements in the approval for *women taking part in business* and small shifts in approval of *women taking part in politics* (although males in a traditional rural community were much more reluctant to cede this).

6.4.2 KCCC

Although there were changes in opinion, none was statistically significant. As with Kids' League, the commitment to *female education* was already very high. However, on two key issues the urban KCCC respondents were less conservative. The commitment to *girls' right to decide when and who to marry* remained high (despite a slight decline in agreement among women). On the issue of *a girl's responsibility to avoid getting pregnant*, there was a substantial decline in the level of agreement among female (although three-quarters still agreed) – compared to the strongly conservative impact of the Kids' League programme.

Figure 8: Gender attitudes: KCCC
Percentage who 'agreed'



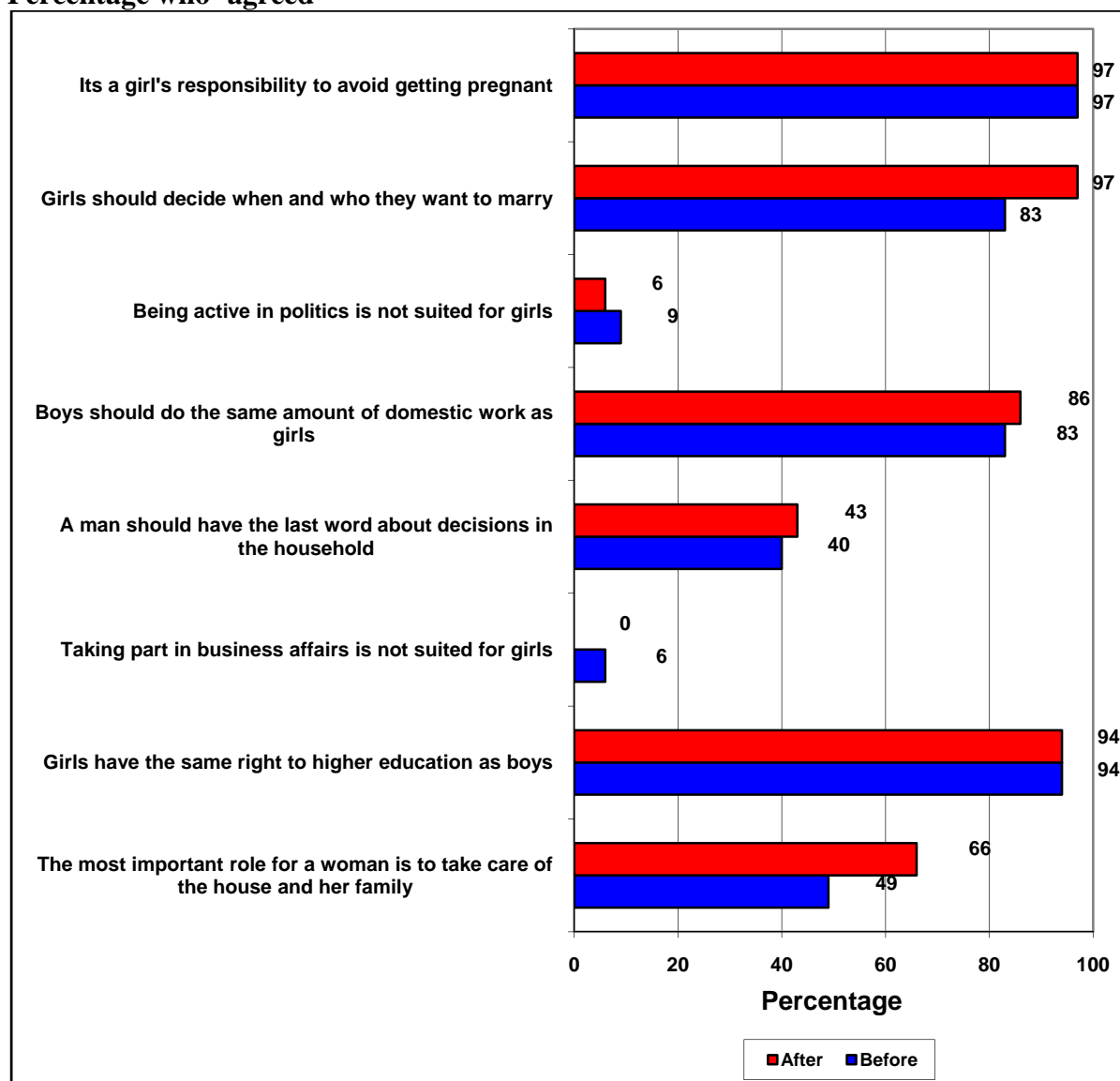
Base numbers: Males: 24; Females: 22

Women slightly increased their view *that being active in politics is not suited for women*. However, they slightly decreased their view *that a man should have the last word about household decisions* (although 55% still agreed) and substantially decreased their view *that the most important role for a woman is to take care of her house and family*.

6.4.3 EMIMA

As in the other African projects, there was near unanimity that *girls have the same right to education as higher education as boys*.

Figure 9: Gender attitudes: EMIMA
Percentage who 'agreed'



Base number: 35

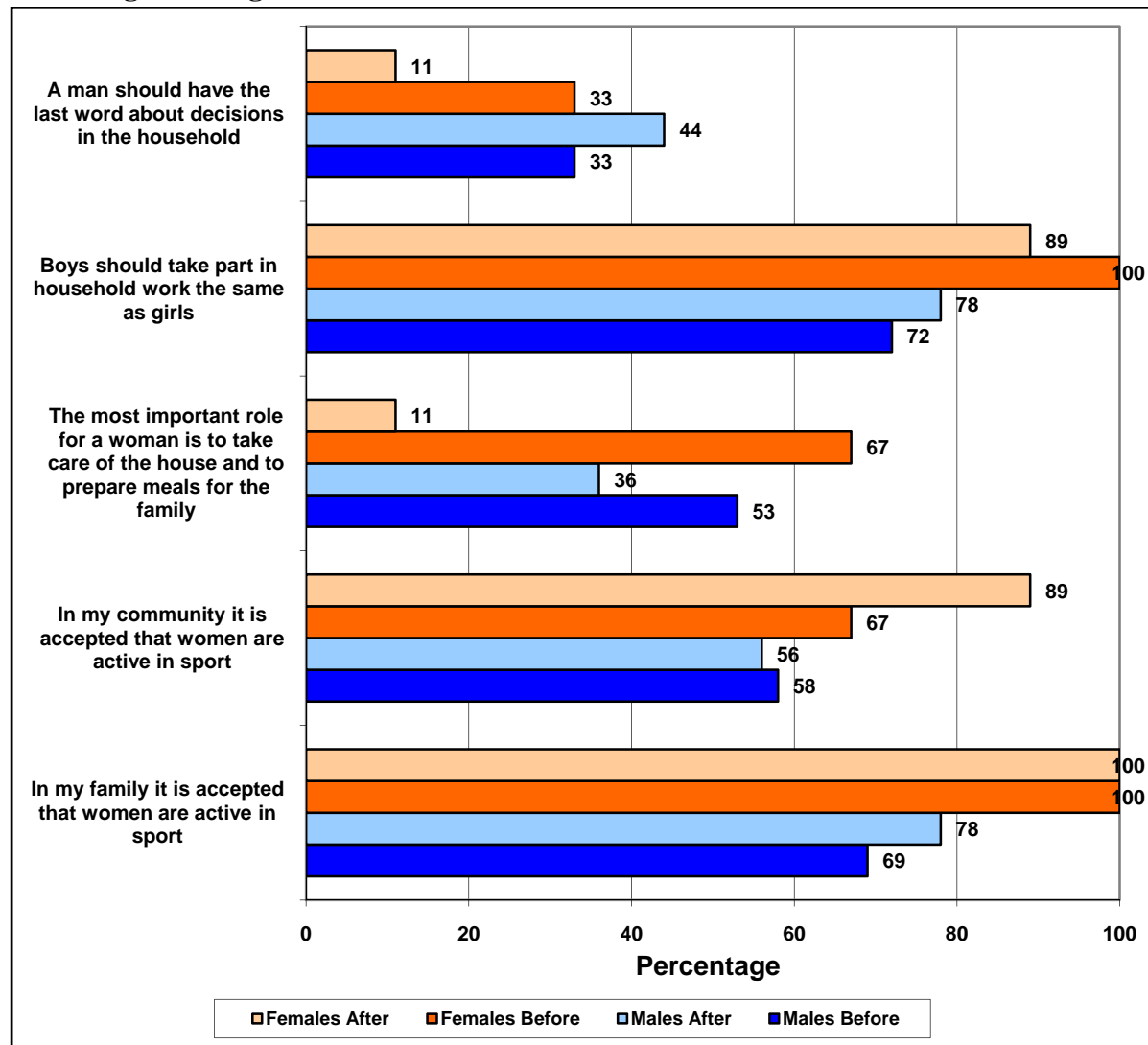
Although there was reduced acceptance that *the most important role for a woman is to take care of the house and her family*, half of this largely Muslim sample still agreed. However, there was little change in the acceptance that *a man should have the last word about decisions*

in the household, with 43 per cent still agreeing. While there was an increase in those agreeing that *girls should decide who and when to marry* there was no change in the almost unanimous acceptance that it was *a girl's responsibility to avoid getting pregnant*.

6.4.4 Magic Bus Voyagers

With only nine female respondents we are limited in the conclusions that we can draw. Further, the relevance of some of Magic Bus' questions is not always clear. High proportions of both sexes thought that *boys should take part in household work* and this increases marginally; only one-third of males and females felt that *men should have the last word about household decisions* and this decreased for females, but marginally increased for males; there was a clear liberalisation on the issue of *women's most important role*, (5 females changed their view) although one-third of males still held a 'negative' attitude.

Figure 10: Gender attitudes: Magic Bus Voyagers
Percentage who 'agreed' with the statement



Base number: Males: 36; Females: 9

It is noticeable that although they were from the same communities, males and females had a different perspective on the *wider acceptability of women playing sport* – although the perceived acceptance levels were surprisingly high.

6.4.5 Self-efficacy and attitudes

It is possible that some of the changes in attitudes outlined above may be explained by changes in self-efficacy beliefs. Although the small sub-sample sizes of those who *changed* their attitudes restrict our ability to look at these relationships, we were able to explore some *selective* and purely *illustrative* examples.

Kids' League

'Taking part in business affairs is not suited for girls'

Between the first and second surveys females agreeing with this statement decreased from 40 per cent to 15 per cent. Among females who changed their mind, the average increase in the mean for self-efficacy was 4.91, compared to 1.80 overall. In other words those who changed their mind also experienced an increase in their perceived self-efficacy.

Boys should do the same amount of domestic work as girls

Between the first and second surveys females agreeing with this statement increased from 77 per cent to 92 per cent. Among those who *changed* their mind, the average increase in the mean for self-efficacy was 3.53, compared 1.28 overall. Consequently, those who changed their mind also experienced an increase in their perceived self-efficacy.

KCCC

'The most important role for a woman is to take care of the house and her family'

Between the first and second surveys females agreeing with this statement decreased from 77 per cent to 33 per cent. However, unlike the above example, among those who changed their mind their average self-efficacy score *declined* by 1.36 (more than the average of -0.7).

It is difficult to draw any substantial conclusions from such limited data and small sub-samples. In the case of the Kids' League there seems to be a correlation between higher levels of change in self-efficacy scores and a shift towards more 'liberal' attitudes. However, in the case KCCC those who changed their opinion had a higher than average *decrease* in their self-efficacy score.

6.4.6 Conclusions

The data illustrate a number of obvious facts – that attitudes are complex, sometimes seemingly inconsistent, consensus is rare on significant cultural and moral issues, gender-related differences remain and that there is no consistent 'programme effect'.

Further, as it is not clear how many of these issues were addressed directly and systematically in the programmes, it is difficult to know what each programme hoped to achieve. Perhaps questions aimed directly at the content of their formal and informal curricula might have permitted a more precise measure of impact. Just as participants were diverse in terms of their self-efficacy and self-esteem, so they were diverse in their opinions about a variety of gender issues – and remained so after participating in the programmes.

Programme impacts on attitudes varied both within and between programmes, although there were few statistically significant effects. Some might be regarded as unexpected, such as the substantially increased agreement in the Kids' League sample that *it is a girls' responsibility to avoid getting pregnant*. As this was one of the few strong and statistically significant increases it could be hypothesised that this issue was dealt with in the programme, or by wider influences in the community. Although the opinion was strongly held in the other African programmes, support for it decreased slightly among KCCC participants (especially women)

Some of the changes are difficult to understand. For example, in the Kids' League, KCCC, and Magic Bus Voyagers there were clear shifts towards a more 'liberal' position on the issue *that the most important role for a woman is to take care of the house and family*, yet in the all-female EMIMA sample, there was increased support for this. Likewise, in relation to *men having the last word about household decisions*, KCCC and the Kid's League showed decreased agreement among men and women, Magic Bus showed decreased agreement for women and increased for males and there was a small increased agreement in the EMIMA sample. In the Kids' League there was increased male and female disagreement with the view that *being active in politics was not suited for girls*, yet KCCC females increased their agreement with this position. Although there was some 'liberalisation' of opinion, the only statistically significant results were in the Kids' League in which there was increased support for the view that *it is a girl's responsibility to avoid getting pregnant* and, for females only, that *boys should do the same amount of domestic work as girls*.

Consequently, we can conclude that diverse programmes in different socio-cultural and religious settings which address such issues via the 'informal curriculum' are unlikely to have a strong or systematic influence on gender-related attitudes. On all issues there were substantial minorities, sometimes majorities, who professed views that some might regard variously as 'traditional', 'reactionary' or 'sexist' (although such evaluations need to be defended). Like perceived self-efficacy and self-esteem, participants in sport-for-development organisational settings exhibit a wide variety of perspectives which are often not too different from other members of their community.

During the project development phase no one could articulate such outcomes clearly and coherently (despite being broadly agreed with funding agencies). These data raise significant questions about the relevance of rather casual assertions about female 'empowerment' and changing gender attitudes for both males and females. Most of the attitudes chosen for examination by the various programmes are rooted in and sustained by cultural, community, religious and educational institutions which have a much greater significance in the lives of

young people than sport-for-development programme. In fact some sport-for-development organisations might seek to reinforce such views, as otherwise they are likely to face strong opposition in highly religious and conservative communities.

One key conclusion to be drawn from these data is that sport-for-development programmes need to think much more systematically about the nature of the issues that they want to address and the extent to which key aspects of their programmes address such issues directly and systematically. In the absence of such an analysis the relevance of many of the 'outcomes' explored in this project and programmes' ability to influence them will remain obscure.

CHAPTER 7: HIV AND AIDS

7.1 Introduction

A widespread rationale for sport-for-development programmes relates to their supposed ability to disseminate knowledge on issues relating to HIV and AIDS and to change sexual behaviour. The assumption is that a major cause of the spread of HIV and AIDS is a lack of information, which results in risk-taking sexual behaviour. Leaving aside the validity of this rather simple presumed causal relationship between information and behaviour, sport is assumed to be a particularly effective medium to address information issues. This seems to be based on two assumptions:

- The attractiveness of sports programmes enables them to reach groups that other more formal, educational interventions do not reach.
- Sport is regarded as an especially effective educational medium for the dissemination of such information – either via symbolic games of the type promoted by Kicking Aids Out, or more formal didactic approaches as part of a general sports programme. For example, KCCC runs workshops and EMIMA addresses issues via drama.

Only two projects included questions about HIV and AIDS – KCCC and EMIMA – and both place strong emphasis on associated educational programmes and do not depend solely on sport to address the issues. Two types of data were collected:

- (i) Participant and non-participant surveys at EMIMA and KCCC.
- (ii) A before-and-after survey of participants in the EMIMA Girls Empowerment Programme. The very high levels of understanding recorded in the first phase of KCCC data collection resulted in the removal of the questions from the second phase as the room for improvement was marginal.

7.2 Analysis

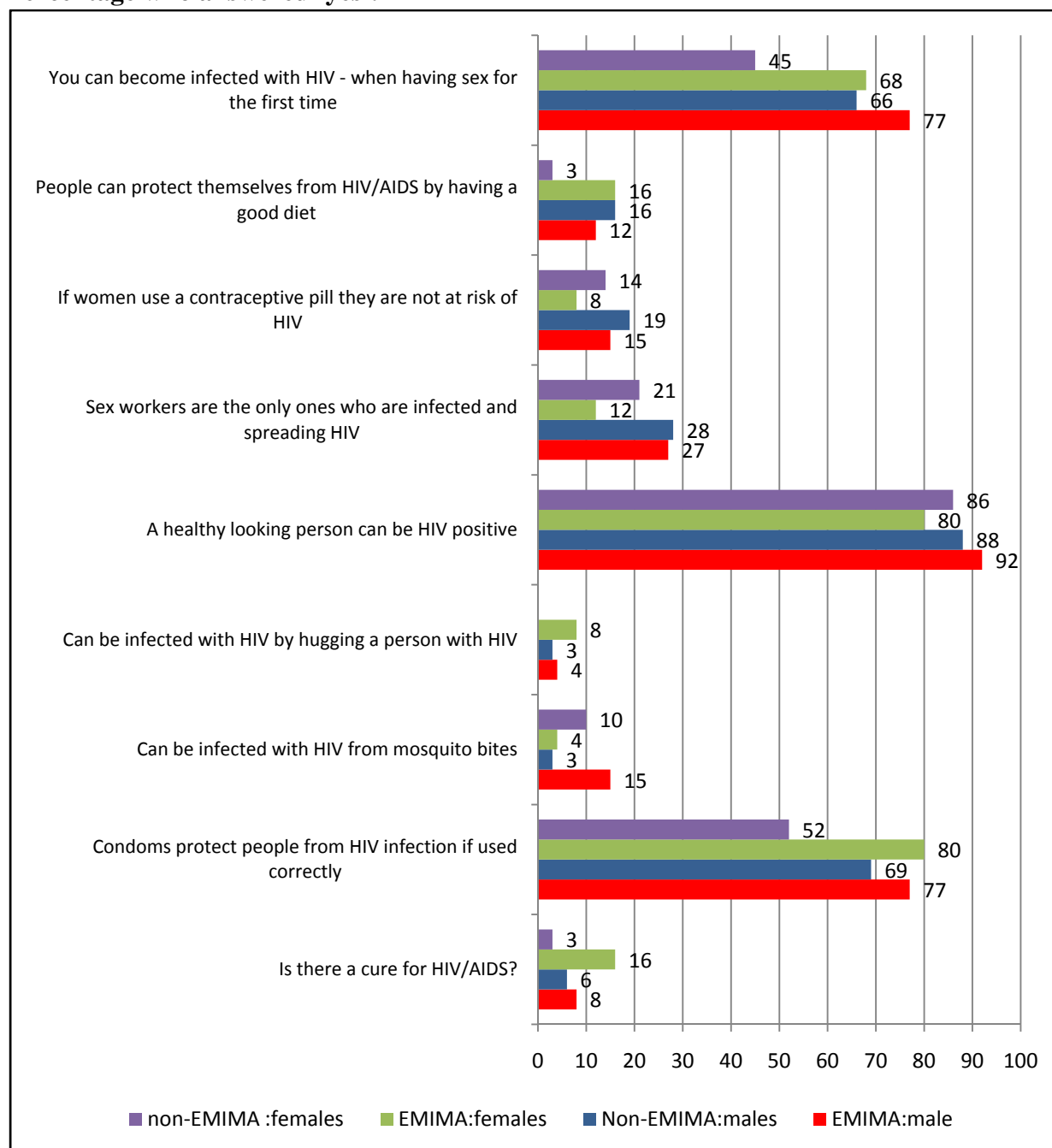
7.2.1 Participants and non-participants

If the assumption is correct that sport-for-development programmes are particularly effective communicators of information about HIV and AIDS, we could expect that those who have been taking part in such programmes will have a better understanding of the issues than non-participants. We examine this hypothesis in the following sections.

7.2.2 EMIMA and non-EMIMA

Figure 11 illustrates that there are few real differences in the levels of knowledge and understanding of participants and non-participants, despite the fact that EMIMA has a major HIV and AIDS orientation and that most of the participants had been in the programme for 18 months.

Figure 11: Knowledge of HIV and AIDS: EMIMA and non-EMIMA. Male and female. Percentage who answered 'yes'.



Base number: EMIMA Males: 26; EMIMA Females: 25; Non-EMIMA Males: 32; Non-EMIMA Females: 30

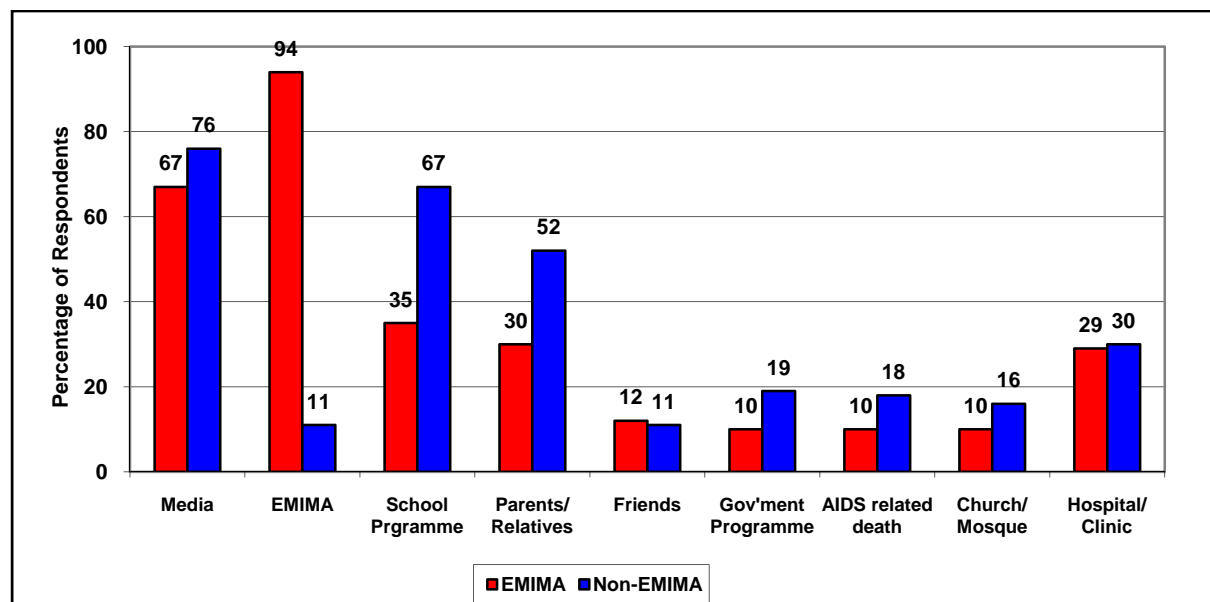
However, despite small sample sizes, male and female EMIMA participants appear to have a better understanding of certain key issues. For example, about two thirds (68%) of EMIMA females knew that *you can be infected with HIV when having sex for the first time*, compared to less than half (45%) of non-EMIMA females; more than three-quarter (77%) of EMIMA males compared to two thirds (66%) of non-EMIMA males. Also larger proportions of EMIMA males and females knew that *condoms protect from HIV if used correctly*, with 80 per cent of EMIMA females knowing this compared to only 52 per cent of non-EMIMA females. EMIMA participants were also more likely to know that the *contraceptive pill was not a protection against HIV*.

Nevertheless despite such differences, substantial proportions of EMIMA participants still did not know the facts on these two key issues. Indeed, despite being part of the EMIMA programme some had false ideas about HIV and AIDS. For example, EMIMA respondents were more likely than non-EMIMA to believe that there was a *cure for HIV and AIDS*, that it is *possible to be infected via a mosquito bite* and that *sex workers are the only ones spreading HIV* (although in all cases the numbers involved are small).

Sources of information

As might be expected from those who had been taking part for at least 18 months, 94 per cent of EMIMA respondents placed EMIMA in their top three sources of information (along with 11% of non-EMIMA respondents!).

Figure 12: Three main sources of information about HIV and AIDS: EMIMA and non-EMIMA



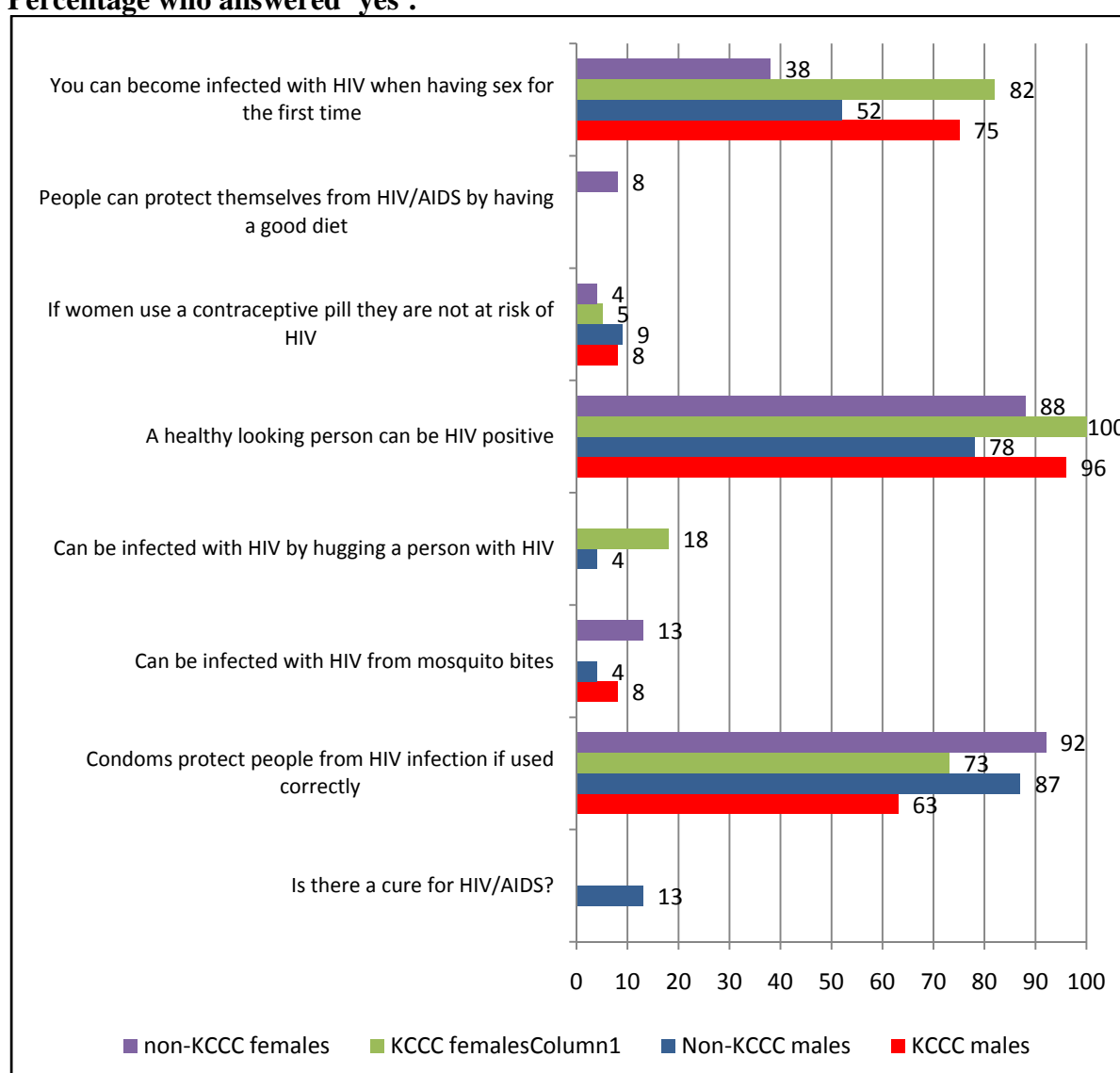
Despite this, two thirds of EMIMA respondents also obtained information from the media and one third from school programmes. Three-quarters of the non-EMIMA respondents obtained their information from the media and two thirds from school and more than half from parents and relatives. Such a diversity of formal and informal information sources raise

interesting questions about the relative role of sport-for-development organisations and the content and consistency of information from several sources.

7.2.3 KCCC

Figure 13 illustrates that the overall understanding of issues relating to HIV and AIDS is slightly better in Kampala than Dar-es-Salaam – possibly reflecting the major educational effort by the Ugandan government’s long running ABC campaign (abstain, be faithful, use condoms). Further, the understanding of KCCC participants (who had been in the programme with a strong HIV and AIDS content for some time) is slightly better than non-participants, although the understanding of non-participants remains high on some issues.

Figure 13: Knowledge of HIV and AIDS. KCCC and non-KCCC: Male and female Percentage who answered ‘yes’.



Base number: KCCC Males: 24; KCCC Females: 22; Non-KCCC Males: 23; Non-KCCC Females: 24

As with EMIMA, a key difference relates to the issue that *you can be infected with HIV when having sex for the first time*. Once again the non-KCCC females are poorly informed, with only 38 per cent knowing this, compared to 82 per cent of KCCC females; three-quarters of KCCC males knew this, compared to only 52 per cent of non-KCCC males. All KCCC females and 96 per cent of males knew that *a healthy looking person can be HIV positive*, compared to 88 per cent of non-KCCC females and 78 per cent of males. Of course we must remember that the sample sizes are relatively small and the differences will be only one or two individuals.

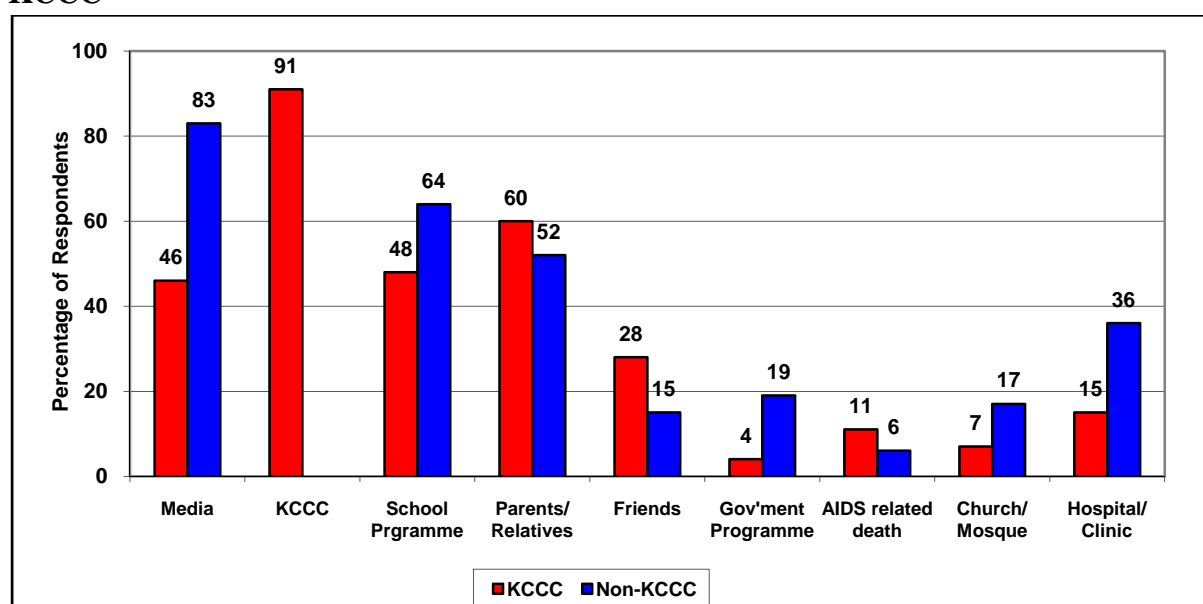
However, the difficulties of increasing levels of awareness are indicated by the response to the ideologically sensitive issue of condoms. Whereas 92 per cent of non-KCCC females and 87 per cent of males agreed that *condoms protect people from HIV if used correctly*, only 63 per cent of KCCC males and 73 per cent of females agreed.

Overall, the KCCC sample has a slightly better understanding of HIV and AIDS issues, but once again we see that education programmes inevitably have their limitations and inconsistencies.

Sources of information

Given the strong emphasis on HIV and AIDS education it is not surprising that 91 per cent of KCCC participants named it as one of their three main sources of information (this might include the wider KCCC organisation, which has a very high profile in Kamwokya), with parents, schools and media also being important sources (Figure 14).

Figure 14: Three main sources of information about HIV and AIDS: KCCC and non-KCCC



Non-KCCC respondents were much more reliant on the media, schools, parents and, interestingly, hospitals/clinics.

Note

During the period between the ‘before’ and after surveys, six (27%) of the KCCC female respondents became pregnant. Although three of these women were aged between 19 and 22, two were aged 16 and one was 17 – under the Ugandan age of consent of 18. Such data tells us nothing about male behaviour and we do not have the equivalent data for the non-participant group. Nevertheless it serves to illustrate that being part of a group which emphasises abstinence, runs regular workshops on such issues and with a relatively high level of understanding of key HIV and AIDS issues may not be sufficient to prevent under-age unprotected sex. Perhaps these young women were among the minority who did not have complete understanding of the issues, or perhaps information and understanding have a complex relationship with behaviour.

7.2.3 Conclusions

It is difficult to assess the effectiveness of the sport-for-development programmes as any ‘educational’ programme will only have relative success. However, on certain key issues which might affect sexual behaviour, participants, especially females, are better informed than non-participants – especially that it is *possible to contract HIV while having sex for the first time*. Nevertheless, there are still gaps in understanding and differences on key issues such as the importance of condom use (which of course may be influenced by particular religious perspectives). Also, on certain issues non-participants are better informed than participants.

7.3 EMIMA: the before and after survey

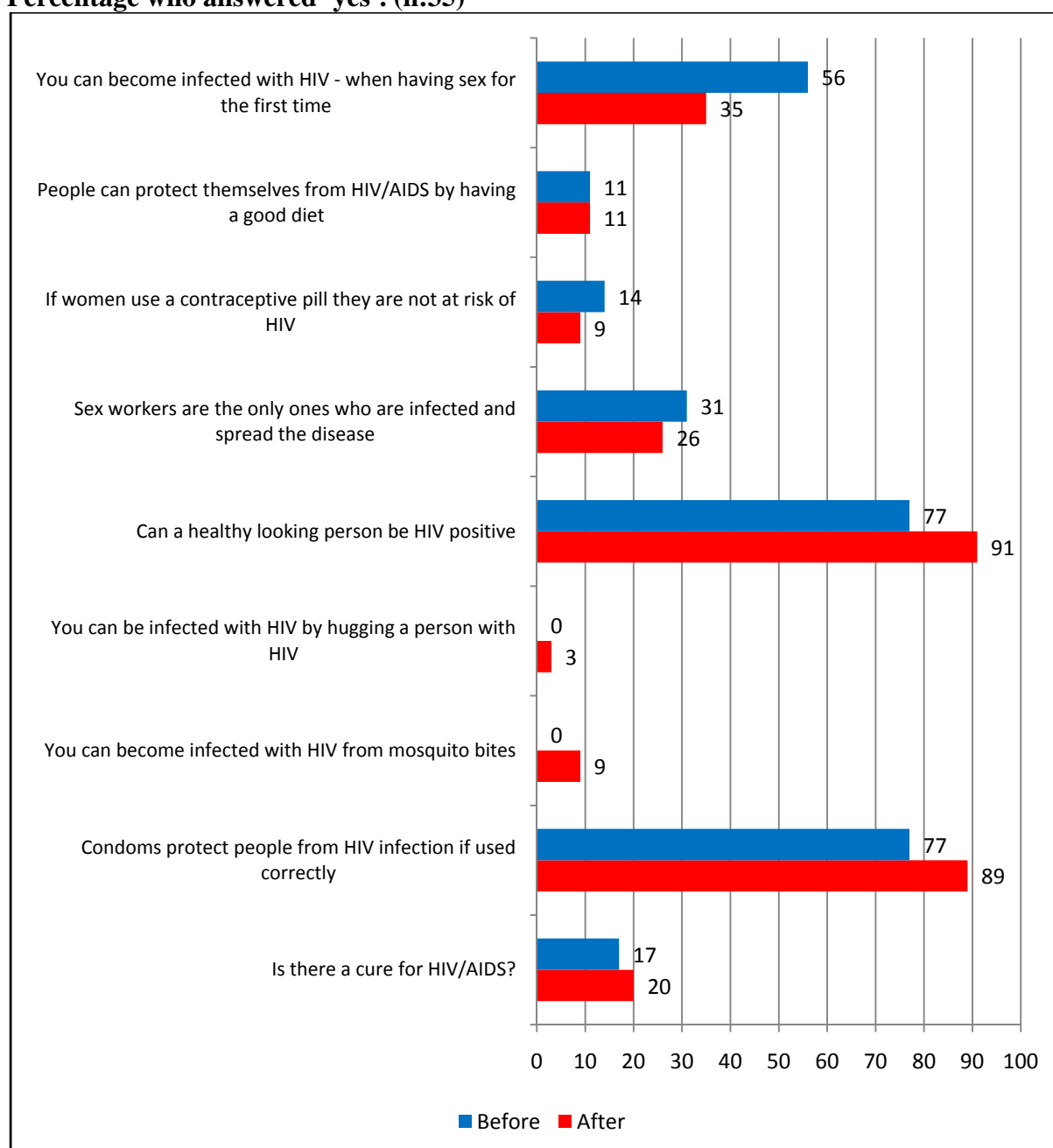
7.3.1 Introduction

As already noted, this is not a true before-and-after survey as the participants had been involved in EMIMA sporting and non-sporting activities for at least 4 months. Also, interpretation of these data is complicated by the generic issue that any education/training programme will inevitably have differential impacts. Deciding the extent of success and failure is not really possible, especially if participants begin with relatively high levels of understanding.

Before data

In Figure 15 the before data indicate a very high level of understanding of a number of HIV and AIDS issues. For eight of the issues, over 90 per cent chose the correct answer and for another four, more than 80 per cent answered correctly. In other words only two or three people did not know the correct answers.

Figure 15: Knowledge of HIV and AIDS before and after: EMIMA
Percentage who answered ‘yes’. (n:35)



However, the issue of the inevitability of uneven understanding is illustrated by the fact that more than one third (35%) did not know that you *can be infected by having sex for the first time* and 9 per cent said ‘no’. Further, 17 per cent thought that there was *cure for AIDS* and oddly this increased in the after survey.

After data

In the after-data a quarter (26%) still believed that you *could not be infected having sex for the first time* and a further 11 per cent still did not know. This could be regarded as a failing of a programme aimed at HIV and AIDS education – only just under two-thirds (63%) knew

the correct answer. Related to this was the issue of whether a *woman is not at risk of HIV infection if she uses a contraceptive pill*. Although the proportion giving the correct answer increased from 57 per cent to 71 per cent, 20 per cent still did not know and 9 per cent thought that the contraceptive pill *did* give protection.

In the absence of information about any formal curriculum and with an acceptance that all such programmes will have differential impacts, it is difficult to assess the effectiveness of the programme. Further, given the wide variety of sources of information (and the variety of EMIMA activities) such positive changes in understanding cannot simply be attributed to the sport programme.

Sources of Information

As would be expected, respondents named EMIMA as their main source of information about HIV and AIDS and this increased slightly in the second phase. However, reflecting the earlier data, there is a wide range of information sources, with the media again being the most significant second source and increasing in importance in the second phase (it was the main source for the non-EMIMA respondents). Parents/relatives were much more important to this sample than the earlier EMIMA respondents, perhaps because this is an all-female group. The low level of importance of church/mosque is significant, especially as 60 per cent of the sample were Muslim.

Table 2: Main sources of information about HIV AND AIDS: EMIMA

	Before	After
	%	%
EMIMA	83	91
Media	71	83
Parents / relatives	60	57
School programme	40	20
Hospital / clinic	31	31
Friends	9	3
Government programme	6	0
AIDS related death	3	11
Church / Mosque	0	3
<i>Base number</i>	35	

7.4 Conclusions

These various data raise difficult issues about how to judge the success or failure of sport-for-development programmes in disseminating information about HIV and AIDS. An important methodological factor is that in the absence of formal and measurable curriculum-related outcomes it is difficult to assess the success of such programmes. Although the issues were chosen by programme personnel, it is not wholly clear whether they are simply aspirations or can be regarded as legitimate learning outcomes. Secondly, all programmes concerned with information dissemination will inevitably have differential impacts and deciding on their success or failure is nearly impossible – we cannot expect all participants to have achieved the same levels of understanding.

Thirdly, the non-participant data indicate that understanding of HIV and AIDS issues seems to be relatively high in the communities from which participants were drawn. On a few key issues participants *were* better informed, but on some other issues non-participants were better informed than participants. In many cases the differences are marginal and for some important issues EMIMA and KCCC participants remain ill-informed – although this might be on issues not addressed directly in the programme.

As the EMIMA (GEP) respondents had been taking part in EMIMA activities for some time it is not possible to assess the true impact of the programme - although the non-participant data suggests that they might have arrived with a reasonable level of understanding of the issues. The survey data indicate some improvements in understanding - *a healthy looking person can be HIV positive; condoms protect people from HIV; a contraceptive pill does not reduce the risk of HIV; can be infected having sex for the first time* – yet misunderstandings remain, with a quarter still believing that you cannot be infected with HIV when having sex for the first time.

Although it is wrong to suggest that sport-for-development organisations do not contribute to understanding, these relatively limited data do not establish a distinctive and effective role for them in HIV and AIDS education. In part this is because sports participants are also participants in other social and community structures and organisations which disseminate information about HIV and AIDS. Of course, it might be that KCCC and EMIMA are working in relatively well-informed urban environments and that in other, more poorly informed, communities such approaches might have a more significant role to play.

One important question which this raises is the extent to which the information from various sources is consistent and the extent to which sport-for-development programmes reinforce or contradict such information (and related moral issues about abstinence and condom use). For example, the data from the SCORE community sports leaders' interviews indicated that in many communities several specialist AIDS education organisations were operating in parallel with them. One test of the relative effectiveness or relevance of sport-for-development programmes lies in the role that they play within this web of information sources. We have no information about this.

Finally it must be recognised that the data in this chapter do not in any simple way relate to ‘sport’. Although both EMIMA and KCCC use versions of the Kicking Aids Out symbolic games approach to address such issues, they also use a mixture of formal workshops, discussions and cultural activities (e.g. EMIMA uses drama). Consequently, changes we have measured are partly a product of a variety of activities provided within the context of sport-for-development *organisations*.

CHAPTER 8: PEER LEADERS

8.1 Introduction

In most bottom-up community-based sport-for-development projects peer leaders play a central role. One reason for using peer leaders is that such volunteers reduce greatly the cost of such programmes. Another rationale, although rarely fully articulated, is a version of social learning theory in which learning occurs via observation and emulation and is most likely to be effective if it involves role models who have similar characteristics and a *perceived similarity* to the learner (see Chapter 2). If such an approach is to be implemented peer leaders must be trained.

We sought to explore aspects of training by examining the effectiveness of the Magic Bus peer leader training via a before-and after survey and SCORE's community sports volunteers programme via retrospective in-depth interviews.

8.2 Magic Bus Peer leaders

8.2.1 Introduction

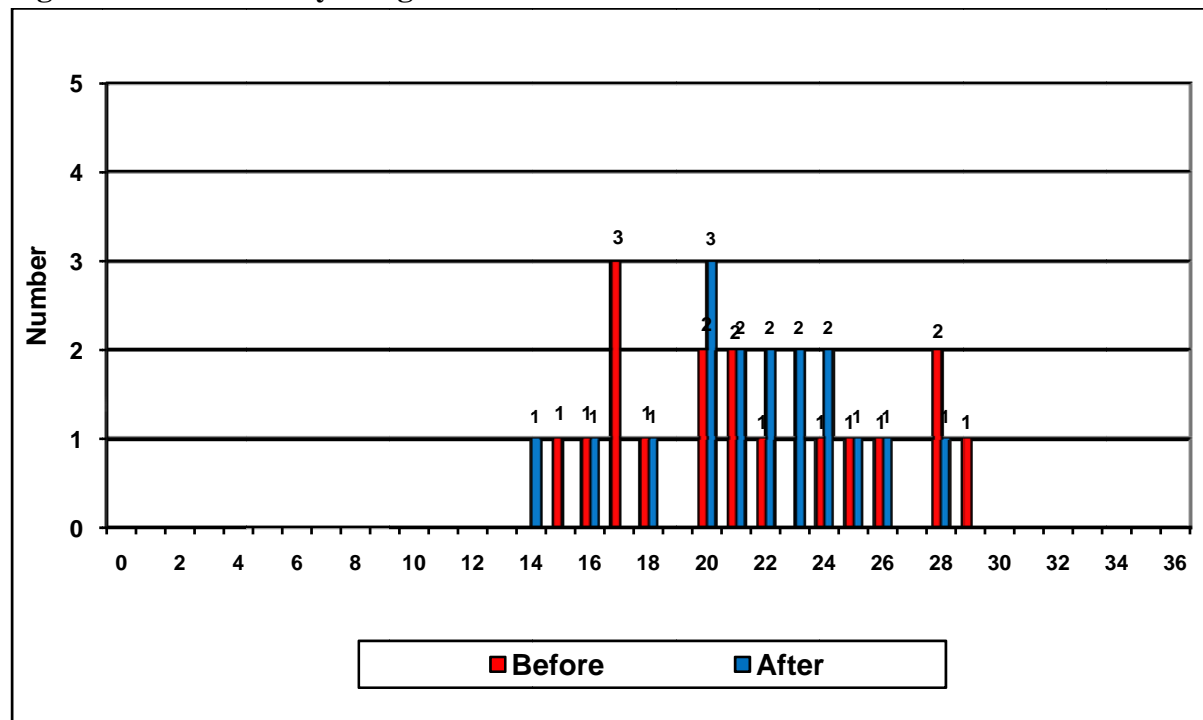
With a sample size of 17 (Males: 12; Females: 5) great care must be taken in interpreting these data. Changes in proportions refer to *very* small numbers of participants, statistical analysis must be limited and the data should be regarded as indicative. Magic Bus is currently undertaking in-depth interviews with these peer leaders, which might provide more insightful data. However, these data are not included in this report.

8.2.2 Perceived self-efficacy

Participants in the peer leader training programme were specially selected, having been identified as exhibiting initiative in the Voyager programme. Therefore it is not surprising that their average self-efficacy score (21.4) was higher than the Voyager respondents (20). Further, they were a slightly more disparate group than the Voyagers, with a SD of 4.54 compared to 3.18 (Figure 16).

Given that they were selected for their observable individual differences, this is perhaps not surprising. With an initial score already higher than the type of group from which they were selected we might not expect a substantial increase in such scores – training might simply build on the existing sense of competence rather than increase it.

Figure 16: Self-efficacy: Magic Bus Peer Leaders



Base number: 17

Mean score: Before: 21.4 (SD: 4.54); After: 21.6 (SD: 3.52) ($p=.964$)

Changes: Positive: 5; Negative: 6; No change: 6

The marginal shift in the average score disguises differential impacts (Appendix 12). It is interesting to note that no one with *above average* self-efficacy increased their score and the majority reduced their self-evaluation (some quite substantially) – one very high score reduced substantially. As with other programmes, the majority with *below average* scores increased their evaluations. In such programmes the reduction of perceived self-efficacy might not be unusual. Seeking to develop peer leader and leadership skills is a different set of skills and competencies from those derived from being a programme participant. In fact, in some cases a reduction in perceived self-efficacy might be to a more realistic level and might be viewed as a positive outcome.

Elements of self-efficacy

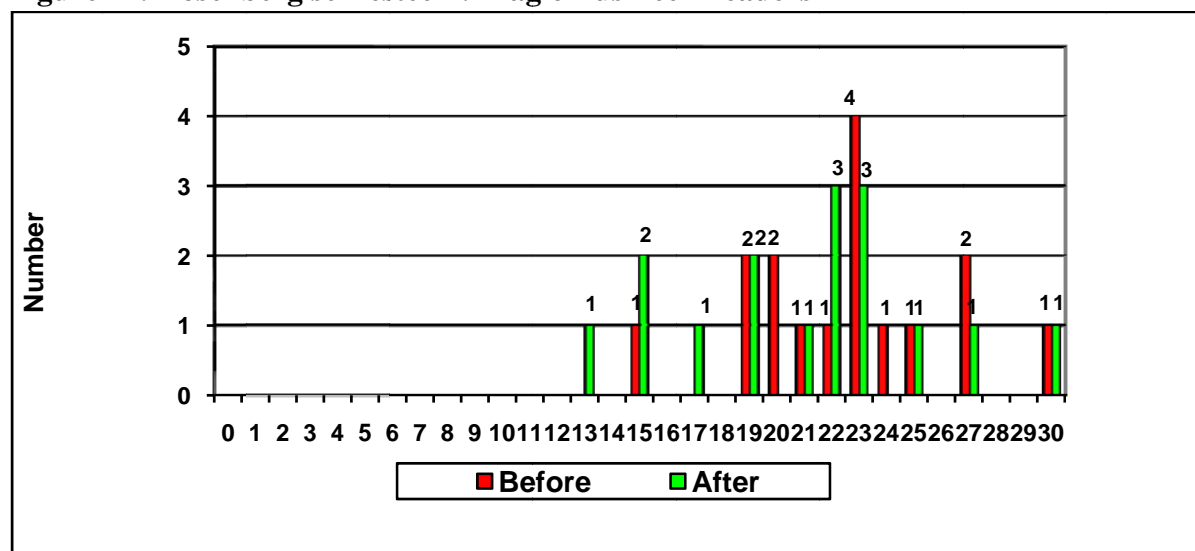
Table 3 illustrates the extent of changes in the component parts of self-efficacy. There were non-statistically significant improvements in scores for *initiative* and *persistence*, with a slight reduction in *effort*. However, care needs to be taken with these data as changes in one person's score can be significant.

Table 3: Components of self-efficacy: Magic Bus Peer Leaders

	Before	After
Initiative	4.8 (SD=1.29)	5.4 (SD=1.50)
Effort	10.2 (SD=1.98)	9.2 (SD=1.78)
Persistence	6.4 (SD=2.83)	7.1 (SD=2.30)
Base number	17	

8.2.3 Self-esteem

As with self-efficacy, the peer leaders had a much higher average initial self-esteem score (22.6) than the Voyagers (18.8). In fact, this average score was higher than that achieved by any other programme except EMIMA. In this regard Magic Bus had selected a distinctive group of people, or perhaps the fact of selection boosted their self-perceptions. Because of this, it is perhaps less surprising that there was a reduction in the average self-esteem score.

Figure 17: Rosenberg self-esteem: Magic Bus Peer Leaders

Base number: 16

Mean: Before: 22.6 (SD: 3.67); After: 21.0 (SD: 4.53) (p=.259)

Changes: Positive: 4; Negative: 6; No change: 6

As with self-efficacy, there were substantial shifts in evaluation both up and down. As with the other general participant programmes, the broad pattern was for initially higher-than-average scores to decrease and those which were below average to increase (Appendix 12). It seems that the processes involved in the training and the increased responsibilities may have led to more realistic assessments.

As this is a very small sample we were able to identify the two individuals at the extremes of the after scale. Magic Bus personnel identified the respondent with the very high score – who did not change as a result of the training – as a rather disruptive and dominating individual.

The respondent at the lower end of the scale – who experienced a *major decline* in evaluation - is someone who had been rather marginalised and criticised within the group.

Such information has provided Magic Bus with an important insight into the dynamics of such training – self-evaluation is not just to be understood as a function of performance and the relationship between trainer and participant. It is also partly a function of the interaction between participants – something which has to be monitored and managed..

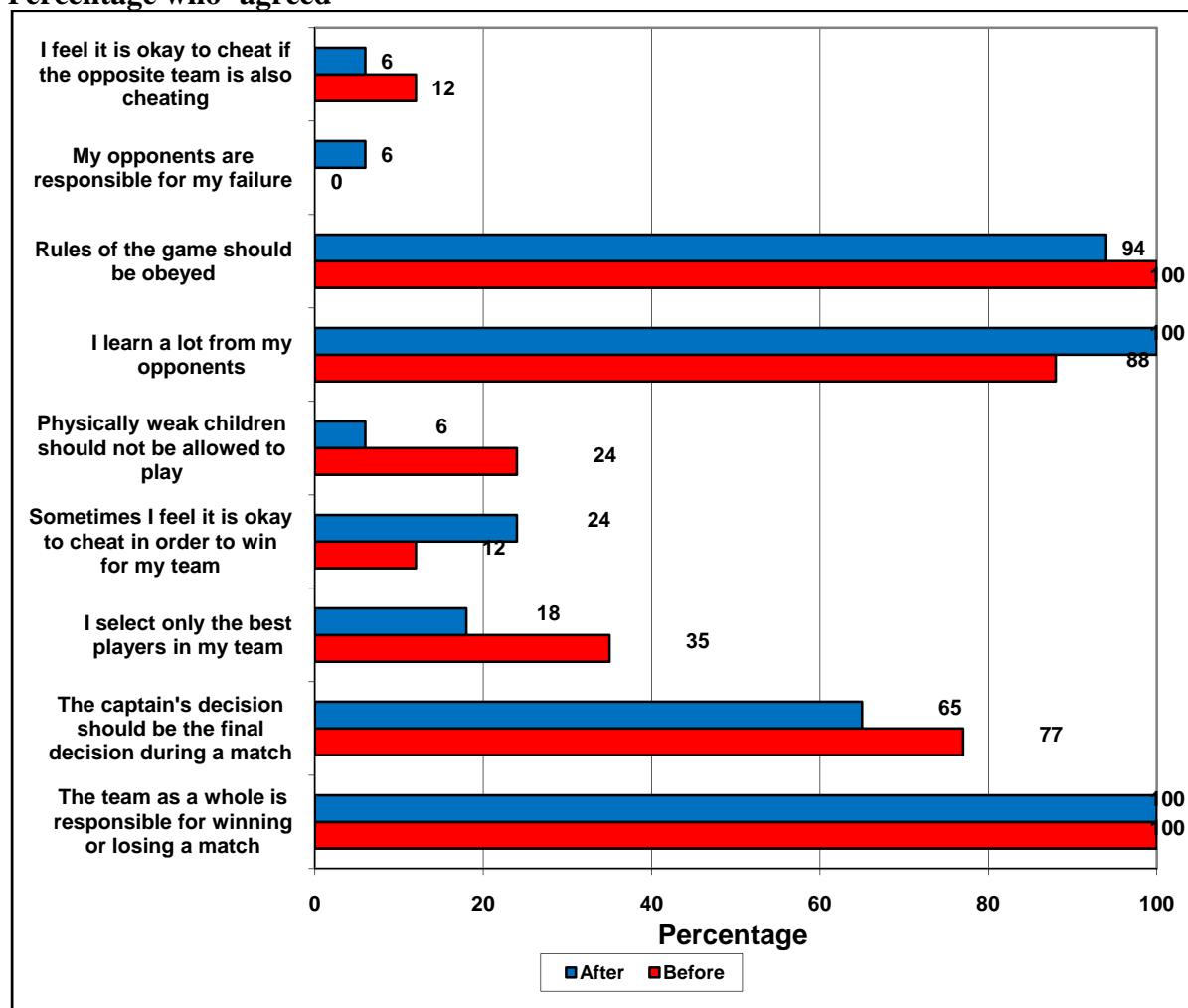
8.2.4 Sporting ethics

As role models and facilitators, peer leaders are required to implement Magic Bus' inclusive and ethical programmes and this is strongly emphasised in the training programme, as well as all Magic Bus programmes. However, it must be remembered that all these trainees had taken part in Magic Bus programmes for at least two years and some for much longer. In such circumstances one would expect a relatively high level of understanding of the principles involved in the statements chosen by Magic Bus.

Consequently, it is odd that there are some inconsistencies among such a small group of experienced participants. Whereas there is almost unanimous agreement that *the rules of the game should be obeyed*, a quarter (24%) agreed that *I feel it is OK to cheat in order to win* and this agreement increased as a result of the training! On the other hand many fewer felt that *it was okay to cheat if the opposite team is also cheating*! It is also rather odd that anyone on a peer leader training programme would disagree that the *captains' decision should be the final decision during the match* – even odder that disagreement should increase as a result of training!

In fact, on the four issues of fair play there is a slight negative movement, although the overall agreement remains high. On the other hand such apparently inconsistent attitudes are probably characteristic of most people involved in sport, even if not a desired outcome for a peer leader training programme.

Figure 18: Sporting ethics: Magic Bus Peer Leaders
Percentage who 'agreed'



Base number: 17

On issues relating to inclusiveness - a key Magic Bus philosophy - there are some positive movements on the issues of *selecting only the best players* and that *physically weak children should not be allowed to play*. Nevertheless there are still individuals who do not subscribe to this ethos which is central to the work of peer leaders.

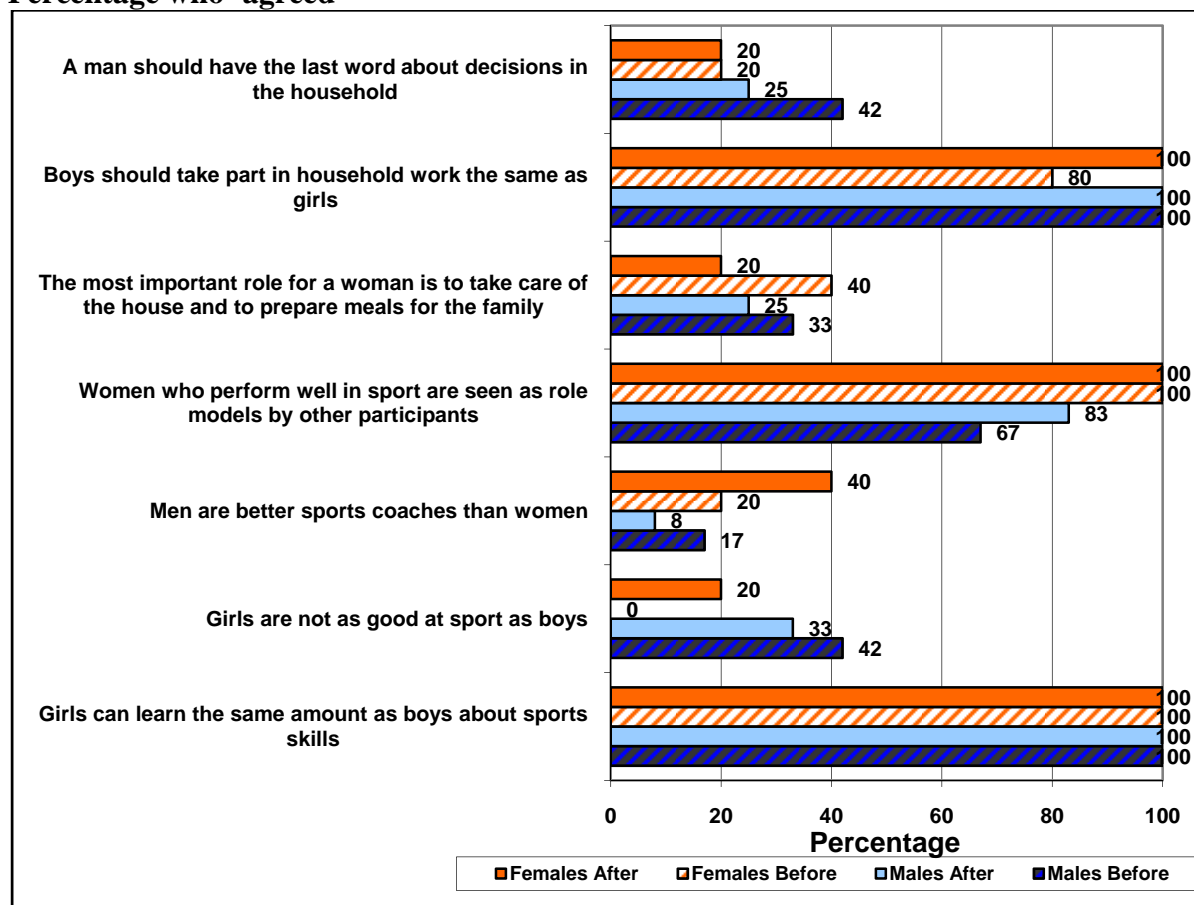
The majority of respondents express what might be regarded as 'positive' attitudes both before and after training. Although the numbers are small there seems to be a slight distinction to be made between the inclusive ethos of Magic Bus (which was reinforced) and, for a small number, the more competitive elements of sport which were reinforced.

With such small numbers it is difficult to draw conclusions. All training programmes will have differential impacts and sport teaches different lessons to different people. However, any differences in such a small and selective group and on an intensive course might be regarded as a failure.

8.2.5 Gender attitudes

In terms of sporting attitudes it is hardly surprising that those who had been in Magic Bus for at least two years agree *that girls can learn the same amount about sporting skills as boys*. However, experience on the programme illustrated to one female *that girls were not as good at sport as boys* and that *men are better sports coaches than women* – despite males developing more positive attitudes. However, all the females and most of the males affirmed the *importance of females as sporting role models*.

Figure 19: Gender attitudes: Magic Bus Peer Leaders
Percentage who ‘agreed’



Base number: Males: 12; Females: 5

It is not surprising in such a group to find at least one female expressing what could be regarded as traditional views regarding *women's household roles* and *men's authority in the household*. Also there was a slight shift in males' attitudes on these issues - although how much of this is a reflection of social desirability bias within the more liberal ethos of Magic Bus is unknown.

8.2.6 Conclusions

The data on self-efficacy and self-esteem indicate that Magic Bus chose a distinctive group of people for the peer leader training. On the other hand it is possible that simply being chosen for the training boosted their self-evaluations. As with the broader participation programmes,

the experience of training and being closely monitored led some to readjustment of self-evaluations – it would be surprising if a training programme in which participants are required to take increasing responsibility and are monitored by Magic Bus staff did not have such an effect. The upward and downward adjustments in self-efficacy *might* be viewed as indicating the development of more objective assessments of their abilities in this sporting context. However, a few were left with relatively low self-evaluations which must raise questions about their suitability for the peer leader role. It also illustrates the potential value of this type of monitoring on such courses, where the assumption is often that all training leads to positive outcomes.

The adjustments to self-esteem reflected other programmes with those with initially higher-than-average scores reducing their evaluation (except for one rather extreme individual) and those with below average to increase. However, with such a small and intensely involved group the range of opinions on sport-related issues is rather surprising. Again, the limitations of such programmes, the need for realistic performance indicators and possibly a more systematic approach to selection of participants are emphasised.

8.3 SCORE: Community sports leaders

8.3.1 Introduction

The rationale for examining this aspect of SCORE, the processes involved in the training of interviewees and the selection of the 10 male and 10 female interviewees are outlined in Chapter 1.

An important element of in-depth interviewing is that it involves being part of the context which produces the data – interviewing involves an on-going process of analysis, interpretation and selection of issues to be pursued. As a consequence, it is difficult to understand fully and interpret such data second hand. In terms of the processes involved in the production of these data we are dependent on the external researcher's interpretation of context, motivation and meaning and these are outlined below.

These comments are necessary in order to understand the context in which the interview data were produced. However, in the context of the report's concern with approaches to M&E and the development of organisational expertise, the fieldwork analysis illustrates some generic issues regarding the limitations involved in obtaining precise and robust data in such circumstances.

8.3.2 Comments on context

There are a number of reasons to be careful about the utility of the SCORE interview data and these include:

- Some of the translators seemed to be mediating interviewee responses – either by not fully translating the response or, in one case, by prompting a respondent to talk about certain issues. In some cases the external interviewer was not sure that the translation

correctly represented the responses. This is of course a generic issue which will always be present in such work.

- Social desirability bias: Some of the translators were known to the interviewees.
- Some of the interviewees did not know why they were there. They claimed that they had been informed that they were attending a meeting and seemed confused. This apparent misrepresentation led to some defensiveness on the part of some interviewees.
- At least two interviewees left before their interview and replacements had to be sought in the community. Hardly robust sampling.
- Social desirability bias. Despite being told otherwise, many interviewees assumed that the external interviewer was ‘representing’ SCORE. There was some indication that some interviewees knew that the male interviewer was a SCORE trainer. We knew that this was a risk, but when some interviewees ended the interview by discussing SCORE issues and asking for advice about SCORE, there must be doubts about the objectivity of their testimony. Related to this, at least two of the interviewees aspired to being employed by SCORE.
- Although there are issues of language and translation, it is also clear that some interviewees lacked an understanding of the questions and issues and these had to be asked in several ways.
- Not all interviewees had received the same amount of training, so they were reflecting on different processes. For example, one had to leave the training for two hours to play football and another was unable to attend for some days. One had only attended a single workshop, which seems at odds with the criteria that they had been community sports volunteers for 18 months and had been eligible for selection for three training programmes. Another was not aware that she had to complete administrative records and had no record of the previous year’s activities.
- Many of the interviewees were currently, or had been, volunteers in other organisations. While this is probably a good strategy for SCORE, as such individuals bring a range of expertise and have a profile in the community, it makes it rather difficult to assess the actual impact of the SCORE training – more of a ‘value added’ than the ‘empowerment’ approach adopted by other organisations.

Because of the secondary nature of the analysis we have not provided a detailed analysis with illustrative quotations, but sought to summarise the key issues in relation to the issues covered in the rest of the report.

8.3.3 Reasons for joining

There were three broad reasons for joining the training programme. Firstly, some were unemployed and wished to avoid boredom. Secondly, some adopted a more instrumental view that this would be good for their CV and perhaps SCORE might provide employment. Thirdly, others were simply interested in sport and this was an opportunity to develop more sporting skills. It is interesting that at least one of the interviewees regarded volunteering as degrading and seemed to imply that it was seen as such in some communities - working without pay was somehow demeaning. If this is a more general attitude it clearly places constraints on both the quantity and quality of volunteers.

Nearly all were highly motivated to do something for, and work with, children. Whether that was an initial motivation, or was a product of the training programme is not wholly clear. Within this context were two broad orientations. A minority, mostly male, were motivated by sport, developing children's sporting talent and encouraging the development of sporting skills. Others were more concerned with children, which sometimes may have led them away from sport-for-development practice. For example, two of the females stated that they were much more concerned with play and enjoyment than with sport and coaching, which was viewed as requiring too formal a relationship with the children. Such differences in perspectives and the potential for wide variations in practice raise important questions about developing an understanding of the impact of 'sport-for-development' programmes.

8.3.4 Perceived impact of the training

Social efficacy and self-efficacy beliefs

All respondents referred to the increased confidence which they derived from the social processes involved in the training workshops. This was based largely on the positive benefits associated with socialising with people, interacting with and meeting new people with different perspectives and discussing training issues with others. Further, the requirement to talk to other trainees and children *as a group* required some to overcome initial shyness and develop the skill and confidence to do this. Related to this sense of self-efficacy, many referred to the development of *communication skills* as a key outcome.

Some others referred to the group processes as developing the skills of *team working* and cooperation (although one remained committed to working alone!). Clearly the training and learning components led to a feeling of *competence* – knowing what they were talking about in terms of sport and HIV– which led to a feeling of social *confidence*.

These are generic processes and outcomes which would be key elements in any training and development programme. However, they are essential skills for a community sports leader and, for these respondents at least, SCORE was regarded as providing a successful personal development experience. However, as we will see, this did not always transfer into successful practice.

Others referred to the development of leadership skills via work in the workshops and organising games and events for children. Also the development of an understanding of elements of coaching, training, programme organisation and leadership and the opportunity to apply these skills lead to an increased sense of confidence.

It is worth noting that these findings are similar to those from the ongoing Comic Relief UK research on sport and vulnerable young people. Many of these young people developed a sense of confidence via obtaining level 1 coaching certificates and then taking coaching sessions with younger people.

Work-related skills

As part of this increased sense of self-efficacy some also referred to wider employment-related skills, such as time management, problem solving, programme-related administrative skills and report writing. Certainly some of the respondents viewed their work with SCORE as adding to their employability – although according to one interviewee being a member of the ANC might be the biggest factor in such high unemployment areas! One claimed to have been elected to the post of Secretary of the Young Communist League because of the confidence gained from SCORE and another suggested that it was the SCORE-related skills that enabled him to become the secretary of a football club.

However, the possibly uneven nature of the training is indicated by one female respondent who said that she was unable to do the job properly because she did not know what it entailed. Whereas some referred to the development of administrative and reporting skills, she did not know that she had to submit reports.

8.3.5 HIV and AIDS

Several of the respondents worked in organisations which dealt with HIV and AIDS issues and others seemed to have a grasp of the basic issues. Only one, rather unbelievably, ‘knew nothing’. The previous level and detail of understanding is not wholly clear from the interviews, as all but one seemed to have *some* understanding. Whatever their various levels of prior understanding, all claimed to have learnt more about HIV and AIDS via SCORE. It is clear that many were provided with a more holistic and demystified understanding - such things as the cycle of the virus, ways in which the virus is *not* transmitted and to be careful of wounds.

Perhaps the biggest contribution made by the SCORE training was via the Kicking Aids Out games. Most respondents regarded them as innovative and a very useful technique with young people, who would be resistant to more formal didactic approaches. Interestingly, this positive evaluation was offered by some of those who were already working in AIDS organisations. For example, one volunteer who integrated the games into her programme said that this approach was a more successful way of getting children to talk about the issues; another volunteer suggested that the physically active approach was more effective than a passive classroom approach.

Another key issue communicated via the training sessions seems to have been issues of abolishing stigma of HIV-positive people and ensuring their inclusion in activities. Many of the respondents referred to developing a new attitude to HIV-positive people and understanding their ability and need to be included – clearly an important lesson for community sports organisers.

However, given that some of the volunteers worked for mainstream AIDS organisations, the issues of how sport-for-development organisations relate to, and complement, other organisations may need to be addressed (an issue also raised in Chapter 7). For example, one respondent who worked for an AIDS organisation became confused because of the differences between the information provided by her organisation and that provided by SCORE, although she claims that the facilitator was able to clear up the confusion. Nevertheless, the interviews indicate that there was a variety of AIDS organisations in these communities and some strategic view of relationships and approaches would seem to be a positive step – what is SCORE’s role within such an organisational network?

The need for such collaboration is reinforced by some of the volunteers’ experiences of seeking to disseminate the information. Although many reported positive feedback, a number illustrated the difficulties that they faced. For example:

- Despite positive feedback on the KAO games, one male stated that people found it strange that sport involves issues of HIV and AIDS (this was also found in Tanzania – ‘I came to play football and all you want to do is to frighten me’).
- Some did not welcome the information as it is taboo, especially in rural areas.
- Speaking about HIV may be taken to imply that you are HIV positive. There is research which illustrates that this is quite a widespread belief, raising significant issues for relatively poorly trained HIV and AIDS educators, whose main interests are sport.
- Most people have the information already and are bored with it, although this may disguise other fears.
- Parents do not want others talking to their children about sex - the view is that talking about condoms encourages young people to have sex. This raises the administratively complex issues as the extent to which sport-for-development organisations do or should seek parental permission to talk about such sensitive issues. Further, it is not clear that all programmes are age-appropriate, as the authors witnessed inappropriate content being delivered to young children in EMIMA.
- An inability to say where HIV and AIDS ‘comes from’ leads to a denial that it exists. This may indicate a gap in training or understanding.

- A young male stated that older people do not want to listen because of his age. This is possibly a significant issue in traditional communities and raises interesting questions about the definition of a ‘peer’.

Such experiences raise questions about the effectiveness of some of this work, the level of training provided and may indicate the need for greater collaboration with more specialist agencies. While SCORE, or any sport-for-development organisation, may be effective in raising the understanding of community sports volunteers about HIV and AIDS, this does not imply that the volunteers are effective communicators, or always know how to deal with varied and sometimes resistant audiences.

8.3.6 Sporting skills

As might be expected, all the male volunteers and all but two of the females had taken part in sport prior to their involvement with SCORE. More males were motivated by ‘sport’ than females. In fact some of the females felt that they were chosen because of particular personality traits – being a ‘good’, ‘nice’ or ‘flexible’ person and liking to be with young children, or having already volunteered to work with children in relevant schools.

All seemed to benefit from the training in basic sports skills and elements of coaching (after initial difficulties for some). Further, quite a few were committed to the inherent value of sport and in particular the value of a healthy lifestyle.

8.3.7 Personal experience and practice

One interesting aspect of some of the volunteers was their ability to use their own experiences to seek to address certain issues - the reformed drug addict and the young mothers. However, there must be some concern about how such essentially untrained people communicate such issues. For example, the young mother who gave young girls the rather simplistic advice to ‘stay away from boys’ and ‘just play sport’. Although such personal experiences are potentially very useful, unless the lessons are articulated through the more general SCORE philosophy and with some understanding of pedagogical processes, it can lead to inconsistency in the information communicated and even the articulation of personal prejudice. Simply talking about your experiences, however heartfelt, may not be wholly appropriate.

8.3.8 Implementation

Despite a reasonable degree of consensus about personal development and the value of the training, there was some indication that the work of the community sports volunteers was rather uneven – raising questions about the consistency and effectiveness of the programmes.

Some respondents raised issues relating to SCORE’s coordinating role. For example, two complained about the short notice given for the organisation of events. Such short notice meant that on occasions the events were poorly attended, or did not take place, leading to disappointment among the young people. One interviewee raised an issue which may be a more general problem for organisations which adopt the same facilitating approach as

SCORE – the absence of a regular presence of the organisation in the community and dependence on the initiative of single, maybe isolated, volunteers. One interviewee stated that she had lost community support because of the lack of visibility by SCORE (although this may simply have been displacing blame).

Others complained about the children's lack of commitment, lack of concentration, lack of respect, failure to attend practice and tournaments – not a problem confined to SCORE! However, it is probable that such programmes are not as consistently provided, attended and managed as the other 'direct delivery' organisations included in this project. Further, some of the females said that they prefer to play and have fun with children rather than adopt a more formal coaching approach. While understandable, such variation in practice raises questions about the nature of such programmes as examples of 'sport-for-development'. Training community sports leaders is one thing, ensuring consistent and coherent sport-for-development programmes is another issue.

8.4 Conclusions

The testimony of the SCORE community sport volunteers is impressive and systematically positive about the impact of the training on their social efficacy, communication skills and, for some, broader work-related skills. Although there must be some reservations about the context and certain social desirability biases, the overall evaluation is consistently positive. The Kicking Aids Out games were viewed very positively, even by those who had previously been engaged in HIV and AIDS education and all seemed to be highly enthusiastic, motivated and child-centred.

However, there is also evidence that the training was less than systematic. Not all received the same amount of training and one interviewee had attended only one workshop. Perhaps this is inevitable as older volunteers seek to balance a number of commitments, but it nevertheless raises questions about the quality, delivery and consistency of programmes and the nature of learning outcomes. This is also related to SCORE's facilitating approach, in which monitoring is difficult and variable and seems to have permitted variations in content and delivery of programmes.

A number of the leaders were currently volunteers, or had experience of volunteering, in other organisations. Such an approach could be regarded as a good strategy for SCORE, as these individuals bring a range of expertise and have a profile in the community. However, such an approach could be regarded as aimed more at programme delivery rather than providing opportunities for training and development to young peer leaders – the position adopted by Magic Bus and EMIMA. Perhaps these SCORE community sports leaders were not wholly representative.

The use of experienced volunteers also leads to the injection of 'personal experiences' into the programmes. While it is positive to warn young people about the dangers of drug use and early pregnancies, there must be some concern about the manner in which this is done if it is left solely to individuals to decide. This also relates to the issue of HIV and AIDS education

and the relationship between the SCORE approach and other more specialist organisations in the community. While the volunteers appreciated the new evidence and understanding that they achieved, one with experience of an AIDS organisation was left confused. Of course this is not solely an issue related to SCORE, but the relationship between sport-for-development organisations and how they complement other sources of community information is a matter for consideration.

The Magic Bus model is different, combining the provision of additional personal development opportunities for young adult programme participants, with a contribution to programme delivery. Young people were selected directly from the Magic Bus Voyager programme, having been monitored by staff over two years. They were given the opportunity to train as peer leaders under the strict tutelage of Magic Bus personnel over 35 sessions per year. They were trained to run sessions under the direct supervision of Magic Bus staff and provided the programme within the formal curriculum guidelines. Although the training appeared to make little impact on the average score for perceived self-efficacy, there was a substantial degree of re-adjustment as the trainees appeared to reassess their abilities in relation to the training experience. Further, the experience of training reduced the average self-esteem score. In both cases we witnessed a trend for below average scores to increase and above average scores to decrease (with inevitable individual differences) – which can probably be regarded as successful outcomes of a training programme. However, in some cases the resultant low self-efficacy and self-esteem scores must raise doubts about the suitability of some to be peer leaders. In the case of both SCORE and Magic Bus, after initial selection it seems that the training is presumed to equip volunteers to deliver programmes, with little subsequent judgement about suitability.

Further, although the training had some positive impacts on attitudes, the data illustrate that such programmes, however small and intense, will rarely produce uniform attitudes and values – something which was also obvious in the SCORE interviews. For both organisations, but especially for SCORE, the key issues relate to the extent to which such training delivers effective, consistent and quality sport-for-development programmes.

The Magic Bus survey data provide a different perspective on the impact training. The SCORE face-to-face testimonies about the experience and value of the training workshops were uniformly positive. While not seeking in any way to dismiss the general tenor of such testimony, the social context of the production of such responses needs to be taken into account. The impact of being interviewed by people who are, or are suspected of being, associated with the training organisation, and with whom you might desire employment, cannot be ignored. Further, evidence suggests that, although responses were positive, the subsequent experience of delivery was not uniform or uniformly positive.

The issues investigated in the Magic Bus survey were only related indirectly to the training experience and it is possible that face-to-face interviews in equivalent circumstances to SCORE might have produced similar testimony. However, the Magic Bus respondents were asked to reflect anonymously on their self-perceptions, which because of the length of the training programme, cannot solely be related to the training programme – other aspects of

their lives might have affected such responses. It is clear that any systematic evaluation of such programmes would require both approaches to data collection, by people not involved in the programmes.

CHAPTER 9: CONCLUSIONS

9.1 Introduction

The main aim of the research was to test the hypothesis that ‘sport contributes to the personal development and well-being of disadvantaged children and young people and brings wider benefits to the community’. However, because of resource constraints and logistical factors it was decided not to address the complex and vague issue of ‘wider community benefits’.

The more specific objectives were:

- To build a body of evidence and good practice around the use of sport and development by working with 10 key partners in the field.
- To enable all participating organisations to develop their M&E methodology and ultimately produce reports that provides a detailed programme and country-specific evidence base on the effectiveness for ‘development through sport’.

In this chapter we explore these issues and some implications for policy and practice.

9.2 The impact of the programmes on personal development

Care needs to be taken in attributing any measured changes simply to ‘sport’. Most of the respondents had participated in a range of other activities which were likely to have influenced aspects of their personal development. Also, in several cases there was a substantial time period between the first and second data collection and during this time respondents will have been subject to other experiences, influences and sources of information. The data should be regarded as indicating the impact of participating in a range of activities and social experiences provided by sport-for-development *organisations*. These and other issues will be dealt with below.

Within this context, in all programmes many participants improved their perceived self-efficacy and self-esteem – our two core measures of personal development and well-being. In terms of *self-efficacy*, two programmes (EMIMA and KCCC) recorded statistically significant increases in the average scores and one a non-significant increase (Praajak). Although KCCC and Magic Bus recorded decreases, many individuals within these programmes increased individual evaluations. In terms of *self-esteem*, all except Praajak recorded increases in average scores, but only the all-female EMIMA recorded a statistically significant increase.

In terms of the *degree of change* there is no evidence that one sex benefitted more than the other, except for the very small and cohesive female sample in Magic Bus Voyagers.

Differing impacts

Such averages disguise a more important impact of the programmes – the majority of respondents changed their evaluations for perceived self-efficacy (between 88 and 93%) and self-esteem (79-93%). Further, and reflecting previous research (Fox, 1992), there was a *general tendency* for those with the weakest or lower-than-average self-evaluations to increase their evaluations. Also there is an associated pattern of those with initially higher than average self-evaluations to *lower* their evaluation. .

The implication of such adjustments is that the view that participation in sport-for-development programme leads to ‘personal development’ over-simplifies the differential impact of such programmes – or calls for a consideration of what is meant by ‘personal development’. While many of the increases in perceived self-efficacy and self-esteem can be viewed as positive outcomes, reduction cannot necessarily be regarded negatively. Such reductions may reflect a more considered approach to the completion of the questionnaire on the second occasion, or the experience of sport may have forced reconsideration of perceived efficacy, or the social relationships and cooperation involved in participation might have led to readjustment of self-esteem, or some third factor might have led to such changes.

These re-evaluations also had implications for the nature of the groups. Changes in the competence-based perceived self-efficacy led to less diverse groups on this measure. Perhaps such outcomes are not surprising, as the object of most sport-for-development programmes is to emphasise inclusivity and the experience of collective activity may well lead to reduced diversity. However, shifts in the more egocentric measure of self-esteem led to *increased* diversity in several of the programmes.

Participants and non-participants

Although the programmes led to positive improvements in aspects of personal development for many participants, we cannot simply assume that this means that they became more confident than non-participants. Although participants had been in programmes for between 4 and 18 months there were few statistically significant differences between them and non-participants. In fact non-participants in EMIMA and KCCC had a higher average self-esteem score. Further, both participant groups exhibited less individual differences than non-participant groups. Such findings might reflect:

- Greater similarities among self-selecting participants, or;
- A reduced diversity as a function of collective programme experiences.

Relationship between perceived self-efficacy and self-esteem

The hypothesis that sport-for-development programmes contribute to participants’ personal development can be viewed as assuming that participation will lead to strengthened perceived self-efficacy, which in turn leads to increased self-esteem. However, in these data the relationship is contingent and unpredictable. Although EMIMA had the most statistically

robust increases for both self-efficacy and self-esteem, the relationship between the *changes* in both measures is weak. The Kids' League produced a clear relationship for males, but not for females; in Magic Bus Voyagers there was a strong relationship for the very small group of females, but not for males. Such data indicate that there is no *necessary* relationship between perceived self-efficacy and self-esteem – change in one does not necessarily lead to change in the other.

Some of the programmes may emphasise the development of self-efficacy and its relationship to self-worth and this will be more or less effective for females or males. Some programmes may be successful at increasing both sets of beliefs for certain participants, with no necessarily *causal* relationship between the two - perhaps because different processes are involved. Such effects are a function of the nature of participants, programme practice and ethos, cultural context and social relations in ways that we do not yet understand.

Testimonies as evidence

With so many individuals increasing perceived self-efficacy and self-esteem, it is easy to obtain the individual testimonies and 'case studies' which are often presented as evidence in sport-for-development. All programmes of any type will produce such successes – such programmes do contribute to the personal development of some young people. However, the data in this report indicate that there are few statistically significant changes and that such individual testimonies tell us nothing about more general *programme* impacts.

9.3 Re-evaluating the deficit model

Any understanding of the impact of programmes on aspects of personal development needs to consider something which is rarely addressed – the nature of participants and their own self-evaluations. The rationale for many sport-for-development programmes is based on an implicit *deficit model* of participants – deprived communities produce deficient individuals.

However, one of the key findings of this research is that many of the participants in these programmes had relatively normal evaluations of themselves on the core measures used. Although there were important individual and cultural differences between the participants in the various programmes, for both perceived self-efficacy and self-esteem the majority in all programmes recorded a broadly 'normal' distribution of self-evaluation. Such a distribution raises a number of issues:

- The danger of over-generalising about vague 'personal development' needs.
- The need to re-evaluate the nature and *extent* of expected programme impacts and how programme success is defined and measured.
- The implication for programme content and approaches.

- Recruitment. Do open-access programmes target vulnerable individuals effectively? However, the non-participant data indicate that programme participants are broadly representative of their communities and that such targeting might be difficult.

It would seem that the majority of participants in these programmes are young people with reasonably positive self-evaluations, but who happen to live in disadvantaged communities. Perhaps the key to their survival in such circumstances, or their presence on the programmes, lies in their relatively positive self-evaluations. It is useful here to remember Weiss's (1993) admonition that we concentrate attention on changing the attitudes and behaviour of target groups without concomitant attention to the institutional structures and social arrangements that tend to keep them 'target groups'.

9.4 The impact of the programmes on attitudes

As part of their commitment to the personal development of participants many sport-for-development programmes hope to influence certain values, attitudes and behaviour, especially toward gender-related issues and HIV and AIDS. Many claim to promote female 'empowerment' and view gender-related issues and attitudes as part of the HIV and AIDS education strategy – although much of this and the presumed causal relationships are rarely defined precisely. It might be assumed that attitudes are changed via the general inclusive nature of the programmes, or dealt with via certain types of social relationships or more formally and systematically via workshops. As questions relating to these issues were chosen by the programme personnel, it is assumed that there was some belief that participation in their programmes would lead to changes in attitudes to gender-related issues.

Gender attitudes

The survey data do not indicate that the programmes had a systematic and strong impact on gender-related attitudes. On all issues there were substantial minorities, sometimes majorities, who professed views that some might regard as 'traditional', 'reactionary' or 'sexist' (although such judgements need to be defended). Further, the programme-contingent nature of attitudes is illustrated by the fact that the widespread view that it is a *girl's responsibility to avoid getting pregnant* was strongly reinforced by participation in the Kids' League, but was slightly weakened for KCCC females.

Further, there were no overall significant differences between participants and non-participants on a wide range of issues and most of the differences can be regarded as reflecting chance. As might be expected, there was a diversity of opinion on most issues and although differences are small, sport-for-development participants often held more 'conservative' views than non-participants. The data indicate that taking part in these sport-for-development programmes had not made participants more 'liberal' or less 'conservative' than non-participants – although there were differences on specific issues. Such data raise a number of issues for sport-for-development programmes which seek to change values and attitudes.

- A consensus on such issues is rare and certain attitudes could be regarded as inconsistent. Consequently, it is difficult to establish the criteria on which to evaluate the performance of programmes – clearer and more precise thought is required by programme providers and funders as to their desired outcomes and the methods to achieve these.
- As such attitudes are rooted in traditional cultural and socio-religious mores and sustained by wider social institutions (family, church, education, peer groups) they are very difficult to change, especially via a sport-for-development programme which may seek to do so indirectly. In such circumstances, while providing sporting opportunities and seeking to develop a degree of mutual respect and understanding between the sexes, there is no reason to believe that the programmes are capable of changing certain ‘traditional’ attitudes towards the family and gender-related responsibilities. In fact, some religious-based organisations may seek to reinforce such attitudes.

HIV and AIDS

The participant/non-participant data indicate that some programmes recruit from communities in which there is already a reasonable level of understanding of these issues – although on one or two key issues the KCCC and EMIMA participants had a better understanding. However, on most issues the differences were small and in some cases participants knew slightly less than non-participants.

Our before-and-after data are limited to EMIMA, where the respondents had been taking part in activities for at least four months. Although the ‘before’ data indicate a relatively high level of understanding, there were some important improvements in understanding of important issues. Interestingly, the level of understanding of these issues was higher than for the females in the non-participant sample – a positive outcome.

As all ‘educational’ programmes will have differential impacts it is difficult to establish robust performance criteria. There was clearly an increased understanding of certain key issues, but some of the changes were marginal and on some key issues many respondents remained ill-informed. On the basis of these admittedly limited data it is difficult to establish a distinctive and effective role for *these* sport-for-development organisations in HIV and AIDS education. Of course it might be argued that a simple comparison of information levels under-estimates the importance of the emphasis placed on responsible behaviour by some sport-for-development organisations. However, we have no information about this, or if it leads to different sexual behaviour. Certainly, it seems like the strong KCCC emphasis on abstinence is not wholly effective, for whatever reasons.

The interview data with the SCORE community sports leaders provided insights into the relationship between training and practice, which probably have more general applicability. Despite the perceived success of the HIV and AIDS training programme and the uniformly positive attitudes to the KAO approaches, many interviewees referred to difficulties and

obstacles faced when seeking to address issues of HIV and AIDS – cultural resistance, young peoples’ boredom, parental opposition, lacking credibility with older people and a suspicion of their level of knowledge about such a taboo subject. Such issues raise general questions about the effectiveness of some of this work and the level of training provided or needed. While sport-for-development organisations may be effective in raising the understanding of leaders about HIV and AIDS, this does not imply that they will always know how to deal with varied and resistant audiences.

Sources of information

A significant issue emerging from all the data (including the interviews with SCORE community sports leaders) is the *relative* role of such organisations in HIV and AIDS education. Many operate within a context of a variety of parallel, more specialist, organisations dealing with HIV and AIDS issues and all participants and non-participants had access to a variety of information sources. The diversity of formal and informal information sources raises questions about the relative role of sport-for-development organisations. For example, the extent to which the information from such sources is consistent, the extent to which sport-for-development programmes reinforce or contradict such information (and related moral issues about abstinence and condoms). The real test of the effectiveness of sport-for-development programme may lie in an analysis of the role that they play within this web of information sources. For example, interview data with the SCORE community sports leaders indicate that, although the Kicking Aids Out approach was viewed as a positive contribution, there was some confusion about information from different sources.

9.5 Peer leaders

Selection and training

It is difficult to draw general conclusions from the data on peer leader training as the two programmes were very different, as are the data. However, this serves to emphasise the varied nature of the trainees and training provided to a group of people regarded as central to the sustainability and effectiveness of sport-for-development programmes.

Magic Bus selected participants in their Voyager programme and provided a 35 session training programme combining workshops and practical training sessions with closely monitored delivery of activity sessions. Those selected as SCORE community sports volunteers may or may not have been involved in their programmes, were mostly older than Magic Bus trainees and many had experience of working or volunteering in other organisations. The content of SCORE training varies as it is based on the needs of the individual, needs of the community and the priority areas of specific donors. Most training workshops are scheduled over 3 days, deal with a variety of issues with up to 3 workshops in a year.

The impact of training

In Magic Bus, although the training had little impact on the average self-efficacy score, the average score for self-esteem decreased (in a very small sample this was affected by a few individuals). However, there was a substantial degree of re-adjustment as the trainees reassessed their abilities in relation to the training experience. This is not surprising, as seeking to develop leadership skills requires a different set of competencies from those required to be a programme participant. As in the more general programmes, the trend was for below average scores to increase and above average scores to decrease. However, in some cases the resulting low self-efficacy and self-esteem scores must raise doubts about the suitability of some to be peer leaders.

In part, the SCORE interviews illustrate differences in the two types of data. Although there is reason to suspect some social desirability bias, the more subjective testimony is systematically positive about the impact of the training on their social confidence, communication skills and aspects of self-efficacy. Many saw these aspects as being developed via the social processes involved in the training workshops and the requirement to meet and discuss issues with new people and be involved in team working.

From training to delivery

We have already referred to the difficulties and obstacles faced when seeking to address issues of HIV and AIDS. Another issue relates to individual interpretations and the potential for a non-uniform delivery of 'programmes'. Although personal experiences are potentially very useful, unless the lessons are articulated through a more general curriculum or ethos it can lead to inconsistency in the information communicated and even permits the articulation of personal prejudice. Others said that they were uncomfortable with a more formal coaching approach and that they preferred to play and have fun with children. While such examples are based on the SCORE interviews, it is likely that they reflect wider variations in programme delivery – something which Magic Bus has sought to reduce via the implementation of a formal curriculum-based approach.

Such variation in practice raises important questions about the nature of many sport-for-development 'programmes', serves to illustrate the basis for the contingent nature of impacts and provides a warning about unwarranted generalisations. The need for a better understanding of programme implementation before assessing outcomes could not be better illustrated.

9.6 Good practice

It was not possible to achieve the second objective of building a body of evidence about good practice, because the identification of 'good practice' needs to be done post-facto on the basis of clearly defined and achieved outcomes. In this regard the data in this report enabled us to identify 'what' happened, but we have a much more limited understanding of 'how' and 'why' and the extent to which measured changes are attributable directly to participation in sport alone.

Although most projects recorded improvements in individual and average self-evaluations, there were significant inter-programme differences in the strength of effects and there was no identifiable ‘sport-for-development effect’. Further, the lack of statistical significance for many of the changes means that there remains a good deal of chance and individual variation in such findings. The data illustrate that outcomes are contingent – they vary in scope, strength and direction between programmes and in ways that are hard to predict. Consequently, it is unlikely that we can identify transferable ‘good practice’ which works in all contexts and all cultures. Even apparently similar outcomes (e.g. increased self-esteem; improved HIV and AIDS knowledge) may have been produced by different processes.

Different programmes, different experiences, different relationships

The projects offered participants a variety of different experiences and as a consequence the measured outcomes can be taken to reflect such circumstances:

- The Kids’ League was a mixed-sex open-access 6-7 week football/netball programme.
- Praajak held a series of three all-male outdoor physical activity camps over 20 months. In the periods between the camps the participants were involved in other Praajak activities, safe homes and the associated intense personal relationships.
- The mixed-sex Magic Bus Voyagers was the culmination of participation in a longer term curriculum-based and structured programme.
- The all-female EMIMA and mixed-sex KCCC sports programmes were on-going and embedded in a variety of other activities and workshops.

Each organisation has a different ethos and the nature of social relationships will have differed; some are broadly secular but at least one is influenced by a particular religious orientation; some emphasise mastery-oriented sports activities, while others adopt a more competitive approach; some operate in small groups and others have much larger programmes; some are single sex and some are mixed. More generally the apparently, contingent relationship between self-efficacy and self-esteem for male and females requires an in-depth understanding of programme content and process and participant experience.

Consequently, we are not in a position to understand wholly *why* the various individual and collective impacts occurred. Of course, the context-specific nature of the impacts of the various programmes is not confined to sport-for-development programmes. As Pawson (2007: 30) argues:

It is through the workings of entire systems of social relationships that any changes in behaviours, events and social conditions are effected – therefore rarely is the same programme equally effective in all circumstances

In sport-for-development we are faced with the same issues as all other forms of social intervention. However, the data from this research has identified some of the key the issues for investigation.

Plus sport or sport plus?

Within this context it has proven difficult to maintain a meaningful analytical distinction between plus sport and sport plus organisations. In most of the organisations participants take part in a wide range of other pedagogical and cultural activities aimed at various forms of ‘personal development’. Consequently the data produced in this report can best be regarded as reflecting the experiences of participants in sport-for-development *organisations*.

9.7 Developing organisations’ M&E methodology

The second objective was to enable all participating organisations to develop their M&E methodology. In this regard there was a substantial under-estimation of the difficulties involved in enabling organisations to develop both their M&E philosophy and methodology and to undertake the research in the required supportive but non-directive manner. Here there were a number of fundamental issues which affected the nature of the data collected and have substantial implications for future work of this type and the development of a robust evidence base for sport-for-development.

Programme theory and poorly defined outcomes

Most programme personnel had difficulty in formulating researchable project outcomes and the precise nature of the components of ‘personal development’. In part this reflected overly ambitious and poorly defined outcomes, which had also been accepted by funders. However, the problems faced in formulating outcomes reflected a deeper issue - the widespread lack of coherent *programme theories* i.e. the various components, mechanisms and sequences of causes and effects which are presumed to lead to desired outcomes. This raises significant questions about the utility of seeking to evaluate programme performance on the basis of vague and ill-defined outcomes, which may have little relation to programme content and processes.

Lack of M&E expertise: the limits of limited training

In nearly all cases there was a substantial lack of basic experience and expertise, with few organisations having dedicated and experienced M&E personnel. In some cases these tasks were added to existing staff commitments in poorly funded organisations, or given to a temporary employee or a part-time consultant. In nearly all cases there was a lack of basic expertise and, more importantly, an understanding of M&E’s emphasis on rigour and robustness. Outcome-oriented M&E requires some basic *methodological* expertise and intellectual understanding and it is not simply a matter of *training* in rather limited workshops.

Although some eventually embraced the developmental ethos of the project, some seemed to view it in a more traditional way as simply delivering necessary *outputs* (i.e. collecting data)

to conform to a funding agreement, which led to sub-optimal data collection. As this may reflect historical interpretations of the accountability requirements of funders there is a clear need for such interpretations to be addressed if robust outcome-oriented M&E is to become more widespread.

Lack of NGO staff continuity

Lack of staff continuity in poorly funded NGOs is probably an unavoidable problem, but in some cases this led to failures of communication, delays, the need for additional training and the loss of continuity in agreements made with the research team and in some cases to sub-optimal data collection. Because of this lack of continuity there must be strong doubts about the extent to which the objective of embedding a robust M&E philosophy and practice has been achieved in some of these organisations, or could ever be achieved in under-funded and relatively unstable organisations.

9.8 The way forward

9.8.1 What development is implied by sport-for-development?

The data indicate a *general tendency* for those with the weakest or lower-than-average scores for perceived self-efficacy and self-esteem to increase their evaluations. Also there was an associated pattern of those with initially higher than average self-evaluations lowering them (with inevitable individual exceptions). While many of these increases can be viewed as positive outcomes, the recorded reductions cannot necessarily be regarded negatively. Consequently, the view that participation in sport-for-development programme leads to ‘personal development’ over-simplifies the differential impact of such programmes. It also calls into question the value of the individual testimonies and case studies. All social interventions will produce such individual successes, but they tell us little about how *programmes* operate.

Further, although the data indicate certain tendencies, there is no clear and systematic ‘sport-for-development effect’ – most of the recorded changes were not statistically significant, or where they were, there were special circumstances to consider. As in all forms of social intervention, the nature and extent of impacts are largely contingent and vary between programme types, participants and cultural contexts. In addition, few sport-for-development organisations seek to achieve their desired outcomes solely through sport. Sport is usually embedded in a range of other activities, practices and forms of social relationships, making it extremely difficult to isolate a ‘sport effect’.

Further, because of a relatively uncritical and one-dimensional view of ‘sport’, programmes and funders are often unable to articulate precisely the nature of the desired outcomes with theoretical coherence required for robust evaluation. Because of this we cannot be wholly sure that the measures used in this study were valid measures of the impact of the programmes on participants. This concern is related directly to a final major issue – the mostly unexamined deficit model which underpins these programmes. Programmes are provided to contribute to the rather ill-defined notion of ‘personal development’, with little

systematic consideration of the nature of participants – there is a sort of environmental determinism, with deprived environments producing deficient people (however defined). Yet, the survey data indicate that in terms of their self-evaluations, most of the participants fell within relatively normal ranges (and were not too dissimilar to non-participants).

9.8.2 Programme theory and theory-based evaluation

These various factors – the *variety* of sport-for-development programmes, the inevitably *contingent* nature of impacts, a degree of uncertainty about *valid impact measures* and unexamined assumptions based on a *deficit model* – all point to the need for both programme providers and funders to develop *programme theories*. There is a clear need for both to articulate *how* programmes are meant to work and the precise nature of the issues which they seek to address. A programme theory details the components, mechanisms, relationships and sequences of causes and effects which are presumed to lead to desired outcomes (which are themselves a subject for analysis and clarification). In the case of sport-for-development programmes this will relate not only to the nature and type of the sporting processes, but also the presumed *relative role* of all associated programme activities – is sport simply a fly paper to attract participants to broader social development programmes, or is it an educational medium? If it is an educational medium, how does it achieve this?

There are two broad approaches to developing programme theory. The first is for programme providers to outline systematically the various components and mechanisms and *how* they are presumed, via a series of causes and effects, to lead to desired outcomes. A second approach is to derive a programme theory from relevant research and theory and to design a programme which contains the mechanisms and elements which have been identified as maximising the potential to achieve the desired outcomes. The relative dearth of relevant research in sport-for-development is not necessarily a major constraint, as the concern would be with relatively generic mechanisms which have been identified as contributing to attitude and behaviour change. For example, *perceived self-efficacy* is known to be affected by factors such as mastery experiences, role modelling, verbal persuasion and social support. In fact, some knowledge of such research and theory is necessary in order to evaluate critically the providers' programme theories.

Such an approach has a number of significant advantages

- It emphasises the critical distinction between necessary conditions (i.e. participation) and *sufficient conditions* (the processes and experiences) necessary to maximise the potential to achieve desired outcomes.
- It requires a systematic re-consideration of the deficit model.
- It identifies and seeks to resolve different programme theories held variously by programme providers, policy makers and funders. They are all required to think harder and deeper about their assumptions and the programmes.

- It assists in the formulation of theoretically coherent and realistic outcomes related to programme processes.
- It provides the basis for formative, rather than summative (i.e. outcome), evaluation – it moves beyond a concern with *what* should happen to consideration of *how* and *why*. M&E becomes developmental, as formative evaluations are concerned with examining ways of improving and enhancing the implementation and management of interventions.
- Theory-based evaluation helps evaluators to focus on key questions/mechanisms and it provides feedback about which chain of reasoning breaks down and where it breaks down.
- It contributes to capacity-building, to developing a greater sense of ownership, understanding and integration and developing an organisational ability to reflect on and analyse attitudes, beliefs and behaviour.
- Although many programme outcomes will be contingent, theory-based approaches also maximise evaluators' ability to identify possible generic mechanisms. Such mechanisms provide the basis for careful generalisation and possibly the development of sport-for-development.
- Although many programme outcomes will be contingent, theory-based approaches also maximise evaluators' ability to identify possible generic mechanisms. Such mechanisms provide the basis for careful generalisation and possibly the development of sport-for-development.

REFERENCES

- Bandura, A.(1986) *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ,
- Bandura, A. (1997) *Self-efficacy: The Exercise of Control*, New York: Worth Publishers
- Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V. S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of human behavior* (Vol. 4, pp. 71-81). New York: Academic Press. (Reprinted in H. Friedman [Ed.], *Encyclopedia of mental health*. San Diego: Academic Press, 1998).
- Baumeister, R.F., Campbell, J.D., Krueger J.I. and Vohs, K.D. (2005) *Exploding the Self-Esteem Myth*, *Scientific American*, January 2005
- Blascovich, J. and Tomaka, J. (1991) Measures of Self-esteem. In J. Robinson, P. Shaver, and L. Wrightsman (eds.), *Measures of Personality and Social Psychological Attitudes*, 161-194, New York: Academic Press
- Emler, N. (2001) *Self-Esteem: The Costs and Causes of Low Self-worth*, York, Joseph Rowntree Foundation
- Fox, K.R. (1992) Physical education and the development of self-esteem in children in N Armstrong (ed) *New Directions in Physical Education Vol 2: Towards a National Curriculum* Leeds. Human Kinetics
- Adler, N., & Stewart, J. (2004). Research network on socioeconomic status and health: Self-esteem. <http://www.macses.ucsf.edu/Research/Psychosocial/notebook/selfesteem.html>
- Patriksson, M. (1995) Scientific Review Part 2, In, *The Significance of Sport for Society – Health, Socialisation, Economy: A Scientific Review*, prepared for the 8th Conference of European Ministers responsible for Sport, Lisbon, 17-18 May 1995, Council of Europe Press
- Pawson, R (2006) *Evidence-based policy: A realist perspective*, London, Sage.
- Pawson, R. and Tilley, N. (2004) *Realist Evaluation*
http://www.communitymatters.com.au/RE_chapter.pdf
- Spence, J.C., McGannon, K.R. and Poon, P. (2005) The effect of exercise on global self-esteem: a quantitative review. *Journal of Sport and Exercise* 27(3):311-334
- Weiss, C.H. (1993) Where Politics and Evaluation Research Meet, *Evaluation Practice*, 14(1), 93-106

APPENDIX 1: THE RESEARCH PROCESS

1. Background

The purpose of the Sport Research Initiative was to generate a robust ‘evidence base’ around the role of sport in achieving this change. Our way of approaching this work was to test the hypothesis that *‘sport contributes to the personal development and well being of disadvantaged children and young people and brings wider benefits to the community’*.

This evidence base would then be used by both Comic Relief and IDS UK to sharpen our grant making policies and practices. We would also share the results with development and sport networks in the UK and internationally, in order to influence the policies and practices of other organisations, using development through sport approaches.

Comic Relief and IDS UK each identified 5 partner organisations already working with disadvantaged children and young people, implementing or wishing to implement sports’ programmes, and who had expressed an interest and commitment to be involved in this initiative. There was a balance of 5 organisations, whose primary focus is using sport as a tool to achieve social development outcomes, (sport-plus) and 5 organisations who used sport as one of a range of tools to deliver against their organisational objectives (plus sport). This enabled the initiative to:

- Work in a number of different spheres such as HIV prevention, conflict resolution and leadership development;
- Involve different users such as girls, boys, street children or slum dwellers;
- Employ different sports such as team-based games like football and solo performances such as athletics;
- Operate in a range of different countries;
- Operate different methodologies, such as those whose starting point is to use sport as a tool towards the personal development of disadvantaged individuals and their communities, and those starting with the development of sports programmes and sports infrastructures.

2. The intended approach

Small grants programme

‘Top-up’ grants of up to £30,000 per partner organisation over the three years. These grants will enable each organisation to develop and refine their thinking and planning around the use of sport in development; undertake a baseline study from which to measure progress; develop a clear set of outcomes around the changes they want to achieve with vulnerable children and young people; and implement a monitoring and evaluation strategy for their sports programme; and provide appropriate training and support to staff.

Technical advice and support

Professor Fred Coalter of Stirling University was contracted to provide each organisation with appropriate technical advice and support. This included the provision of relevant documents and manuals; on-line coaching and advice; one visit during the funding period; and commentary on reports and evaluations.

Information sharing and dissemination

IDS UK would host an online discussion forum for participating partners. This would enable partners to share reports and experiences; discuss problems and seek comments and advice from one another. In addition we would hold two workshops; one at the beginning and one at the end of the project.

3. The actual/modified approach

Over the lifetime of the initiative, the approach and the number of partners have been modified in response to specific issues and challenges relating to partners and/or general issues that have arisen as a result of the programme design. These should all be taken into account within the evaluation.

Small grants Programme

- ‘Top-up’ grants were given to all 10 organisations in year 1
- 2 organisations (Chisomo & Cape Town Child Welfare) pulled out/ were stopped at the end of year 1
- 2 organisations (Don Bosco and YMCA Senegal) ceased working on the research project but continued to receive grants after in Year 2

Technical Advice and Support

- Fred Coalter consistently supported the organisations (6) which were involved in the research after year 1

Information sharing and dissemination

- The online discussion forum was not used and it was felt that workshops would better suit the needs of the organisations
- Two workshops were held to discuss project progression and address challenges as a group

4. Outputs

Tangible outputs

- Development and implementation of sports strategies that are tailored to meet the particular needs of vulnerable young people and their communities,
- Enhanced skills and knowledge among participating agencies to use sport to improve the lives of vulnerable children and young people and improved monitoring and evaluation techniques,
- Development of a tried and tested, user friendly, monitoring and evaluation tool for the use of sport in development,
- Individual agency reports that provide a detailed, programme and country specific evidence base on the effectiveness for development through sport, and,
- A widely respected evaluation report that provides a clear evidence base to determine the distinct contribution sport can make to the personal development of disadvantaged children and young people and the wider community.

Anticipated outcomes

- A clear evidence base on the value/impact of sport both individually & collectively.
- A common understanding of sport for development.
- A common methodology that informs programme design and outcomes.
- Effective relationships and learning between development sector and sports sector.
- More effective and sustainable programmes with an increasingly mainstreamed gender impact.

APPENDIX 2: PROJECT OUTLINES

Organisation name	Area of work	Country/ location	Target group for research project	Activities	Expected non-sporting outcomes of sports work	Expected sporting outcomes of projects
Praajak – UK partner Railway Children	Meeting immediate needs of railway children, family reunification, juvenile justice	Calcutta, India	Railway platform children who have run away or been abandoned, 30 boys aged 10-25	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Camping, low-altitude trekking and rock-climbing will be the adventure sports activities that will be provided during the project period. Low-altitude trekking and rock climbing does not involve complex mountaineering skills and expensive equipment. Therefore the risks for these activities are low. This programme will also combine a full spectrum of activities, including, hiking, cooking, fishing, camping, rock climbing, solo survival, negotiating water rapids et cetera and other related skills like map reading, woodcraft, orienteering, knot-making, sky-watching, bird-watching, estimation and weather-forecasting. Besides activities directly related to trekking and rock-climbing, camping time will be utilised for a range of life skills development sessions. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Understanding of gender equity issues and appropriate behaviour Increased self-efficacy/esteem and self-confidence Improved social skills (i.e. communication skills and interpersonal relations) Increased trust and cooperation, increased sense of communal responsibility and development of leadership skills (including self-help groups, micro savings programmes, co-operative ventures) Commitment to learning and positive attitudes to future and improved aspirations Reduced social isolation and strengthened friendship networks 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> The formation of a trekking group by the children, which can evolve into a trekking service provider, managed by the young people themselves, for other underprivileged children. Children would develop a greater degree of physical fitness (flexibility, power, endurance & agility) and understand rules of the sports and basic technical skills. Some of the children participating in this programme will go ahead to receive mountaineering training and join existing expedition groups.
Kamwokya Christian Caring Community – UK partner SCIAF	Education and vocational training, health care, counselling, HIV awareness, youth groups	Kampala, Uganda	Slum dwellers, boys and girls aged 15-25	<p>Existing sporting activities conducted at the Youth centre, and also in schools and the community. Key activities include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Training of trainers Daily training sessions at TLC Youth Centre. Sports hosted include: Netball, basketball, volleyball, aerobics (all for both boys and girls), karate and weight lifting (mainly for boys), jogging, quarterly marathons, table tennis and board games. Sports Outreach sessions in schools. Sports galas Soccer clinics organized by the “Allstars Sports Academy (ASSA)”. Football coaching courses 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Increased knowledge on HIV/AIDS prevention and care, which goes further, leading to positive attitudes and adoption of lower-risk behaviour and lifestyles(e.g. reduced substance abuse and casual sex); Enrolment and commitment to education by a significant number of young people who previously were out of school or had minimal interest; Understanding and promotion of gender equity and related issues; Reduced social isolation and increased sense of belonging 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Identification and development of sport specific talent; Development of physical literacy and basic sporting skills; Individuals reach their specific performance goals that relate to self fulfilment; Understanding the rules and ethics of sport, including the importance of team building, cooperation, positive competition, team and individual discipline

Organisation name	Area of work	Country/ location	Target group for research project	Activities	Expected non-sporting outcomes of sports work	Expected sporting outcomes of projects
Don Bosco Homes – UK partner CAFOD	Education and vocational training, counselling	Monrovia, Liberia	Street Children reunified with their families, boys aged 12-14	<p>Soccer will be used to deliver project needs through the following sporting activities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bi monthly Soccer Leagues • Warm-up soccer games before training with simple HIV/AIDS messages • Interactive forum among players • Soccer Training Sessions • Soccer Coaching 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Increased understanding of HIV/AIDS 2. Increased self-efficacy 3. Reduction in emotional stress 	1. increased agility
YMCA Senegal – UK partner Y-Care International	Education and vocational training, counselling	Casamance, Senegal	<p>Children affected by conflict.</p> <p>Male and female, aged 10-25</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regular training of young football players and wrestlers (a minimum of 3 days a week). The young people will be provided with the necessary training and equipment to develop their skills. • Football tournaments organised once every 6 months and the finals at the end of the tournament. The winners will receive trophies and medals • Team building activities organised for young players to learn to compete while respecting each other. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Development of leadership skills: young people learn to take responsibility for themselves and for the group, players are taught to be tolerant, cooperative and respectful to their opponents, a culture of peace and non-violence is adopted by participants 2. Increased self-confidence: the sport beneficiaries will develop stronger personalities. 3. Young people learn to set their own life goals 4. A team spirit is developed among young players: young people learn to have fun together without quarrelling or fighting 5. Young players develop a spirit of fair play, tolerance, cooperation and respect to their opponents 6. Young people participate in life skills activities 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Physical & technical development <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development of talents among young people: the young beneficiaries will be provided with the necessary training and equipment to develop their skills. • Increased physical fitness and improved health. 2. Understanding the rules and ethics of sport: knowledge of professional football techniques is provided to project beneficiaries,

Organisation name	Area of work	Country/ location	Target group for research project	Activities	Expected non-sporting outcomes of sports work	Expected sporting outcomes of projects
Chisomo Children's Club – UK partner Concern Universal	Family reunification, shelter, education and vocational training, health care, counselling	Blantyre, Malawi	Street children, 100 boys who have been reintegrated into families	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conducting sports development training to all staff • Providing regular sports training with Chisomo children at least twice a week • Train Chisomo children in sports skills such as football, netball, and basketball and also to impart knowledge to the children in various fields such as HIV/AIDS, Children's rights, leadership skills, and other life-skills • Organising Sports Bonanzas (various sporting activities) with five selected primary schools at least one bonanza per primary school every three months. • Organising league competitions among the participants in this project: Chisomo, primary schools and other teams from other youth organisations. • Improving sports infrastructure 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Improved self esteem/Self efficacy and self confidence in the children 2. Improved social skills, Commitment to education 3. Increased trust and cooperation between staff/coaches and children, 4. Development of leadership skills, Positive attitudes to future and improved aspirations towards life, 5. Increased knowledge in HIV/AIDS, Child rights and responsibilities, 6. Wise decisions regarding sexual life and application of correct decisions as regards to sexual life that may prevent them from contracting HIV virus 7. Increased participation of girls in sports 8. Understanding of, and commitment to gender, improved relations with other people 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Skilled staff/peer coaches competent to implement a sporting programme 2. Skilled volunteers (primary school teachers) to facilitate sporting activities in schools during sports bonanza and leagues 3. Competent staff to monitor a sporting project 4. Improved physical fitness in children participating sports 5. Talented/skilled children in sports
SCORE	SCORE's mission is use sport to provide youth with valuable skills and opportunities that they need to succeed in life and contribute to their communities.	Limpopo Province, South Africa	Children and young people, boys and girls, aged 15-25	<p>SCORE will be measuring the impact of the Leading the Game project which includes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training of peer leaders and teachers to deliver Kicking AIDS Out and other life and leadership skills programmes through sport • Football: Specific Coaching Sessions • Local Tournaments • Learner-organised inter-class school football festival 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Improve life and leadership skills of youth participating in community sport programmes (assertiveness, self-confidence, resilience and communication skills) 2. Increase knowledge and awareness of HIV/AIDS and other related health and social issues amongst the youth 3. Increase knowledge and awareness about gender equity in the community 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Increase opportunities for the youth, women and girls to participate in sport activities 2. Increase sport administration and leadership capacity of youth, women and girls sport leaders 3. Increase the number of trained youth sport volunteers 4. Increase participation rates in sports and physical activity among children

Organisation name	Area of work	Country/ location	Target group for research project	Activities	Expected non-sporting outcomes of sports work	Expected sporting outcomes of projects
The Kid's League	Promotion of health, life skills and fun for boys and girls through sport. Emphasis on sporting inclusion. TKL also contributes towards the peace building process by integrating children from diverse communities and backgrounds, including orphans and vulnerable children.	Gulu Town, including IDP camps, Uganda	Children affected by conflict, Boys and girls ages 9-14	<p>There are 3 regular 8-week main football and netball league seasons. The regular league consists of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 6 Junior Football Teams (16 players per team mixed) (aged 6 – 9) 6 Mids Football Teams (16 players per team) (aged 10 -12) 6 Senior Football Teams (16 players per team) (aged 13 – 14+) 6 Junior Girls Netball Teams (14 players per team) (aged 6 – 9) 6 Senior Girls Netball Teams (14 players per team) (aged 10 – 14+) 4 Girls Football Teams (16 players per team) (aged 10 – 14+) 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Improvement of the self efficacy of youth Increased integration of children from different backgrounds Reduction in anxiety or trauma Increased gender equity and participation Acquisition of key life skills including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Understanding positive non-aggressive interaction The development of citizenship values through understanding sporting ethics The ability to make a decision and stick to it Increase in adult-child interaction Ability to make new friends 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Understanding sporting ethics / moral reasoning Increasing girls participation in sports Improved sports facilities Development of trained adult coaches
EMIMA	Provision of sporting opportunities for youths living in the most disadvantaged communities in Tanzania and by using sport and physical activity to enhance youth development and build community capacity.	Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania	Children and young people aged 14-18, in particular girls	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> After-school and weekend sport activities, including football, basketball, netball and volleyball. Sports Bonanzas and festivals are held on a monthly basis. Sports Tournaments Youth Development. 'Kicking Aids Out' activities led by peer leaders. Girls Empowerment Project. The goal of this project is to develop girls' leadership, to provide opportunities to participate in regular community activities and to offer strategies to live a healthy, safe and productive lifestyle through the provision of a gender equitable sports programme for girls at risk. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> More young people will have improved knowledge of HIV/AIDS More young people demonstrate greater self-efficacy, confidence, respect and responsible citizenship More young people develop teamwork More young people have informed decision making skills More young people will have an understanding of gender issues and there will be improved gender equality More young people will have safer sex 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> All children/youths within the community in which the Centre is located are given the opportunity to enjoy participating in sport and develop teamwork. Youths are given the opportunity to play competitive sport and enjoy competitive success. Youths are given the opportunity to maximise their potential in sport and participate at the highest levels Well trained and qualified coaches and referees are produced building community capacity to support the sports programme. More girls are participating in sport

Organisation name	Area of work	Country/ location	Target group for research project	Activities	Expected non-sporting outcomes of sports work	Expected sporting outcomes of projects
Magic Bus	Empowering children and youth with positive experiences to discover and develop through sport Sensitize and advocate right to play for children Promote gender equality	Mumbai, India	Children living in slums Boys and girls aged 10 and above	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Peer leader training • Play and recreational activities: local and traditional games, theatre activities, song, dance. • Organized sport: Handball, Football, traditional games (kabaddi, kho kho) • Adventure sport: trekking, camping, Climbing & abseiling, rope activities, Nature trails and many outbound activities. 	<p>1. the Peer Leaders the programme will enhance the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self Efficacy • Self Esteem • Leadership Skills • Decision Making Skills <p>2. Among the children the peer leaders reach out to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Physical self efficacy and social efficacy 	<p>1. For Peer Leaders the programme will bring about an improvement in:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Technique and skills of playing football. • Ability to coach children in football with the basic techniques, skills, rules and fair play. <p>2. Among the children the peer leaders reach out to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improvement in the techniques and skills of playing football
Cape Town Child Welfare – NB// CTCW were initially one of the four projects to be studied under VSO South Africa however a decision was taken to focus on only one of these projects, namely CTCW	The Prevention of abuse, neglect and exploitation of vulnerable children The Protection of children at risk The Preservation of families in crisis The Alleviation of poverty in communities and families The Management of HIV&AIDS in communities	Hanover Park, Cape Town, South Africa	Orphans and vulnerable children, Boys and girls aged 11 and over	Rugby and soccer <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Practice Tuesdays and Thursdays • Casual matches every Saturday • Matches every Sunday against other teams in the surrounding areas • HIV Awareness and Life Skills Training with participants during school holidays • Individual contacts with participants and referrals to social workers as needed 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Life skills improved 2. Confidence improved 3. Leadership skills improved 4. HIV&AIDS awareness improved and children/youth making better informed decisions in respect of sexual behaviour 5. OVC's kept away from drugs, alcohol, gangs and negative sexual behaviour 6. Improved school attendance and progress 7. OVC's previously not receiving social work intervention referred and receiving services 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Events and sports festivals to be held during the year 2. Participants more skilled and efficient in the sport they practised 3. Area teams established in soccer and rugby who will compete against teams in other areas

APPENDIX 3: SELF-EFFICACY SCALE

Please state whether you strongly disagree, disagree, agree or strongly agree with each statement.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
If something looks too complicated, I will not even bother to try it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I avoid trying to learn new things when they look to difficult.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When trying something new, I soon give up if I am not initially successful.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When I make plans, I am certain I can make them work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If I can't do a job the first time, I keep trying until I can.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When I have something unpleasant to do, I stick to it until I finish it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When I decide to do something, I go right to work on it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Failure just makes me try harder.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When I set important goals for myself, I rarely achieve them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I do not seem to be capable of dealing with most problems that come up in my life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When unexpected problems occur, I don't handle them very well.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel insecure about my ability to do things.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Component Parts of the Self-Efficacy Scale

Please state whether you strongly disagree, disagree, agree or strongly agree with each statement.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Initiative				
If something looks too complicated, I will not even bother to try it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I avoid trying to learn new things when they look to difficult.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When trying something new, I soon give up if I am not initially successful.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Effort				
When I make plans, I am certain I can make them work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If I can't do a job the first time, I keep trying until I can.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When I have something unpleasant to do, I stick to it until I finish it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When I decide to do something, I go right to work on it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Failure just makes me try harder.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Persistence				
When I set important goals for myself, I rarely achieve them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I do not seem to be capable of dealing with most problems that come up in my life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When unexpected problems occur, I don't handle them very well.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel insecure about my ability to do things.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

APPENDIX 4: ROSENBERG SELF-ESTEEM SCALE

Rosenberg Self-esteem scale

Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. Please state whether you strongly disagree, disagree, agree or strongly agree with each statement.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
On the whole I am satisfied with myself	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
At times I think I am no good at all	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel that I have a number of good qualities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am able to do things as well as most other people	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel I do not have much to be proud of	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I certainly feel useless at times	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel that I am a person of worth, at least equal with others	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I wish I had more respect for myself	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
All in all, I am inclined to think I am a failure	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I take a positive attitude towards myself	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

APPENDIX 5: TECHNICAL APPENDIX

This section provides details of the data sets used in the analysis they were processed and analysed.

Data Sets and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS)

SPSS data files were created by project staff and sent to the team at the University of Stirling. Separate files were obtained for the before and the after surveys and merged. The data were processed using SPSS version 18.

To obtain valid comparisons of before and after findings, only matched data have been compared (i.e. where the project participant returned both a before and after questionnaires). The sample sizes for each project and the final matched sample size are shown below.

Project	Before survey sample size	After survey sample size	Matched sample size
EMIMA (GEP)	60	35	35
KCCC	58	50	46
Magic Bus - Voyagers	46	46	45
Magic Bus – Peer Leaders	18	17	17
Praajak	72	46	38
The Kids' League	125	117	117

Two additional data sets were used. A 'control' group of non-participants in KCCC (n:46) was used to compare data from the KCCC first survey; a data set of EMIMA participants and non-participants was compared.

Statistical Testing

Checking for Strength of Relationships

The study sought to examine the strength of relationships between different variables (e.g. self-efficacy and self-esteem, or change in self-efficacy and self esteem). Also, the analysis sought to predict one variable from another. This analysis was achieved through the use of correlation and regression analysis .

Correlation

The *correlation coefficient* tells us the extent to which there is a relationship between both measures and the strength of this relationship. A score of 1 would mean that there is a perfect positive correlation between the two measures – an increase in one being associated with a proportionally related increase in the other. A score of 0 indicates that the relationship is wholly random. To compare the strength of association between variables, the non-parametric Spearman's correlation coefficient (r_s) was used. This test was used because self-

efficacy and self-esteem measures do not meet all the criteria for interval data i.e. a meaningful continuous scale of measurement such that equal differences between values in the scale genuinely correspond to real differences between the quantities that the scale measures.

Regression

Multiple regression was used to assess the relative impacts of different variables on changes between the before and after surveys.

Testing Differences

To assess the extent of difference in findings, a range of non-parametric tests was used. Non-parametric tests were used because the scoring systems for self-efficacy and self-esteem do not generate interval data. Furthermore, the data were not all normally distributed. This means that the results were not as robust as those produced by parametric tests, but the non-parametric tests were more appropriate.

2 Related Samples Test

In order to assess whether there was a statistically significant **difference** between the before and after mean scores for self-efficacy and self-esteem, the Wilcoxon signed-rank tests was used. This is appropriate where the results come from the same participants (i.e. before and after scores).

2 Independent Samples Test

For the comparison between participant and non-participants in KCCC and EMIMA, the Mann-Whitney U test was used. This test is appropriate for two independent samples (i.e. comparing results from different groups).

The level of statistical significance was $p \leq .05$

All the tests were undertaken using SPSS version 18.

APPENDIX 6: PARTICIPANT / NON-PARTICIPANT SELF-EFFICACY

Table A5-1: Self-efficacy; EMIMA/non-EMIMA, male and female

[Figures approaching 3 indicate more desirable outcomes]

	EMIMA		Non-EMIMA	
Positive Statements	Males	Females	Males	Females
When I make plans I am certain that I can make them work	2.35	2.16	2.44	2.17
When I decide to do something I get right to work on it	2.62	2.24	2.59	2.28
Failure just makes me try harder	2.27	2.24	2.56	2.14
<i>Base number</i>	26	25	32	29

Table A5-2: Self-efficacy; EMIMA/non- EMIMA

[Figures approaching 0 indicate more desirable outcomes]

	EMIMA		Non-EMIMA	
Positive Statements	Males	Females	Males	Females
I give up on things before completing them	1.88	2.12	1.69	1.97
When I set important goals for myself I rarely achieve them	2.19	2.04	2.47	1.97
I avoid facing difficulties	1.85	1.94	2.16	1.90
If something looks too complicated I will not even bother to try it	2.15	1.80	1.97	2.00
I feel insecure about my ability to do things	0.88	1.20	1.06	1.00
<i>Base number</i>	26	25	32	29

Table A5-3: Self-Efficacy: KCCC and non-KCCC
[Figures approaching 1 show more desirable outcomes]

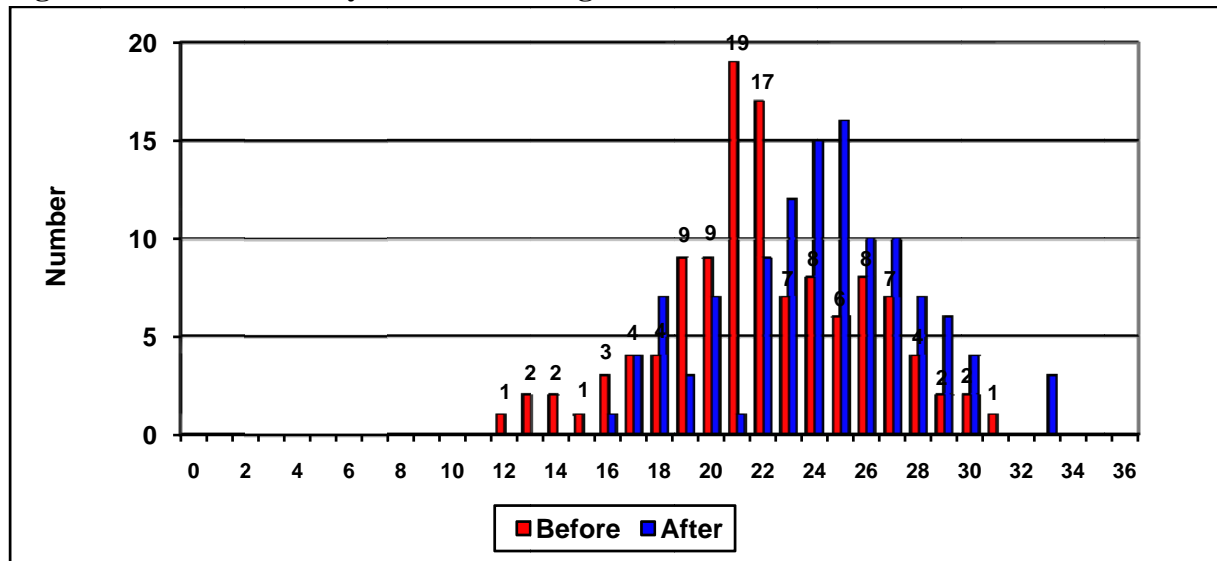
	KCCC		Non-KCCC	
Positive Statements	Males	Females	Males	Females
When I make plans I am certain that I can make them work	0.875	0.727	0.957	0.958
When I decide to do something I get right to work on it	0.792	0.681	0.957	0.958
Failure just makes me try harder	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.917
<i>Base number</i>	24	22	24	22

Table A5-4: Self-Efficacy: KCCC and non-KCCC
Figures approaching 0 show more desirable outcomes

	KCCC		Non-KCCC	
Positive Statements	Males	Females	Males	Females
When I set important goals for myself I rarely achieve them	0.208	0.136	0.435	0.792
When trying to learn something new, I soon give up if am not initially successful	0.000	0.136	0.087	0.292
If something looks too complicated I will not even bother to try it	0.167	0.363	0.217	0.500
I feel insecure about my ability to do things	0.292	0.364	0.391	0.292
<i>Base number</i>	24	22	24	22

APPENDIX 7: BEFORE AND AFTER SELF-EFFICACY

Figure A6-1: Self-Efficacy: The Kids' League

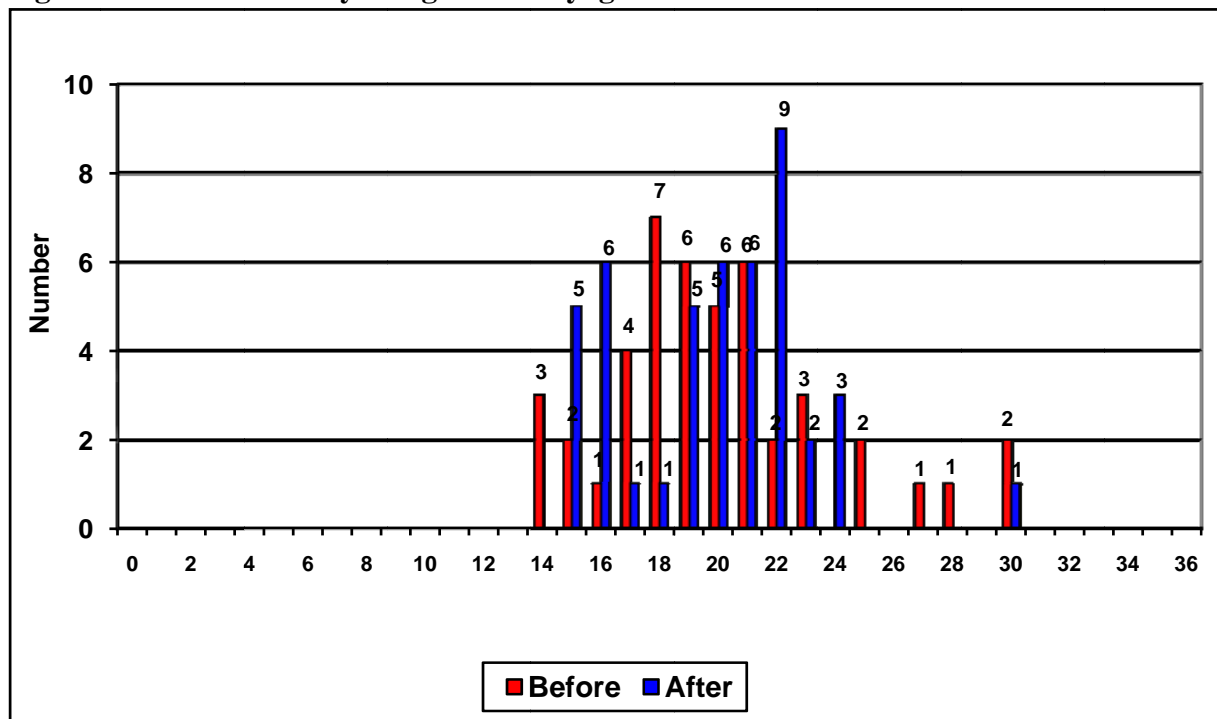


Base number: 115

Mean scores: Before: 22.0 (SD: 3.85); After: 24.0 (SD: 3.68) (p.000)

Changes: Positive: 78; Negative: 29; No change: 8

Figure A6-2: Self-efficacy: Magic Bus Voyagers

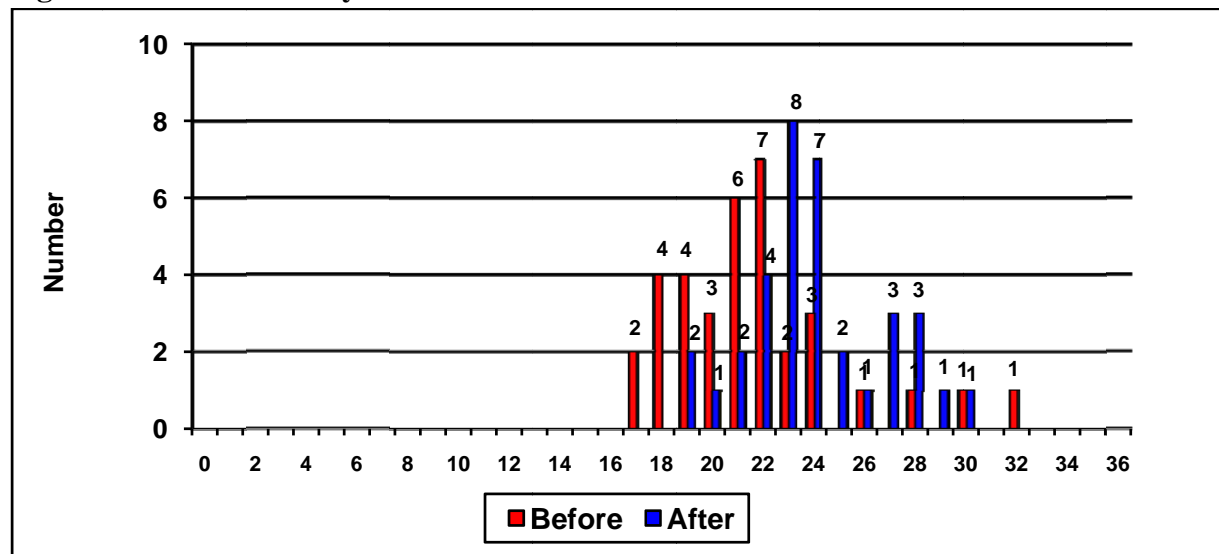


Base number: 45

Mean scores: Before: 20.0 (SD: 3.84); After: 19.8 (SD: 3.18) (p.846)

Changes: Positive: 22; Negative: 20; No change: 38

Figure A6-3: Self-efficacy: EMIMA



Base number: 35

Mean scores: Before: 21.6 (SD: 3.84); After: 23.9 (SD: 3.18) (p: .000)

Changes: Positive: 25; Negative: 6; No change: 4

Table A6-4: Self-Efficacy (12+) Praajak

	Before	After	Sig.
Self-efficacy	6.8 [SD 2.33]	7.5 [SD 2.15]	p=.096
Base number	38		

Table A6-5: Components of self-efficacy: Praajak

Note: Limited scale and yes/no answers

	Before	After	Sig.
Initiative	2.1 [SD 1.07]	2.4 [SD 0.94]	p=.393
Effort	2.7 [SD 1.16]	3.2 [SD 0.97]	p=.083
Persistence	1.9 [SD 1.28]	2.0 [SD 0.96]	p=.704
Base number	38		

Note: None of the results are statistically significant.

Table A6-6: Self-Efficacy scores (12+): KCCC

	Before	After	Sig.
Self-efficacy (total)	5.7 (SD=1.13)	5.1 (SD=1.70)	p= .021*
<i>Base number</i>	46		

* Statistically significant

Table A6-7: Components of self-efficacy: KCCC

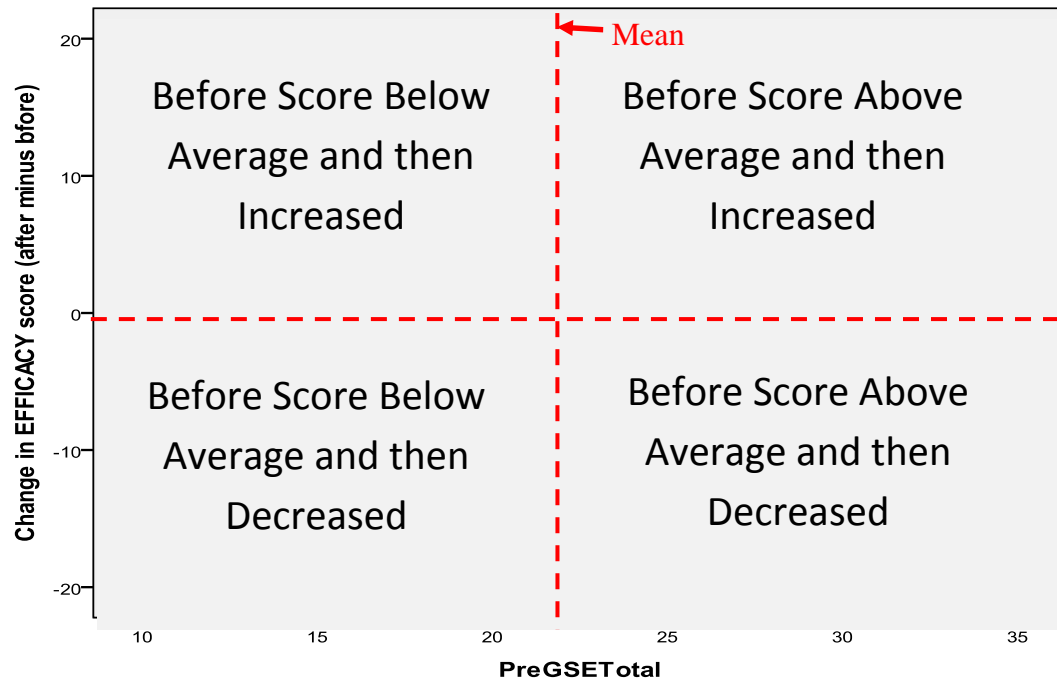
Note: these are limited scales and are not equivalent to other project

	Before	After	Sig.
Initiative	1.7 (SD=0.60)	1.4 (SD=0.65)	p=.058
Effort	2.5 (SD=0.66)	2.5 (SD=0.86)	p=.906
Persistence	1.5 (SD=0.66)	1.1 (SD=0.83)	p=.018*
<i>Base number</i>	46		

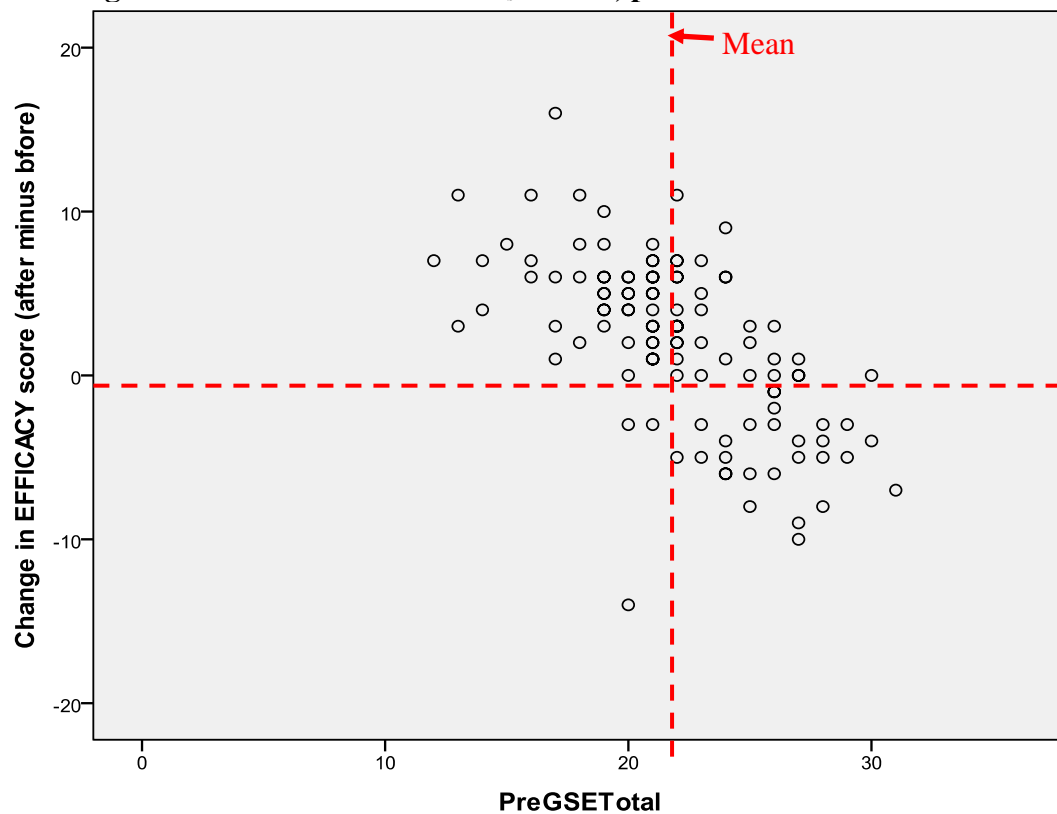
Note: *These results are statistically significant.

APPENDIX 8: SCATTERGRAM DIAGRAMS FOR SELF-EFFICACY

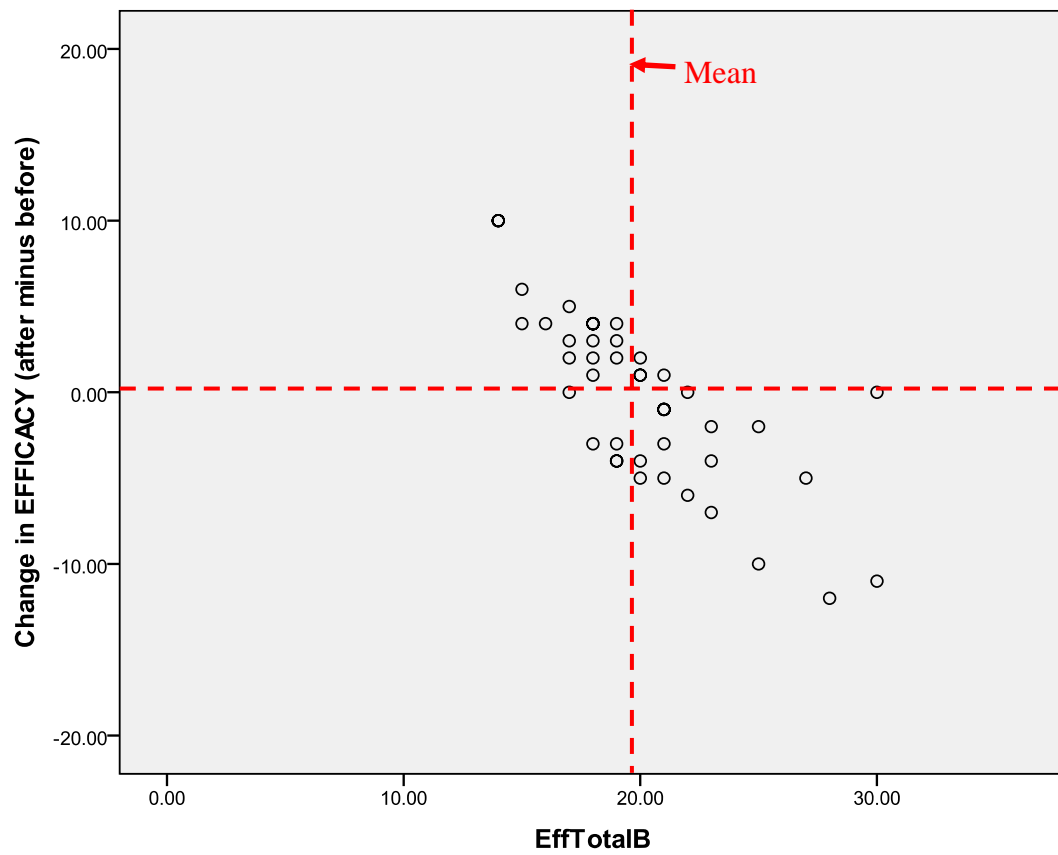
Key to Reading Scattergrams



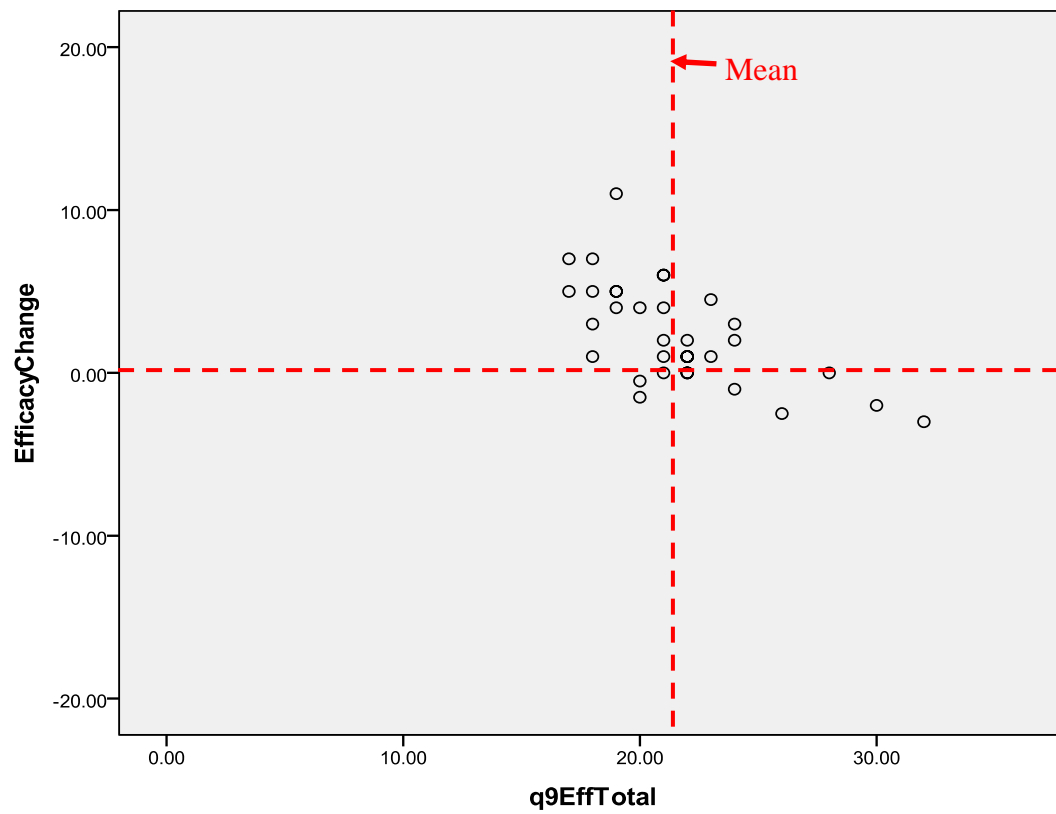
Kids League: Correlation coefficient $r_s = -.660$, $p=.000$



Magic Bus Voyagers: Correlation coefficient $r_s = -.795$, $p=.000$



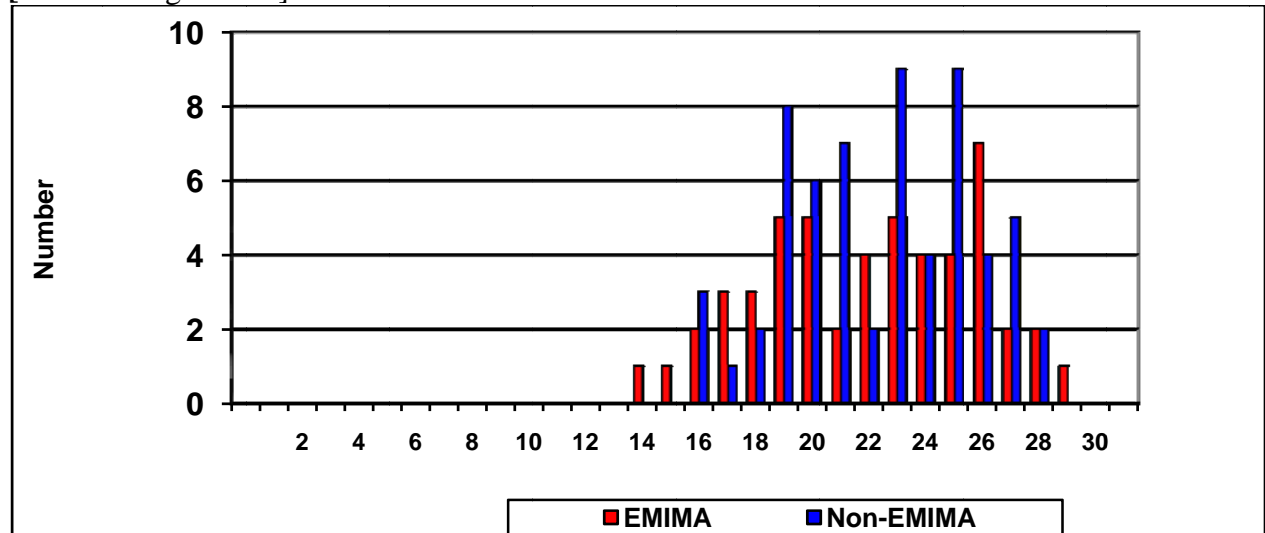
EMIMA: Correlation coefficient $r_s = -.634$, $p=.000$



APPENDIX 9: PARTICIPANT / NON-PARTICIPANTS SELF-ESTEEM

Figure A8-1: Rosenberg self-esteem scores: EMIMA and non-EMIMA

[Normal range 15-25]

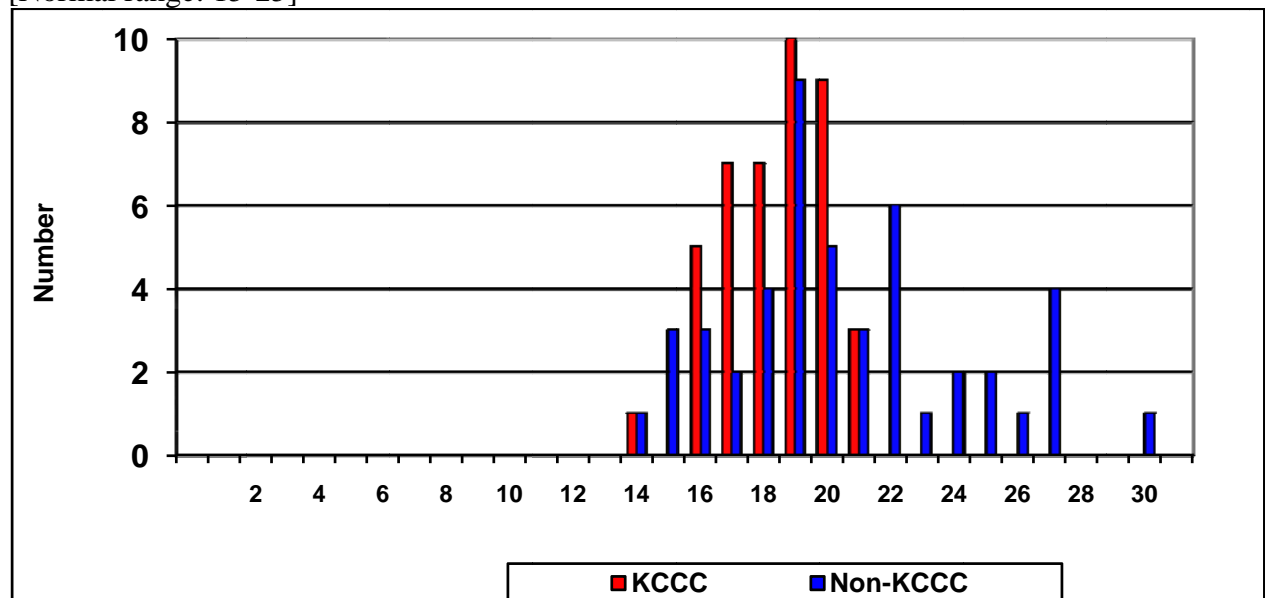


(i) EMIMA (n: 51) Mean: 22.0; SD 3.20

(ii) Non-EMIMA (n: 62) Mean: 22.4; SD 3.79

Figure A8-2: Rosenberg self-esteem score: KCCC and non-KCCC

[Normal range: 15-25]

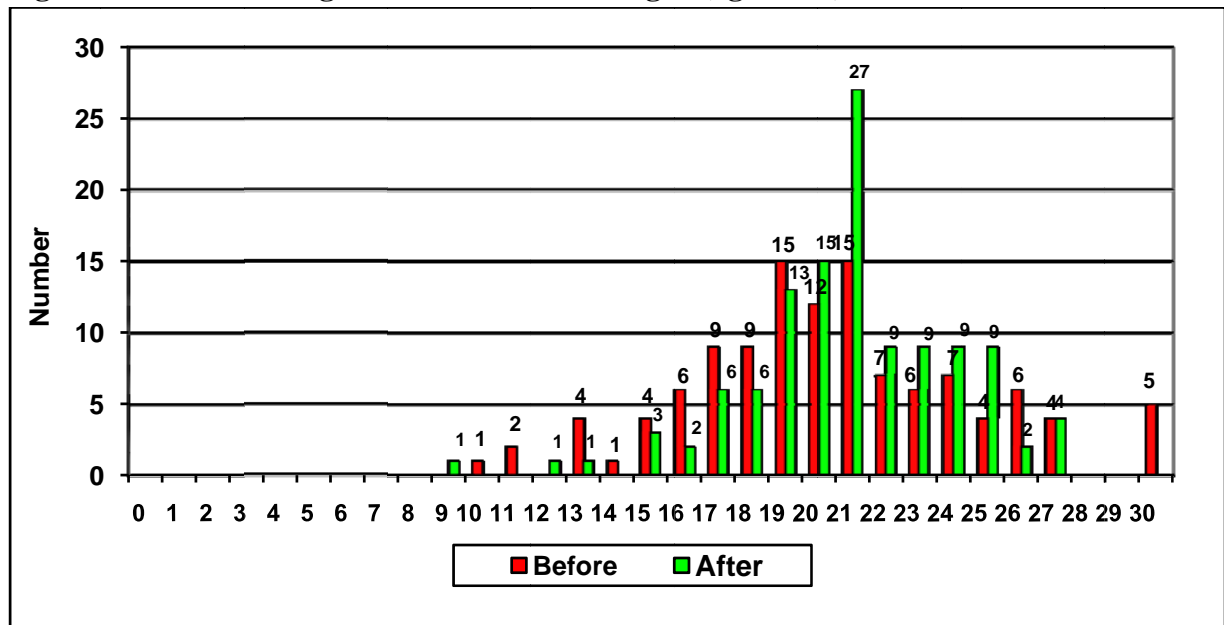


(i) KCCC (n: 46). Mean: 18.43; SD 1.57

(ii) Non-KCCC (n: 47) Mean: 20.5; SD 3.71

APPENDIX 10: BEFORE AND AFTER SELF-ESTEEM

Figure A9-1: Rosenberg self-esteem: Kids' League (aged 12+)

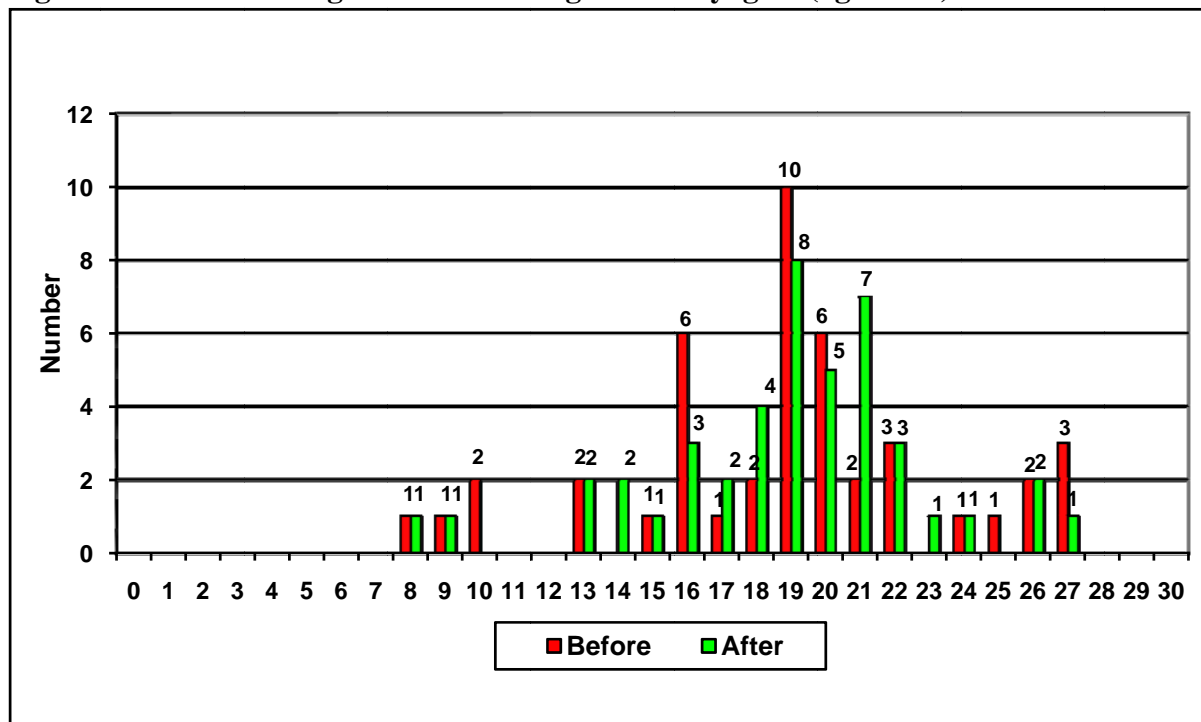


Base number: 117

Mean. Before: 20.4 (SD: 4.18); After: 20.9 (SD: 3.12) ($p=.210$)

Changes: Positive: 55; Negative: 47; No change: 15

Figure A9-2: Rosenberg self-esteem: Magic Bus Voyagers (aged 12+):

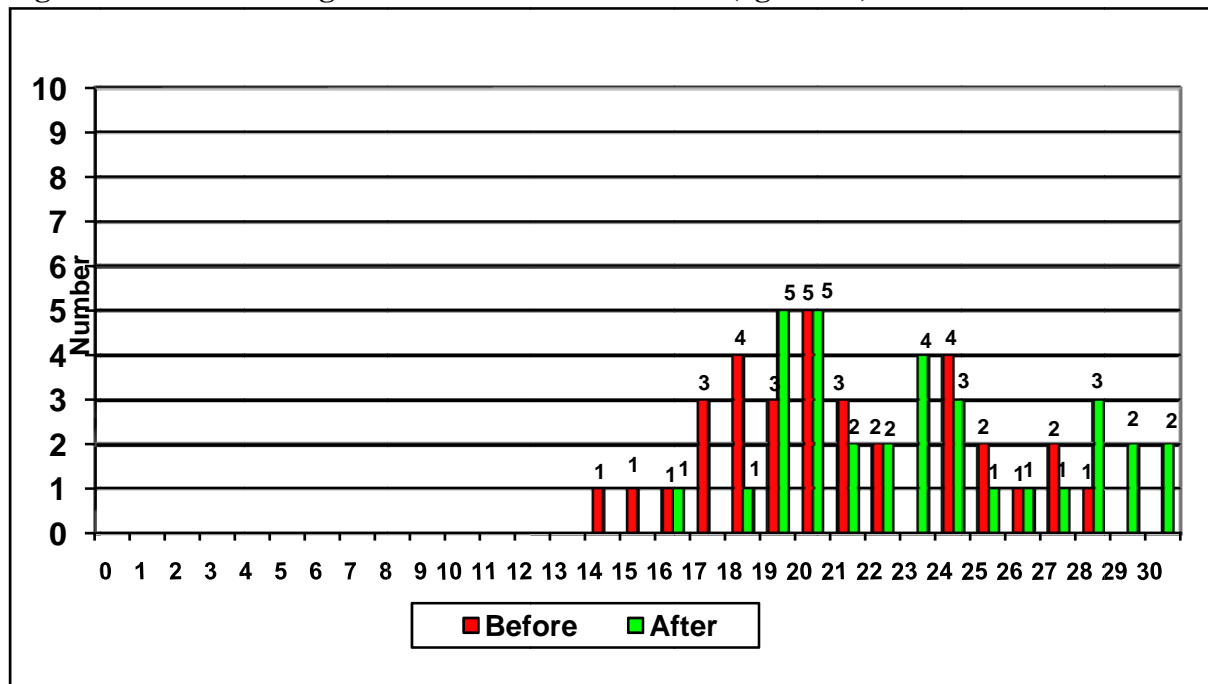


Base number: 44

Mean. Before: 18.8 (SD: 4.63); After: 18.9 (SD: 3.92) ($p=.961$)

Changes: Positive: 15; Negative: 20; No change: 9

Figure A9-3: Rosenberg self-esteem scores: EMIMA (aged 12+):

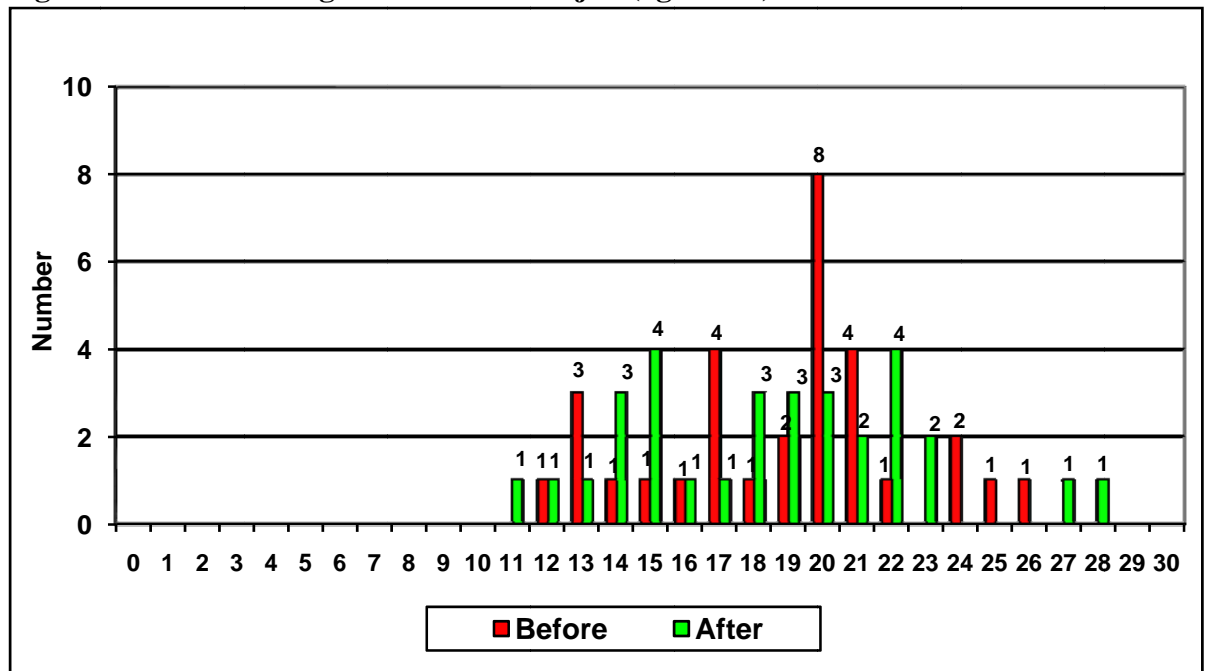


Base number: 33

Mean score: Before: 20.8 (SD: 3.65); After: 23.0 (SD: 3.88) (p=.017)

Changes: Positive: 19; Negative; 11; No change: 3

Figure A9-4: Rosenberg self-esteem: Praajak (aged 12+)

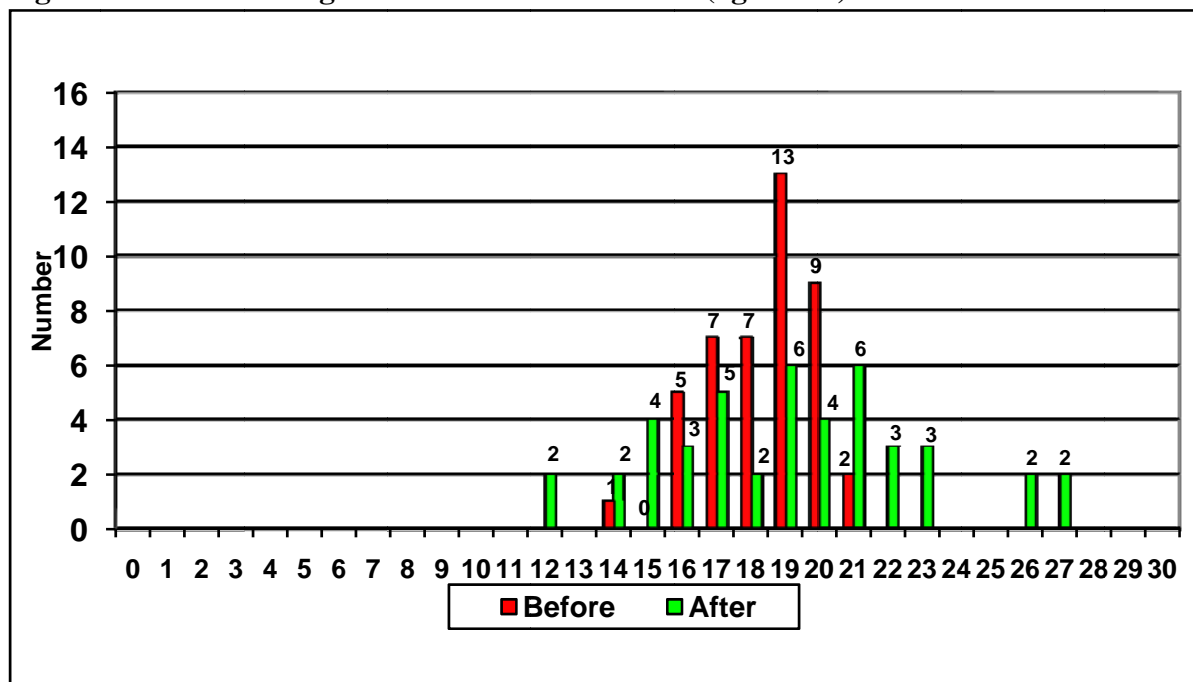


Base number: 31

Mean: Before: 18.9 (SD: 3.61); After: 18.5 (SD: 4.16) (p: .409)

Changes: Positive: 12; Negative: 17; No change: 2

Figure A9-5: Rosenberg self-esteem scores: KCCC (aged 12+)



Base number: 44

Mean: Before: 18.4 (SD=1.57); After: 19.1 (SD=3.7) (p=.315)

Changes: Positive: 21; Negative: 19; No change: 4

APPENDIX 11: SCATTERGRAM DIAGRAMS FOR SELF-ESTEEM

Key to reading Scattergrams

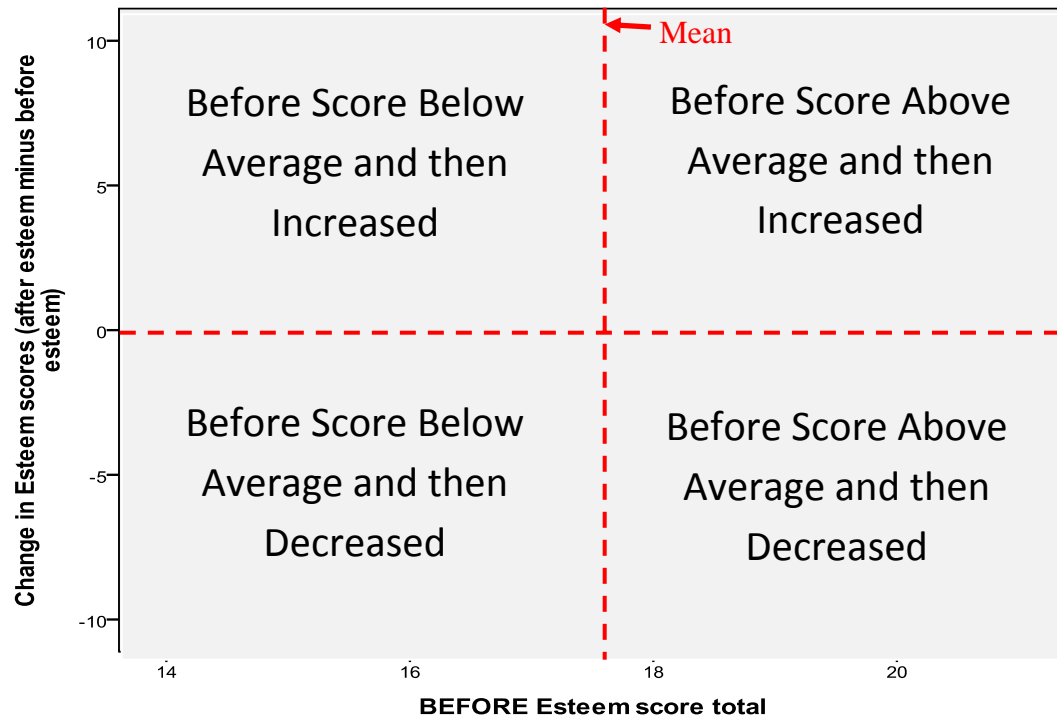


Figure A10-1: Kids' League: Correlation coefficient $r_s = -.720$, $p=.000$

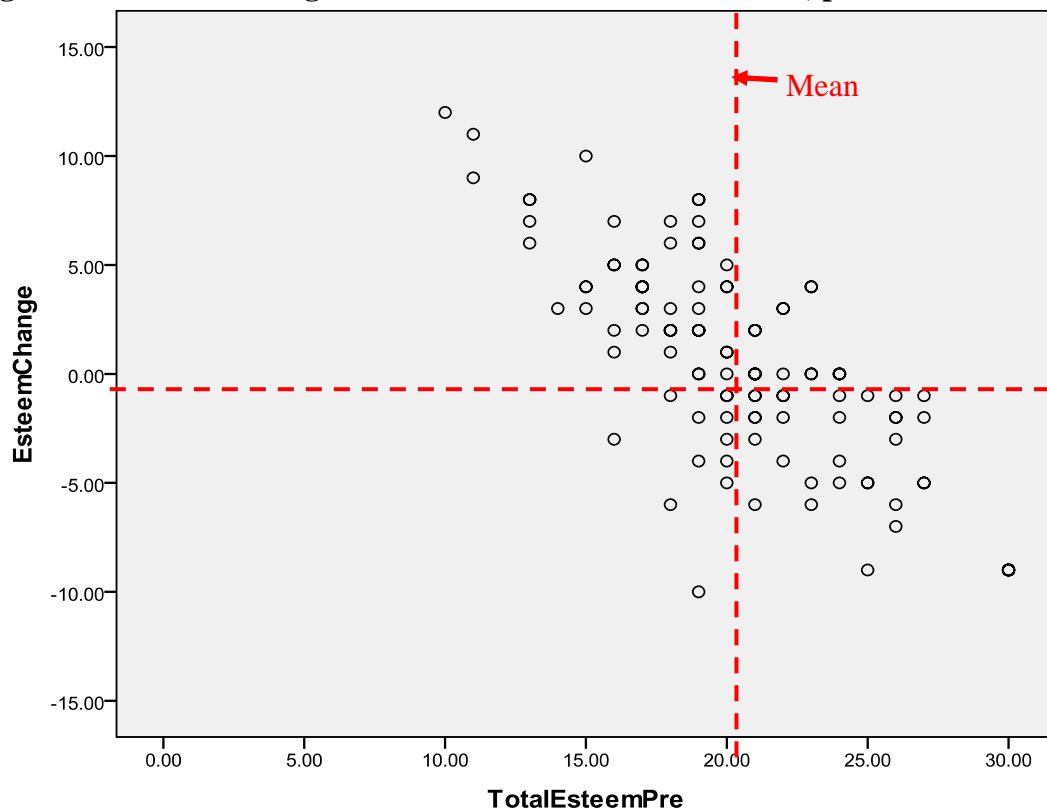


Figure A10-2: Magic Bus Voyagers– Correlation coefficient $r_s = -.647$, $p=.000$

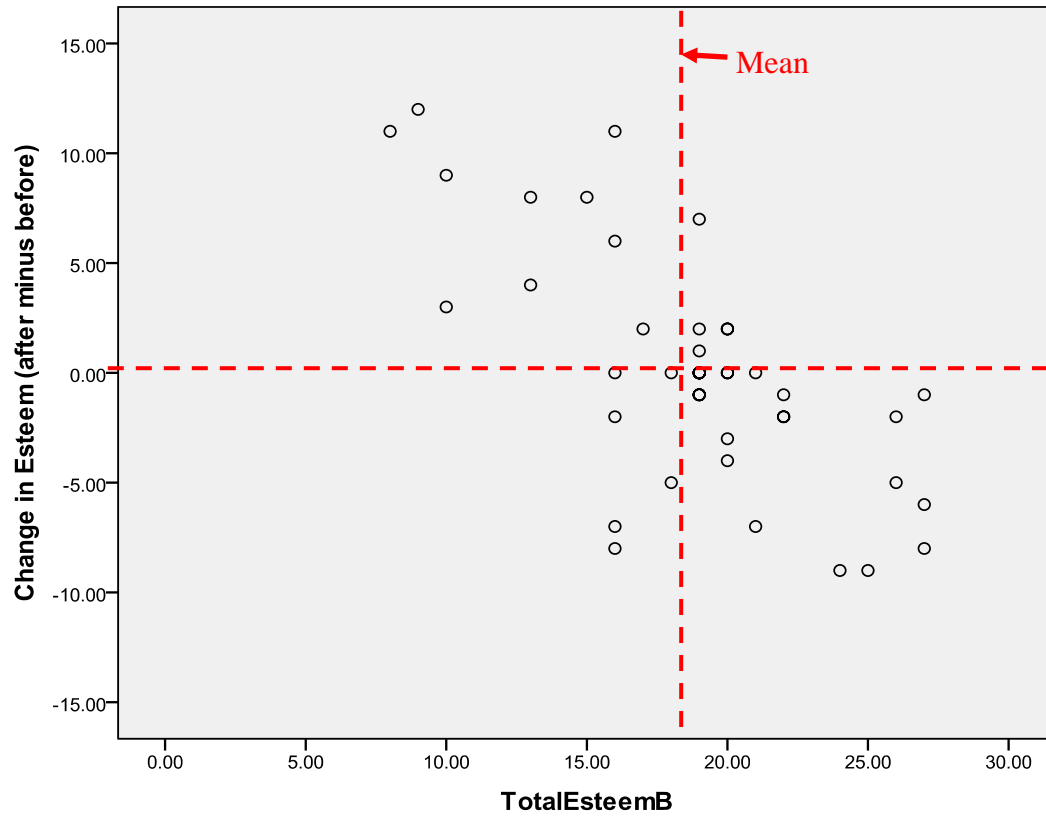


Figure A10-3: EMIMA – Correlation coefficient $r_s = -.627$, $p=.000$

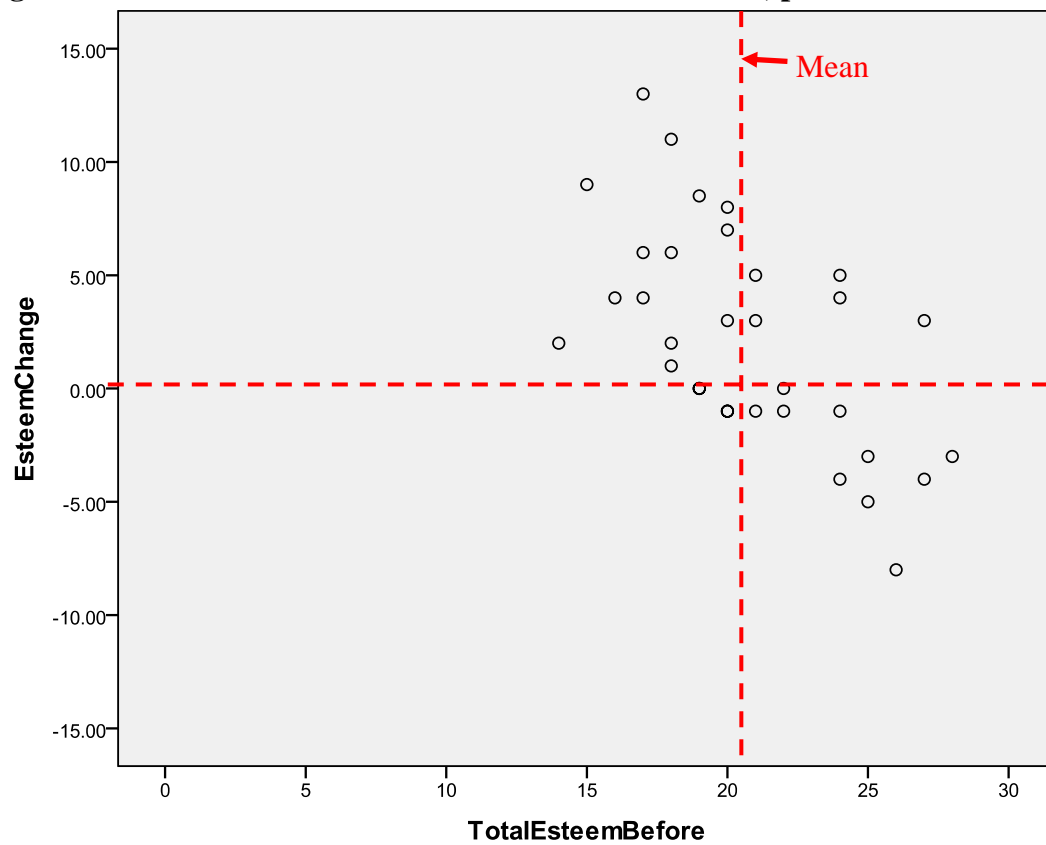


Figure A10-4: Praajak – Correlation coefficient $r_s = -.502$, $p=.004$

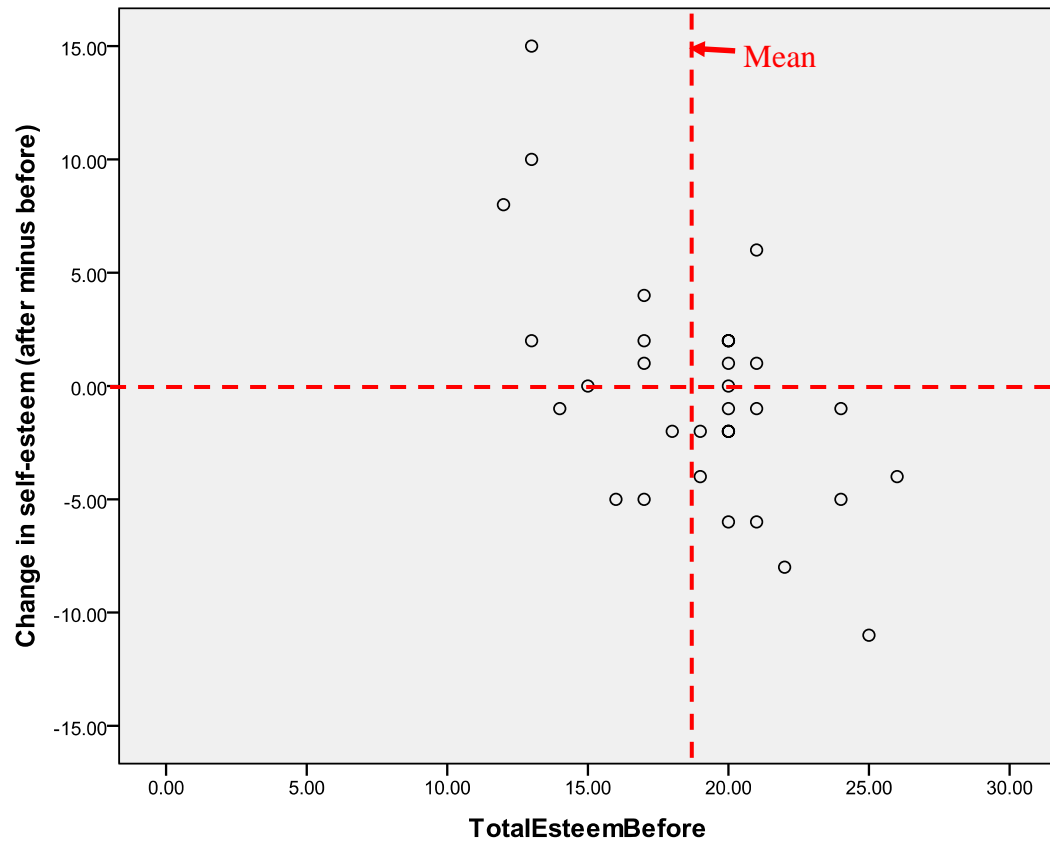
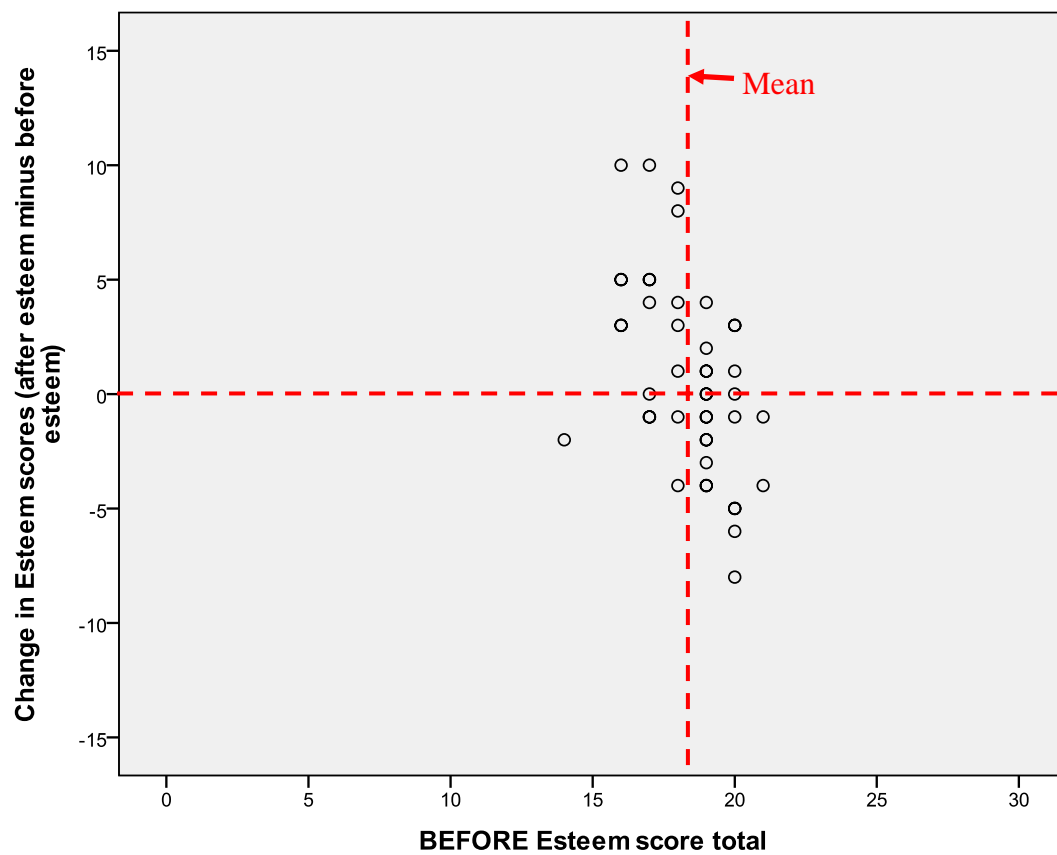


Figure A10-5: KCCC– Correlation coefficient $r_s = -.446$, $p=.002$



APPENDIX 12: MAGIC BUS PEER LEADERS

Figure A11-1: Changes in self-efficacy - Correlation coefficient $r_s = -.636$, $p=.006$

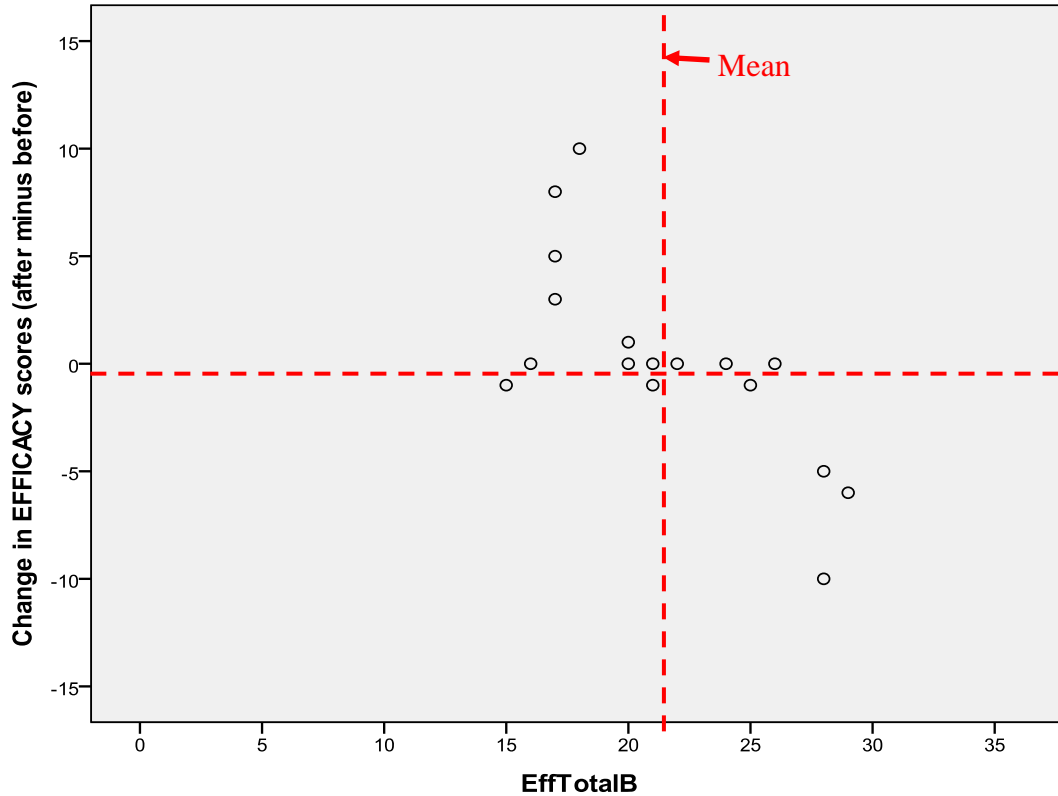


Figure A11-2: Changes in self-esteem - Correlation coefficient $r_s = -.510$, $p=.043$

