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Faculty of Community and Health Sciences

PhD by Publication

Title: *Sport and the Struggle for Development*

Conceptual approaches to sport for development and peace as an emerging field of evaluation - case studies from the public sector, academic sector and civil society led initiatives in South Africa



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ABSTRACT

Sport for Development and Peace (SDP) refers to the use of sport to promote varied outcomes beyond the playing field and encompasses a range of initiatives seeking to harness the power of sport for social change. Despite the rapid growth of the SDP field, there remain serious gaps in our collective understanding of which initiatives work best, how and why, and whether these can be scaled. Further, there remains little literature or robust debate around the governance of SDP, with limited conceptualisation of the optimal institutional arrangements and roles and responsibilities of the relevant stakeholders operating in this emerging sector. As such the best methods of cooperation and collaboration may be unclear, reducing the likelihood of strong partnerships, shared outcomes and ultimately greater impact. This study contributes to the SDP field as an emerging field of development cooperation and explores optimal governance of the SDP sector. This involves examining roles and responsibilities (current and potential) of the public sector, civil society and academic sector, drawing on case studies from South Africa, thus examining specific SDP initiatives in specific contexts. The mixed methods approach used in this study incorporates quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection and analysis, including desk-top review, key informant interviews and focus group discussions, observations, document analysis and standard surveys. Findings show that real potential exists for the SDP sector to make a greater impact upon pressing social issues. However, the sector remains loosely coordinated and an articulation of roles and responsibilities for the state, civil society and academic sector (including their interaction at horizontal and vertical levels) remains vague. The study suggests a cooperative governance framework that would result in improved levels of cooperation and coordination of the SDP sector. Within such a framework, the state should focus on leadership in SDP, including policy, regulation and oversight, as well as funding support and special projects where needed. Civil society groups are often better suited to deliver SDP projects but need to

maintain a balance between delivery and other critical functions, including holding the state to account and ensuring they align to public sector policies. The academic sector has unique strengths, including providing scientific rigour and objective validity, as well as high quality research, teaching and learning, all sorely needed in SDP. However, the academic sector needs to better engage with other stakeholders who themselves should recognise the value that this sector can bring to the emerging SDP field. It is hoped this study will prompt deliberations at a variety of levels to ensure that SDP actors reflect on their work, re-imagine their roles and responsibilities, and commit to playing to their strengths to ensure optimal governance of the field. This will ideally result in greater collaboration and impact.



Keywords

Sport

Recreation

Development

Sport for development and peace

Governance

Government

Civil Society

Non-governmental organisations

Monitoring and evaluation

Public sector

Academic sector



DECLARATION

I hereby declare that “*Sport and the Struggle for Development: Conceptual approaches to sport for development and peace as an emerging field of evaluation - case studies from the public sector, academic sector and civil society led initiatives in South Africa*” is my own work, that it has not been submitted, or part of it, for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

Ben Sanders,

Date: 10 March 2018

Signature



Witness

.....

Professor Marion Keim



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I would like to thank a number of people who contributed to this study.

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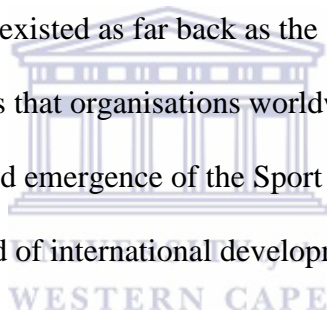
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1. INTRODUCTION

Sport has gained reasonable acceptance as a means of development, a far cry from the past when it was traditionally viewed as secondary to development issues (Van Eekeren, 2006: 149). Participating in sport has proven intrinsic benefits like improved health and well-being but sport can also have extrinsic value by contributing to education, peace, community safety, social cohesion, gender equity, socio-economic empowerment and other development indicators that extend beyond the sporting field (United Nations, 2003). As a result, many states and international actors now view sport as the ideal development tool since it is cost-effective, relatively easy to implement and has a unique ability to attract at risk youth in deprived settings (International Platform on Sport and Development, 2014). While the concept of sport for development existed as far back as the 19th century (UNOSDP, 2013) it has really been in the last 15 years that organisations worldwide have begun to proclaim these merits of sport, leading to the rapid emergence of the Sport for Development and Peace (SDP) sector as a burgeoning field of international development and cooperation.



The start of the 21st century saw the incorporation of sport into the mainstream development sector. Sport was touted as a means to supporting the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), with the United Nations (UN) establishing an Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace in 2002 and passing Resolution 58/5 entitled “Sport as a means to promote education, health, development and peace” in 2003 (United Nations, 2003). The first Magglingen Conference in 2003 set the stage as international agencies and states signed a declaration affirming commitment to SDP, and 2005 was the International Year of Sport and Physical Education. Sport is more prominent on donor agendas and has assumed a higher profile in development circles. From 2014, the UN declared April 6 as the ‘International Day of Sport for Development and Peace’ while the role of sport in development has been

emphasised in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

The increased interest in sport for development has precipitated a growth of research in recent times. As Van Eekeren (2006: 149) claims: “Until recently, research into sport was tantamount to academic suicide” but now there is increased knowledge of sport as a medium of development, not only from sports administrators but also in fields as diverse as health, education etc. However, this is a new emerging field and while research has certainly grown it remains somewhat limited. There is a significant dearth of analysis and much evidence is anecdotal. Furthermore, there is a limited understanding of how sport fits into wider social issues (Kidd, 2014) and this is reflected not only in research but in the broad objectives that SDP organisations seek to achieve with programmes that are limited in focus (Coalter, 2010).

While other fields of social development such as public health and education have engendered a more critical perspective on the factors causing and undermining development, the SDP landscape is often characterised by naïve and idealistic notions of the power of sport for social change (Coakley, 2014; Giulianotti, 2004). Even if sport is applied in the right manner and does result in the intended change or development there are deeper structural issues that may negate such well-intentioned work. While developing the individual to realise his/her capacity is a focus of many SDP organisations, there appears to be a genuine lack of initiatives that seek to challenge, or reform, the societal structures and conditions that caused this 'underdevelopment' to occur in the first place (Hartman & Kwauk, 2011). Unfortunately it appears that many SDP actors, whether Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs), multinationals, governments or multilateral agencies, often unintentionally reinforce the causes of the very problems (systemic) that they seek to solve. Providing more coaches, more equipment and more playing fields is a necessary, but certainly not sufficient, solution. Until

SDP actors understand and challenge the structures and systems that (re)produce inequality, poverty, unemployment and other structural issues, they may be merely scoring an own goal in the fight for social change (Sanders, 2016, Coakley 2011, Guest & Schneider, 2003).

An in-depth examination of the focus, scope and governance of the SDP field would prove useful in addressing some of these limitations. While the provision of SDP programmes is crucial to address social needs, there is a need to critically debate the governance of actors in the field as this affects their ability to coordinate and achieve development goals at a broader macro level. It may prove useful to consider Giulianotti's (2011) classification of SDP institutions and implementation models. A range of governance approaches for SDP will be explored in this study, including analysing the merits of a cooperative governance approach.

However, there is no doubt that sport can play a positive, if limited, developmental role (Coalter, 2010). SDP actors should partner with, and learn from, development initiatives from broader domains (e.g. health, education) as development requires a collaborative approach (Kidd, 2014). The SDP sector needs to engage with global civil society since a sectarian approach will further limit the role of sport. By making wide ranging claims that are not backed by rigorous evidence, sport evangelists, while well-intentioned, may discourage other development professionals from considering the use of sport in development processes.

This research seeks to explore the impact of sport in fostering social change, including how best various role players can work together to maximise the development potential of sport. A few important questions remain. Can sport play a role in tackling such issues? And how can this best be done? Firstly, sport cannot solve these problems alone - many of these issues (e.g. poverty; inequality) are structural and require improvements in other sectors such as education and health, or changes in governance (Sanders, 2012). Furthermore, sport can reinforce existing inequities if it reproduces a sports-industrial complex (Maguire, 2006) that

privileges achievement sport and spectator sport (recent mega-events are clear examples) over community based sport and recreation. The potential negative impact of sport must be acknowledged and a distinction drawn between elite/high performance sport and SDP initiatives (Dudfield, 2014: 6). This study aims to explore how different role players, including the state, civil society and academic sector, can play their part and coordinate efforts, in a SDP movement that Kidd (2008: 376) describes as “still in its infancy, woefully underfunded, completely unregulated, poorly planned and co-ordinated and largely isolated from mainstream development efforts”. SDP has come a long way since Kidd’s remarks but much work remains for it to become a legitimate player in the development arena.

1.1 Focus of Research

This study will examine evaluations of SDP work in South Africa, using empirical research to address broader conceptual questions raised in the study. In particular the research will seek to determine the optimal roles and responsibilities of the public sector, civil society and the academic sector in the field of SDP, and by extension the optimal arrangements for them to work best together. This will involve exploring ways in which the different role players can make an impact in using sport for development and peace. Furthermore, this will include assessing the extent to which a cooperative governance approach exists among the sectors mentioned, bearing in mind that cooperative governance is central to the South African Constitution. This will assist in defining optimal arrangements and provide recommendations on how best to align strategies, policies and programmes in a coordinated, coherent fashion.

The role of the public sector will be analysed with regard to government’s commitment to sport and development in South Africa. The empirical research will focus on an evaluation of a large scale school sport programme managed by the Western Cape Government. It is important to note that while the overall role of the government will be debated, the case study

will focus only on one sphere of government (provincial) and excludes national and local organs, though there is collaboration at a national and local level as part of the specified case study, as well as a range of intergovernmental and crosscutting mechanisms. This is noted as a delimitation of the study.

Secondly, the role of civil society, in particular the non-profit sector, will be analysed in detail. Civil society tends to refer to a diverse range of actors that are separate from the state including business, labour, trade unions, NGOs, non-profit organisation (NPOs), community based organisations (CBOs) and independent entities (Atkinson, 1996). In this study, however, empirical research centres on NGOs, or NPOs, as they comprise a major part of the SDP field. One must recognise that the roles of business, labour, trade unions and other organisations will not form part of this study's assessment of civil society, though of course NPOs and NGOs affect the work of business and labour – and vice-versa. Empirical research will investigate the efforts of SDP organisations working in the public sector South African schooling system, including their interactions with schools, communities and the state.

Thirdly, the role of the academic sector in the SDP field will be examined. This is especially relevant given the lack of rigorous evidence cited by many proponents of SDP when claiming a range of benefits associated with sport (Nicholls et.al, 2010, Donnelly et. al 2007). It is clear that academic institutions boast expertise in research, teaching and learning and may be able to better collaborate with government and civil society (Keim & Groenewald, 2014). However, it is important to identify the areas where the academic sector can make the most valuable contribution to SDP. Empirical research centres on six of the top universities in South Africa - and excludes other higher education institutions - and their relation to SDP.

As the research seeks to determine optimal governance arrangements for various sectors in SDP, it is worth noting that the roles of the sectors are by necessity intertwined. One cannot

debate the role of civil society in SDP in South Africa (or globally) without a recognition of other actors in the field. None of these sectors operate in isolation and form part of a complex contemporary society which encompasses a range of constituents from individuals to nation states. As Engelbrecht (2016: 18) says: “the links between constituents and the corresponding interactions among them determine the behaviour of a system as a whole.” The study needs to account for common themes around the governance of SDP that are relevant across the three sectors, and specific themes that are more applicable to certain sectors than others.

1.2 Problem Statement

The problem being investigated in this study is that an insufficient understanding exists of the impact (and potential) of sport and development. While the SDP sector has grown rapidly in the 21st century its impact remains debatable, partly due to a lack of rigorous monitoring and evaluation, clear theories of change, and a lack of strategies to tackle broader structural and systemic problems related to development (Coakley, 2011; Giulianotti 2011; Richards et. al 2013). This includes a lack of clarity and understanding of the roles and responsibilities (both current and imagined) of government, civil society and the academic sector in the cooperative governance of sport and development. There has been much SDP research related to programme outcomes but little analysis of governance or cooperative arrangements. This research uses a case study approach to evaluate the current cooperative SDP effort (or lack of) of the public sector, civil society and academic sector in South Africa. This will allow us to better understand the impact, and potential, of the overall SDP sector and all its stakeholders. By doing so it can offer recommendations on how the various actors can work together to strengthen and sustain the SDP sector in a coordinated and concrete manner.

It would appear that more meaningful, systems type evaluation is needed to promote an integrated and coherent approach among the various role players in the SDP field. Such

research is largely absent in South Africa, and globally, and has been cited as a gap by SDP experts who encouraged this study, including professors at Loughborough University, KU Leuven and University of Colorado, as well as practitioners and implementing organisations.

1.3. Aim of the Study

This study seeks to explore the roles and responsibilities of government, civil society and the academic sector in the field of SDP in South Africa. The study further aims to examine the effects of SDP in South Africa using case studies of specific initiatives within the public sector, civil society and academic sector. This will ensure that a broader literature review is accompanied by evidence from the field. These case studies will help to inform optimal roles and responsibilities for each sector (including the interaction within and between sectors) in SDP, with the ultimate goal of providing a suggested framework for the cooperative governance of sport and development. Such a framework will not only tackle inefficiencies, gaps and duplication but it can provide a blueprint for the various sectors to come together as a team to advance the SDP field. The study aims to produce research and insights that are relevant, timely, actionable and able to be utilised by practitioners and policy makers alike.

1.4 Specific Objectives of the Study

1. To examine the history and impact of sport for development and peace as an emerging field by conducting a historical review of SDP in the 20th and 21st century

- Historical review of sport and recreation for development and peace in the 20th and 21st century, including its recent emergence into the mainstream development sector.
- To critically assess current theoretical understandings to sport for development and peace.
- To provide an overview of the opportunities, challenges and limitations faced by the SDP

sector, with particular reference to monitoring, evaluation and research in the field.

- To provide a critical assessment of the current state of cooperative governance within SDP.

2. To assess the role of public sector in sport for development and peace in South Africa

- Provide a critical assessment of public sector efforts in SDP and examine the role of the South African government regarding SDP policies and plans within the broader sport sector.
- Conduct empirical research on a large school sport and recreation development programme conducted by the Western Cape Department of Cultural Affairs and Sport (DCAS) in order to ascertain the feasibility of government leading, managing and delivering SDP programmes.
- Produce a peer-reviewed journal article on the role of the public sector in the SDP field.
- Determine the optimal role and responsibility for the state to ensure it is most effective, in conjunction with other stakeholders, in ensuring sport can result in development and peace.

3. To assess the role of civil society in sport for development and peace in South Africa

- To explore the SDP approaches of non-profit organisations (NPOs) including the interaction (or lack thereof) with other stakeholders, including the public sector and academic sector.
- To assess the impact of SDP initiatives of selected non-profit organisations in South Africa.
- Produce two peer-reviewed journal articles on the role of civil society in the SDP field.
- Determine the optimal role and responsibility for civil society to ensure it is most effective, in conjunction with other stakeholders, in ensuring sport can result in development and peace.

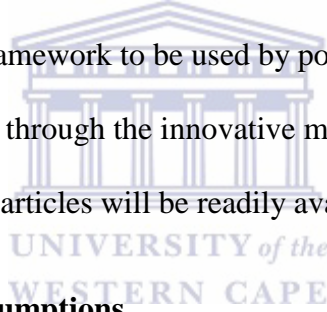
4. To assess the role played by the academic sector in sport for development and peace in South Africa

- Examine the contributions that universities can meaningfully make to the SDP sector.
- Explore how universities can bridge divides between academics, practitioners and policy makers.
- Assess selected cases of South African tertiary institutions and their commitments to SDP.

- Produce a peer-reviewed journal article on the role of the academic sector in the SDP field.
- Determine the optimal role and responsibility for the academic sector to ensure it is most effective, in conjunction with others, in ensuring sport can result in development and peace.

5. To determine optimal cooperative governance for sport for development and peace

- Link together empirical research findings and broader literature review to establish optimal roles and responsibilities for the public sector, civil society and academic sector in SDP.
- Establish each sector's strengths, weaknesses, gaps and opportunities in order to suggest the optimal forms of interaction and relationships within and between the various sectors.
- Synthesis research to fill the noted gap in the literature around optimal governance of SDP.
- Provide a blueprint for cooperative governance in SDP in South Africa, which will also hold relevance globally as a guiding framework to be used by policy makers and practitioners.
- Disseminate the findings widely through the innovative method of completing this PhD by publication, which means journal articles will be readily available to SDP stakeholders.



1.5 Scope, Delimitation and Assumptions

The study is limited to the SDP field with reference to the roles that the public sector, civil society and academic sector can play. Case studies are used for each sector and while the sample is clearly not exhaustive, these cases can be considered representative of similar players in SDP. There are limitations to each set of case studies chosen. From the academic sector, the study has selected six of the largest and most influential universities for the study, though there are a total of 26 universities in the country, differing in scope, scale and size, as well as other higher education institutions. The study focuses only on universities in the Western Cape and Gauteng, and excludes other sites due to time and resource constraints.

In terms of civil society, the study focuses predominantly on the work of NPOs and excludes the efforts of the private sector, including business (corporate social responsibility) and

labour. However, it is worth noting that the Social Return on Investment Study (article in Chapter 5) details returns for business and government as a result of an employability programme. Nonetheless, this is a programme designed and implemented by an NPO and thus the case study pertains to non-profit organisations within a civil society framework. As such, the broader role of business, labour and the private sector is not considered in detail.

As noted, the public sector case study is drawn from provincial government and does not include cases from national and local government though there is interaction with these spheres in the case specified. Further, it is important to note that inputs were sought from national, provincial and local government officials as part of the key informant interviews.

Study assumptions are that all respondents will provide honest responses and cooperate to provide information relevant to the study. This research assumes all participants have been involved in SDP initiatives or boast an understanding of sport and development more broadly. Another assumption is that there is no political pressure or external interference in the work of the SDP actors chosen for case studies, with the exception of DCAS.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The research aims to provide greater clarity on the (cooperative) governance of SDP work, as the majority of efforts in SDP have focused on the impact of programmes rather than the broader governance and institutional arrangements within the sector. This focus on delivery and impact is understandable for an emerging field of international development cooperation that needs to compete with other sectors for a limited set of resources. Despite this, it may be argued that the state of governance in SDP is more likely to affect macro level impact as compared to programmes which tend to produce outcomes (if at all) at micro or meso levels.

The service delivery approach of many SDP organisations is honourable, but certain critics argue a Band-Aid approach is used to combat deep-seated, structural, multi-sectoral issues

(Coakley, 2011). While extensive resources have been invested in the emerging SDP sector, there is little evidence of the net impact of this sector and what approaches work best. This study will critically evaluate SDP initiatives from various actors, to provide possible solutions to ensuring an integrated and systems wide approach to SDP. This will assist in providing recommendations to ensure that SDP work, which has grown enormously in the last decade, is not fragmented, duplicated or done in isolation but is focused, aligned and coordinated, with well-defined roles, responsibilities and institutional arrangements for key stakeholders, in this case namely the public sector, civil society and academic sector.

The role of the public sector will be examined, with government's contribution being critical to any attempts to mainstream SDP. Civil society organisations, for so long at the forefront of SDP, may benefit from an analysis of their function within the field, as they have often tended to operate in isolation. Academic institutions generally have not engaged widely in SDP but it is important to consider the ways they can strengthen and support the sector. Lastly, the relationship and interaction between these sectors is crucial and will be critically explored. Clarity around roles, responsibilities and arrangements may result in better coordinated work, stronger partnerships and ultimately greater impact. While the case studies are limited to South Africa, it is envisaged this study will have relevance globally and help provide a blueprint around cooperative governance which is relevant to all SDP actors.

The study thus seeks to locate the SDP field within a wider development framework. The SDP field does present challenges in terms of creating guides or frameworks as it essentially relies on a sport-based methodology to achieve outcomes in other social domains. As such stakeholders may be as diverse as the police force to health workers to post-conflict refugees. This makes it difficult to draw common indicators or frameworks, but also presents an opportunity to bring the loosely coordinated SDP sector closer together around shared goals.

Governance is a critical, cross cutting issue and one that undeniably affects the effectiveness and status of the sector. The recent incidents of corruption with sport federations only serve to weaken the legitimacy of the sport sector, and this may in turn weaken the SDP field.

However, it does again present an opportunity for the SDP sector to distinguish its approach from that of elite and competitive sport, to call for better governance in the sport industry and a more equitable distribution of resources to inclusive SDP initiatives that offer sport for all.

This is one recommendation of the study and if implemented, it has the potential to change people's views as to what constitutes sport and to question the current funding models that tend to prioritise elite sport when investments in SDP may provide multiple social outcomes.

The recommendations embedded in this study may thus prove significant to the SDP field.

The format of the PhD is also significant. Instead of a traditional thesis approach, the researcher has chosen to do a PhD by publication which has become increasingly popular in Europe but remains the exception to the rule in South Africa and other countries of the Global South. There are a number of benefits to this approach (UWC, 2011). Firstly, it affords students and future academics opportunities to develop a research identity early on in their studies/careers. More importantly, it contributes to the early dissemination of new knowledge produced and the impact of the research is more immediate. While a traditional PhD thesis is rarely consulted by persons excluding the researcher, his/her supervisors and the external examiners, peer reviewed journal articles are more readily available to practitioners, policy makers and other SDP stakeholders. The publications listed in this doctoral study have been shared with the relevant stakeholders (if already in print) and those accepted for publication will be shared as soon as they are published, increasing the likelihood of the findings being timely, relevant and ultimately being utilised. Furthermore, the academic quality of the doctorate itself is likely to be strengthened by such an approach as it depends on publications being of sufficient quality and originality to be deemed worthy of publication in national and

international journals that are accredited by UWC and the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET). The publications also need to pass the stringent criteria of a blind peer review process which comes without fear or favour. This means that external feedback from independent and objective reviewers will be provided at a much earlier stage to the candidate, rather than upon completion of the thesis. This provides multiple opportunities to strengthen the research and adapt the approach to ensure the study makes an original and high quality contribution to the literature in sport for development and peace.

1.7 Definition of Key Terms

Civil Society - a much contested term. It refers to organizations and institutions separate from the state, including the family and the private sector, NPOs, NGOs, CBOs, labour and trade unions (Civil Society International, 2009). A strong civil society is seen as vital for democracy.

Development - has been traditionally viewed in terms of economic growth, with a focus on GDP and incomes, but now includes all economic, social, cultural and environmental factors that have a human impact including people's choices, capabilities and freedoms (Sen, 2010).

Evaluation - a process of scientifically-based collection of information about programme activities, characteristics, and outcomes that determine its worth (UNAIDS, 2009).

Governance - concerns the relationship between the state and civil society. Governance can be viewed from a state-centred or a society-centred approach (Cloete & De Coning, 2011:66).

Government - The organization that is the governing authority of a political unit, the ruling power in a political society and apparatus through which a governing body functions and exerts authority (Oxford English Dictionary, 2010). A state of sufficient size and complexity has different levels of government: local, regional (provincial in South Africa) and national.

Indicator - it is a quantitative or qualitative variable that provides a valid and reliable way to measure achievement or changes connected to the programme objectives (UNAIDS, 2009).

Millennium Development Goals - a set of eight objectives that range from halving extreme poverty to halting the spread of HIV/AIDS and providing universal primary education, by September 2015. The goals were agreed upon in September 2000 by the majority of world leaders at the Millennium Summit. They are replaced by the Sustainable Development Goals.

Monitoring - it is a process of routine tracking and reporting of priority information about a programme or project, its input and intended output, outcomes and impact (UNAIDS, 2009).

Non-governmental organisations - public organisations that are not part of the state,

Non-profit organisations - organisations that address social ills and inequities. A trust, company or association of persons established for a public purpose (Non-Profit Organisations Act, 1997)



Outcome - refers to short-term and medium-term effect of the intervention's outputs, such as change in knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and behaviours (UNAIDS, 2009).

Physical Education - also known as Phys Ed., PE, Gym or Gym class, and known in many Commonwealth countries as physical training or PT, is an educational course related to maintaining the human body through physical exercises. It is often referred to as gymnastics and is included in the school curriculum during classroom hours (Anderson, 1989).

Sport - The United Nations (2003) broadly defines sports as all forms of physical activity that contribute to physical fitness, mental well-being and social interaction. These include play; recreation; organized, casual or competitive sport; and indigenous sports or games.

Sport for Development and Peace - this term refers to the use of sport to promote varied outcomes beyond the playing field (e.g. health, education), rather than the development of sport itself. It encompasses many initiatives that harness the power of sport for social change.

Sustainable Development Goals - a set of 17 Global Goals with 169 targets that aim to promote sustainable development. They have replaced the MDGs and form part of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, agreed upon by the United Nations and member states.

1.8 Key Abbreviations used in Study

CBO - Community Based Organisation

DBE - Department of Basic Education

DCAS – Western Cape Department of Cultural Affairs and Sport

EMEP - Extra Mural Education Project

FIFA - Fédération Internationale de Football Association

GRS - Grassroot Soccer

HIV/AIDS - Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

LO - Life Orientation

MDGs - Millennium Development Goals

MOU - Memorandum of Understanding

NGO - Non-governmental Organisation

NPO - Non-profit organisation



PE - Physical Education

SDGs - Sustainable Development Goals

SDP - Sport for Development and Peace

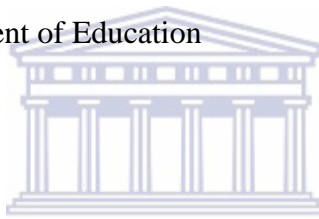
SROI - Social Return on Investment

SRSA - Sport and Recreation South Africa

UN - The United Nations

UNOSDP - The United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace

WCED - Western Cape Department of Education



1.9 Outline of Thesis

This thesis is primarily concerned with exploring the cooperative governance of sport for development and peace as an emerging field of evaluation and international development cooperation. It will examine the roles played by the public sector, academic sector and civil society using case studies of initiatives in South Africa.

Chapter 1 outlines the rationale for the study, explaining why it is necessary to understand the role(s) of various actors in using sport as a vehicle for development and peace, with specific reference to South Africa. The objectives, research problem, delimitation and significance of the study are described, with key terms and abbreviations. An outline of the study is also provided and clarity is provided around the format of the PhD by publication.

Chapter 2 provides a Literature Review, tracing important debates around sport for development and peace and positioning the current research within these theoretical frameworks. Is sport the medium or the message? And what is the difference between sport

development and sport for development? Particular attention will be paid to the governance of sport, with an in-depth examination of the current, and potential, roles of the public sector, civil society and the academic sector within this emerging field of international development cooperation. Further, the literature review will describe the state of SDP in South Africa, and examine the country's governance frameworks, so debates can be related to a local context.

Chapter 3 describes the research design used in this study, which combines quantitative and qualitative research in a mixed methods approach. Further, it provides rationale for the use of a case study approach. The setting for the study will be covered, providing a description of organisations selected as case studies. The data collection methods, tools and procedures are outlined but further detail will be provided in the corresponding publications section for each article. Positionality is considered in this section and ethics considerations are noted.

The next chapters will deal with the findings of the research. **Chapter 4** will explore the role of the public sector in sport for development and peace. This will include an academic article that is based on empirical research with DCAS.

This chapter has been accepted for publication as:

Sanders, B., De Coning, C. & Keim, M. (2017). Going to Scale? A Critique of the Role of the Public Sector in Sport for Development and Peace in South Africa. *African Journal for Physical Activity and Health Sciences*. Volume 23 (1). December 2017.

Chapter 5 will explore the role of civil society in sport for development and peace. This will include two academic articles that are based on empirical research with Grassroot Soccer South Africa (GRS) and the Extra Mural Education Project (EMEP), two non-profit organisations in South Africa.

One article in this chapter has been published as:

Sanders, B., Phillips, J. & Vanreusel, B., (2014). Opportunities and challenges facing NGOs using sport as a vehicle for development in post-apartheid South Africa. *Sport, Education and Society*, 19(6), 789-805.

The second article in this chapter has been accepted for publication as:

Sanders, B. & Raptis, E. (2017). Changing The Game - Can A Sport-Based Youth Development Programme Generate A Positive Social Return On Investment? *Commonwealth Youth and Development*. Volume 15 (1).

Chapter 6 will explore the role of the academic sector in SDP. This will include an academic article that is based on empirical research with various academic institutions in South Africa.

This chapter has been accepted for publication as:

Sanders, B & Keim, M. (2017) How Should Universities Play the Game? A Critical Examination of the Role of the Academic Sector in Sport for Development and Peace in South Africa. *South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation*. Volume 39 (3).

Chapter 7 shall provide an overall summary of the findings, synthesising the conclusions from the various articles. This will include a suggested framework, detailing the theory, findings and recommendations for optimal roles, responsibilities and arrangements for the public sector, academic sector and civil society in SDP. This will bear particular reference to South Africa but also holds relevance globally. The findings thus suggest a cooperative governance framework for SDP, which reflects a new contribution to the field and in the literature, which may prove useful for a range of stakeholders in sport and development. Finally, the chapter notes the study limitations and includes suggestions for future research.

1.10 Format of the thesis

This study adopts the PhD by publication approach. There are a number of benefits to this approach as described above, but it also presents a number of challenges which the traditional thesis format does not encounter. These challenges will be outlined as well as the steps taken to resolve them by the researcher so that the reader has clarity when assessing this study.

The researcher has adhered to the *Guidelines for the Doctoral thesis (PhD) by publications* as provided by the Research Office at UWC. These guidelines have been attached to the supporting letter accompanying the thesis and include guidelines for the student, supervisor and examiner. In this format, the published and/or accepted peer reviewed articles or book chapters constitute the body of the thesis, with an introductory and concluding chapter. The researcher has endeavoured to tie the various articles into a coherent research project and has provided a comprehensive introductory chapter, as well as a separate chapter for the literature review and a separate chapter for research methods. The challenge is that certain material in the study is subject to necessary repetition, as each publications section has its own brief introduction, literature review and methods section. Furthermore, given that each article represents a self-contained and coherent body of work, there is often repetition across the articles (e.g. all require a simple definition of sport for development and peace) and the repetition of content in the articles that may also be included in these introductory chapters.

Despite this, the researcher feels it is important for a broad and comprehensive literature review to be presented in the beginning of the thesis so as to frame the study appropriately and provide greater background than the short background sections in each article. The research methods chapter (which precedes the publication section) is much shorter and attempts to provide a theoretical and conceptual framework for the study. It does not go into great detail surrounding the individual research methods employed in each article, as these

are outlined in the corresponding publications section. The researcher has kept the final Conclusion and Recommendations chapter (following the publications section) succinct, drawing on the synthesis of research findings and unique insights from each relevant article.

Furthermore, it must be noted that many references used in the articles are also repeated in the other chapters of the thesis. As per the guidelines, each article is included as self-contained, meaning a separate list of references is provided for each article in Chapters 4, 5 and 6. Each reference list is reproduced as per the referencing guidelines of the relevant journal, hence they may differ in format. A complete list of references, including all references throughout the thesis, is then provided at the end, incorporating references from the listed articles, in standard American Psychological Association (APA) style.

In terms of formatting, the journal articles are not reproduced in the journal format, but rather in the standard format of the PhD thesis, so as to ensure consistency of formatting and ease of reading for the examiners. Copies of the journal formatted articles can be shared on request. Furthermore, as three of the four articles are due to be published in December 2017, they have not yet been allocated page numbers, though they do have volume and issue numbers.

The supporting documents for each article and all research tools are listed in the appendices.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Prior to examining the roles of various actors in promoting SDP in South Africa, one needs to trace the history of the sector. Further, one needs to define the concept of sport for development and peace as different definitions of sport exist, resulting in different, and often conflicting, views of the role of sport in the development process. Then it is important to configure the manner in which sport has entered the development arena, entertaining the case for sport from both from a legal, right-based perspective to a more holistic, need-based analysis. And if sport is to play a developmental role, one needs to understand the potential benefits of sport as well as possible harmful effects. In this regard, the work of leading scholars will be consulted, tracing the important debates within the SDP field.

As sport is regarded by the UN as an effective means to support the SDGs (and the previous MDGs), it has become prominent on the agenda of states, aid agencies, donors, businesses (especially in regard to corporate social investment) and NGOs. But how exactly does sport contribute to development goals - what impact can it have and is this impact always positive?

While no single method can be used to analyse SDP programmes, this study uses structural functionalism and conflict theory to form a conceptual framework. Structural functionalism focuses on the relationships between the various social institutions that make up society (Perrin, 1973). It adopts a positivist approach, viewing society as a complex, organic system “whose parts work together to promote solidarity and stability” (Gerber & Linda, 2010: 14). This ties into the cooperative governance approach in this study, with an exploration of the roles for the public sector, civil society and academic sector in order for them to work optimally as a whole.

Conflict theory, as espoused by Karl Marx, sees society in a constant state of conflict over limited resources. It maintains that power and conflict triumph over consensus and conformity,

with those in power seeking to reinforce their privileged position and ensure others remain subservient to them (Investopedia, n.d.a). Conflict theory maintains sport is a means by which the power elite dehumanizes and controls the masses (Vogler & Schwarz, 1993).

2.2 Sport for Development and Peace

Sport for Development and Peace refers to the use of sport to promote varied outcomes beyond the playing field (e.g. outcomes in health, education), rather than the development of sport itself. It encompasses a range of initiatives that seek to harness the power of sport for social change.

However, before examining the developmental role of sport, we need to define the concept of sport itself as well as related concepts of recreation, games and play. While this may seem a minor and arbitrary point, it is important to differentiate sport from other forms of activity. Prominent sport sociologist Coakley (1994: 21) has defined sport as encompassing a range of “institutionalised competitive activities that involve vigorous physical exertion or the use of relatively complex physical skills by individuals whose participation is motivated by a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors.” While this definition may seem overly restrictive it can help clarify the role of sport. In this definition, sport involves physical exertion thus chess would not qualify as sport. Chess would best be defined as a game as it abides by certain rules and formats and is more structured than simple play or recreation, and requires no physical effort.

Play refers to spontaneous, unstructured, voluntary types of activity which are essentially non-utilitarian. Play involves complete freedom and spontaneity and is motivated by intrinsic factors. Sport, however, is motivated by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Participants play sport because they enjoy the game but also since there are extrinsic rewards (e.g. money, medals, recognition etc.). Furthermore the participants in a sports match cannot just stop

playing as and when they desire - they have a duty to finish the game, unlike in play.

However, the intention to participate in the first place is intended to be voluntary. A United Nations Children's Fund Report (2004: 1) defines play, recreation and sport as 'freely chosen activities undertaken for pleasure'. Stone (1955: 15) claims sports are composed of two elements - play and display. While sport does involve a "spirit of play" it is also a manner of display performed for recognition and the benefit of spectators. Another manner in which sport differs from play is that it has been institutionalised with a set of standardised rules and behaviours which have been maintained and adjusted over time and can be replicated in different situations. Certain regulatory bodies (i.e. sports federations) are responsible for upholding and enforcing the rules.

Recreation is regarded as a way to 'take a break' from everyday stresses, by engaging in voluntary leisure pursuits to refresh one's body and mind. It does not necessarily involve physical activity (e.g. reading could be a form of recreation) and corresponds closely to play though it is usually more structured and planned as an after-work pursuit (Coakley, 1994: 16).

The learning of the game becomes more scientific with players encouraged to improve their skills through formalised channels such as coaching. The technical aspects of the game become more prominent with the development of strategies to optimise performance and a higher level of organisation with leagues, set times for games and the appointment of referees (Coakley, 1994: 15). In short, sport has become a social institution.

While organised sport may be quite restrictive, the SDP field takes a more inclusive view of the role of sport, recognising that many different forms of sport can contribute to development. Since mass participation or sport-for-all is a major objective for many organisations and communities, one needs to realise that sport can, and should, assume a greater scope in development efforts. In fact, the sports programmes of many development

organisations modify the traditional use of sport by combining the exercise itself with life skills or other interventions (e.g. Sport and HIV/AIDS education). It is thus hardly surprising that many organisations have adopted the UN's broad definition of sport as "all forms of physical activity that contribute to physical fitness, mental well-being and social interaction. These include play; recreation; organized, casual or competitive sport; and indigenous sports or games (that are) suitable to people of all ages and abilities, with an emphasis on the positive values of sport." (UNOSDP, 2008: 6ff). For this study, and like most other actors in SDP, we shall adopt the broad definition of sport listed above.

2.3 The Case for Sport: Potential Benefits and Harmful Effects

Many SDP actors tend to espouse the positive benefits of sport or SDP programmes. Critical voices tend to urge against oversimplified notions of sport with a lack of rigorous research, monitoring and evaluation of SDP work. When using sport to contribute to development and peace, it is important to take note of both potential benefits and harmful effects.

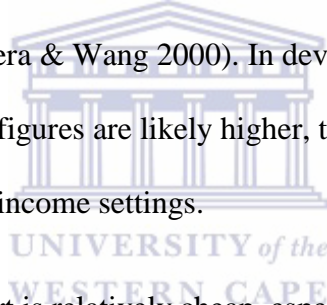
2.3.1 Sport - the Good News

In recent years, the potential benefits of sport have been loudly proclaimed and even over exaggerated in some cases. But if used in the appropriate manner and in the right context, there is no doubt that sport can stimulate development in many ways. These may include:

- Improving health, well-being and reducing the likelihood of major diseases (WHO, 2014),
- Social mobilisation, bridging divides and bringing communities together (Sanders, 2012),
- Playing a major role in the education system, instilling core values (United Nations, 2003),
- Adding economic value through employment, improved productivity (De Coning, 2014),
- Increasing awareness of the human body and respect for the environment (CABOS, 2010),
- Offering healthy alternatives contributing to holistic youth development (UNOSDP, 2013),

- Promoting cross cultural dialogue, tolerance, conflict transformation and peace (Keim, 2006),
- Offering an accessible form of communication for sensitive issues (e.g. HIV/AIDS),
- Subverting gender stereotypes and empowering women and girls (Grassroot Soccer, 2014),
- Uplifting people with disabilities and other marginalised groups (United Nations, 2003),
- Providing volunteer opportunities and increased employability (Grassroot Soccer, 2014).

These are some potential benefits of sport and each one can be expanded. For example regarding health, sport can prevent and cure diseases, while offering economic value at the same time. It is hard to estimate economic value given many variables but research in the USA shows every dollar spent on sport and physical activity results in an estimated US\$3.20 saving in health costs (Pratt, Macera & Wang 2000). In developing countries such as South Africa with greater health issues, figures are likely higher, thus sport may have greater potential for development in low-income settings.



Furthermore as investment in sport is relatively cheap, especially given the high number of volunteers (Coalter, 2010), sport can be a low-cost, high-impact tool for development. There is also evidence to suggest that besides having positive effects on participants, sport based programmes tend to benefit the implementers, be they coaches, administrators or managers (Grassroot Soccer, 2014). A socio-economic case can be made for sport and recreation and its ability to save costs associated with managing the burden of disease, producing education outcomes by keeping youth in school, reducing policing and criminal justice costs (especially for adolescents), as well as its ability to promote tourism and encourage direct foreign investment. As such certain actors have sought to quantify a return on investment for sport (De Coning, 2014). An article reproduced in Chapter 5 shows that a SDP employability initiative led by an NPO in South Africa produced a considerable social return on investment.

The UN proclaimed the value of sport in tackling each of the eight MDGs and established a range of bodies and mechanisms dedicating to leveraging the power of sport for development and peace. In regard to the SDGs, the UN stated: “Sport is also an important enabler of sustainable development. We recognize the growing contribution of sport to the realization of development and peace in its promotion of tolerance and respect and the contributions it makes to the empowerment of women and of young people, individuals and communities as well as to health, education and social inclusion objectives” (United Nations, 2015).

There is no doubt that sport can play a major role in development and peace. The potential benefits of sport are many and wide-ranging, and this has resulted in sport being integrated into many development initiatives. However, sport does not automatically produce positive results. It needs to overcome certain challenges and be implemented in certain ways to be truly effective. The next section will explore sport’s limitations and adverse effects.

2.3.2 Sport - The Bad News

Broad, absolute claims made by the SDP movement must be treated with caution. Sport can have positive micro-impact on individuals but this does not necessarily lead to greater meso or macro level outcomes. As many theorists argue (Darnell, 2007; Coalter, 2007; Coakley, 2015; Sugden, 2010), deep seated macro issues such as poverty and inequality cannot be solved solely by building social capital (referring to the value of social networks and relationships that exist among people within society) at a local level. It is short-sighted, naive and dangerous to claim that sport can reverse large scale problems, on its own accord, since the effects of sport are not always as concrete, or as easy to measure, as the rhetoric suggests.

Furthermore, most SDP actors do not challenge the structures and systems that create and reinforce macro issues (such as poverty and inequality) in the first place (Sanders, 2012).

Coalter (2010: 1) postulates a major weakness of SDP programmes is that they are “seeking

to solve broad gauge problems via limited focus interventions”. A comprehensive, long-term, collaborative, multi-sectoral approach is needed in the SDP sector (De Coning, 2014).

Thus, while sport can be an efficient, cost-effective and wide-reaching vehicle for development it can have negative effects and can even work against development goals given certain conditions. Many factors influence whether sport leads to intended development outcomes, including the:

- Type of sport played (Adler & Adler, 1998; Coakley, 1983; Côté & Fraser-Thomas, 2007)
- Orientations and actions of peers, parents, coaches, administrators (Fredricks & Eccles, 2004)
- Norms, class and culture associated with specific sports (Hartmann & Massoglia, 2007)
- Social characteristics of sport participants (Hoffman, 2006; Miller, et. al 1998)
- Material and cultural contexts under which participation occurs (Fry & Gano-Overway, 2010; Guest & Schneider, 2003; Hoffman, 2006; Light, 2010; Martinek & Hellison, 1997)
- Social relationships through sport participation (Fry & Gano-Overway, 2010; Theberge, 2000)
- Meanings given to sport experiences (Fine, 1987; Guest & Schneider, 2003; Wacquant, 1992)

The competitive nature of sport may encourage each individual to do his or her best but it can lead to aggression, cheating and a 'win-at-all-costs' attitude. Sport may promote violence through the activity (e.g. rugby or boxing) or among spectators (e.g. soccer hooliganism). As George Orwell (1945) famously said: “Serious sport has nothing to do with fair play. It is bound up with hatred, jealousy, boastfulness, disregard of all rules and sadistic pleasure in witnessing violence. In other words it is war minus the shooting.” Many critics and conflict

theorists agree with Orwell (Sanders, 2016; Coakley, 2015) and argue professional sport has become another distorted capitalist institution, serving the needs of business and elites.

It is therefore argued that the potential negative impact of sport must be acknowledged and a distinction drawn between elite, organised, commercial and competitive sports, and SDP efforts (Coakley, 2011). Others have argued that sport can reinforce existing inequities if it reproduces a sports-industrial complex, as articulated by Maguire (2006), that privileges competitive and spectator sport over community based sport and recreation. The

Commonwealth Advisory Body on Sport (CABOS) acknowledges this paradox stating:

“There have been instances where sport has been poorly planned, overly aligned to extremist nationalist, political or economic motives or beset by doping and corruption scandals such that a negative impact on human and social development could be argued.” (Dudfield, 2014: 7).



On a more fundamental level, conflict theory sees sport as reproducing inequalities and class systems, thus serving the needs of the capitalist economy and those who control the means of production. Like religion, sport may be seen as the opiate of the masses, designed to lull them into a false sense of security, entrenching the power and privilege of an elite few (Coakley, 1994: 32). The relationship between sport and business is epitomised in costly mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup, which critics such as Bond (2010) argue exacerbate poverty, while research has shown that mega-events tend to worsen inequalities in developing countries (Vahid, 2011).

One could argue conflict theory is too deterministic and accords little power to individuals by overemphasising the influence of macro structures on our lives. But there can be no doubt it raises important points since many SDP actors take a functional view of sport and exaggerate its positive impact. Feminist sources offer a different critique, adopting a gender-bound

approach and arguing women have been systematically devalued, exploited and oppressed through sport (Szto, 2015). Sport can transform social relations but SDP actors must recognise possible harm.

Other researchers take a more radical view, positioning sports within a colonial framework. Giulianotti (2004: 358) asserts that in some instances, sport institutions have marginalised or even eradicated indigenous games and cultural practices, likening this to a form of “cultural genocide”. Furthermore the current practice of North-driven organisations dictating the terms of sport for development to deficient (implied) South-based communities could be seen as deeply paternalistic (Keim & De Coning, 2016), and even racist, given its use of a social control and deficit-reduction model (Darnell, 2012). Certain SDP actors may give communities little choice to formulate their own programmes, reinforcing an ideology of “international development as the benevolent deliverance of aid, goods and expertise from the northern, First World to the southern, Third World” (Darnell, 2007: 561). Even more disturbingly this could be viewed as a clear example of neo-colonialism breeding new forms of dependency between the Global North and Global South. In this sense, SDP players may be scoring an ‘*own goal*’ by entrenching the very problems they seek to overcome.

Many proponents of sport claim it brings people together in a way that no other activity can match. But we need to pay more attention to assumptions. Does it really bring people together in a lasting manner? What happens when the games are done? There are accounts of British and German soldiers playing soccer matches during World War II only to resume hostilities the following day (Maguire, 2010). The day after the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup in South Africa, which supposedly brought unity, there were xenophobic attacks reported in South Africa as well as evictions of homeless people from cities before the tournament (Allie, 2010). Sport can unite people but it can, and does, systematically exclude certain people, such

as women, the elderly and those with physical disabilities. Sport often does reflect, and even contributes to the exclusion of these marginalised groups (Bailey, 2006) - this is something all actors must keep in mind. As Keim (2006: 5) points out: “Sport programmes can take us forward as a nation, but if not properly conceived and managed, can reinforce old prejudices, stereotypes and divisions.”

It is vital to recall sport is merely an empty box which only functions in a specific context with specific people and with specific results. It is neither automatically positive nor negative in itself and needs to be implemented in a deliberate manner with utmost care to ensure benefit, not harm. And even then there are not guarantees of positive results through sport.

2.3.3 Inequities within Sport

It is important to reflect on the overall sport sector as this provides the framework under which many SDP organisations operate. Firstly, it must be noted that most SDP actors are either unaware, or complicit with, the inequities within the sport sector worldwide (Sanders, 2012). This is a critical point since it may illustrate an unintended paradox of SDP work - by working within an inequitable and undemocratic sector, and often benefitting with funding from major institutions in this sector (e.g. sport federations, retailers etc.), well-intentioned SDP actors may reinforce an industry at odds with their goals (Giulianotti, 2004).

Coakley (2011) suggests elite, organized, competitive and commercial sports are used to reinforce neoliberal ideologies and systems. This is evidenced by the way in which commercial interests, in the form of sponsors, big business etc., dominate sporting events (Bond, 2010). Furthermore, the sport sector is dominated by multinationals in retail, media and other fields with astronomical profits resulting from sport commodities being screened and sold across the globe (Zimbalist, 2003). Sport has become more of a spectacle than a

physical activity for many, evidenced by declining rates of sport participation worldwide, in stark contrast to increased visibility of sport across all media (Shamir & Ruskin, 1984).

Many mainstream development actors are sceptical about funding or partnering with SDP actors despite sharing certain goals. This is often due to little, if any, evidence underpinning SDP initiatives (Richards et. al. 2013) and a lack of transparent governance, cooperation and accountability (Giulianotti, 2011). In addition there exists the (often ill-conceived) notion that SDP works to advance elite sport as much as development goals (Dudfield, 2014). Many development actors and policy-makers see SDP actors as having access to substantial corporate resources and revenue from major events when this is often not the case in reality.

However, while certain SDP organisations may benefit from the globalised sport sector, it must be noted that generally SDP efforts only receive a fraction of the revenue from this sector, and this is often used to legitimise corporate activities. Furthermore, the distribution of such resources is skewed, especially in terms of class, race, gender, (dis)ability and geography (Dudfield, 2014). The SDP movement thus suffers in two clear ways with regard to budgeting. Firstly, the resources allocated to sport by most governments (including South Africa) and agencies remains relatively small. Secondly, in these budgets SDP efforts tend to be marginalised and considered less worthy of funding than elite sport and mega-events. As a result SDP efforts are notoriously underfunded (Kidd, 2008: 376) and unable to reach scale.

Another example of unequal access refers to sport participation. There seems to be little doubt that with the right conditions in place, opportunities for sport participation can greatly benefit society. But why do people participate in sports? What are the enabling and restricting factors? And what are sports participation trends locally and globally? Levels of sports participation differ greatly among developed and developing countries. Unsurprising, 1st world countries have superior facilities and opportunities for participation. For example, 20-

25% of Europeans are affiliated to sports federations whereas in developing countries this figure is usually well under 1% (SRSA, 2009: 34). Reasons for this are many, including a lack of scheduled sport, recreation and physical education opportunities in schools, clubs and communities (Sanders, 2010), which often relate to structural socio-economic barriers.

It is vital to make a more robust case for SDP work, while clearly distinguishing it from elite, organised, commercial and competitive sports. While there are obviously overlaps between SDP and elite sport, there remain significant differences. High performance sport, which by nature benefits few individuals and primarily serves the needs of big business and elites (Maguire, 2010; Coakley 2011, Vahid 2011, Darnell 2007), is usually well-funded or sponsored. Ironically, SDP work which serves the needs of deprived individuals and communities, tends to be under resourced and underutilised in comparison (Dudfield 2014; United Nations 2003; De Coning 2013).

Sport Inequities in South Africa

Sport inequities continue to haunt South Africa. While the inequities between elite and community based sport, as articulated above, are relevant to South Africa, the country faces a range of disparities in terms of equity and access to sport and recreation, primarily as a result of the legacy of Apartheid. During this oppressive regime (1948-1994), people of colour were systematically disadvantaged and discriminated against, were stripped of the right to vote and access to facilities and opportunities was severely limited. As such, white sport structures were privileged over non-white structures, while opportunity and access was determined heavily along racial lines which further entrenched such discrimination. Government policy from 1948-1971 dictated that whites and non-whites must organize sport separately, and any attempt at mixed sport was illegal. However, most observers agree that these unjust laws and principles persisted at least until the official end of apartheid in 1994 (Archer & Bouillon,

1982). The SRSA White Paper (1995:2) notes: “In the apartheid era more than 30 million South Africans were never taken into serious account when it came to sport and recreation.”

It is thus hardly surprising that many South Africans are unable to exercise their right to play. A BMI Sport Info Survey (2007) discovered that 66% of adult Whites play sport, as compared to 35% of Blacks, 33% of Coloureds and 47% of Asians. While the number of youth participating outside of school has increased, largely due to the growth of sports such as horse riding and cycling which are not usually offered at school, the majority of youth (51%) still play sport at school. The figures confirm the importance of providing a sporting chance for school youth and illustrate the great sporting divide that still affects South Africa.

In a similar study of sports participation, the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) found that 25% of South Africans play sport, with most people engaging outside formal sport structures. ‘Exposure to Sport at School’ was cited as the biggest reason among respondents (33%) for becoming involved in sport. Reasons for non-participation included ‘No interest’ (24%) and ‘Lack of Facilities and Opportunities’ (SRSA, 2009), again reflecting unequal access. Having access to a sports club or equipment was not generally regarded as an obstacle, though access to good coaches, competitive sport and physical education at schools was regarded as vital, again showing that the education system remains an invaluable site for sport and physical activity.

2.4 Sport and Development

While sport has been defined as well as the concept of sport for development and peace, it is important to define and contextualise the much contested and widely used term of development. Traditionally development was viewed in terms of economic growth, with a focus on GDP and incomes, but scholars such as Sen (2001) have long argued for development to be understood according to its human impact, including people’s choices,

capabilities and freedoms (Sen, 2010). These views have been recognised with the creation of a United Nations Human Development Index, a focus on sustainable development processes and the adoption of wide ranging SDGs. Sustainable development has been defined as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987), and has emerged as the guiding principle for long-term global development. Thus it is clear that development is now viewed in terms of myriad economic, social, cultural and environmental factors that have a human impact. For this study such an encompassing definition of development shall be used as it is clear SDP initiatives are not solely concerned with economic or material growth but rather at effecting changes in people’s lives.

Returning to sport and development, the belief in sport as something that transcends the activity itself is not new. It may have risen in prominence in recent times but its roots stretch some distance. As far back as the mid-19th Century, the bourgeoisie in the United Kingdom believed sport could improve the character and behaviour of participants, promoting the idea of the Protestant work ethic and discipline. As such sport became an important part of the thriving education system (SDPIWG, 2007: 9).

Nonetheless, sport has only entered the mainstream development arena in recent years. In the past (and still in some quarters today), it has been viewed exclusively as a form of play or recreation, a light-hearted fun affair which cannot genuinely contribute to greater, more urgent issues such as health, education, child welfare etc. Even professional sport, with its massive, worldwide appeal was held up as a spectacle, a popular form of entertainment but just entertainment nonetheless, seeming somewhat trivial in the light of the world’s problems. As Frey and Nixon (1996: 1) argue: “People speak or write nostalgically about the joys of past sports conquests, yet their eyes often seem to glaze over when sport is mentioned in the

same breath as economics, politics, poverty, pollution, racial and gender discrimination, crime or the quality of education.”

In many ways sport operates in a paradox. Popular as both an activity and increasingly as a form of entertainment, it is often perceived as somewhat separate from the other institutions of society, operating in its own ‘on the field’ vacuum. Sport is regarded as an escape from everyday reality, yet sport is an institution of society and an important part of people’s lives.

2.4.1 Development of Sport or Development through Sport?

Sport development generally refers to the actual development of the sport. This could involve creating academies and striving to improve the quality of participation and performance. This is especially relevant in South Africa, where there is a concerted attempt to improve national sports teams, as well as an attempt to make these teams more representative in terms of race.

Development through Sport, or Sport for Development and Peace, has been defined as “the intentional use of sport, physical activity and play to attain specific development objectives in low- and middle-income countries and disadvantaged communities in high-income settings” (SDPIWG, 2008). It is often referred to as Sport for Development or Sport for Social Change. Regardless of the exact terminology, it involves the concerted effort to use sport as a vehicle to achieve outcomes beyond the playing field, rather than a focus on sporting outcomes.

These two different, though interrelated approaches, relate to the distinction drawn earlier between elite, organised, commercial and competitive sports (mainly focusing on the development of sport) and SDP (looking to generate development through sport). This research examines the use of sport for outcomes related to development and peace.

It is also important to note that to maximize the development potential of sport, it needs to be aligned with current development efforts. But at the same time, development efforts need to

align with existing sports structures and organisations. It is vital that SDP is part of, but can be distinguished from, sport development, and maximises its impact by seeking ‘out those not already involved in sport’ (Kidd 2008). Sport alone is unlikely to succeed but neither are programmes that use sport as a medium without sports expertise or infrastructure.

2.4.2 Sport The Medium or the Message?

Given that SDP seeks to use sport in a positive manner, it is crucial to determine how these positive outcomes are achieved, a subject of much debate in the sector. Many claim sport has considerable intrinsic value (such as health benefits and the teaching of life skills such as fair play) and that the activity itself should be the main focus of interventions (Bouah, 2016).

Additional life skills or other such initiatives are useful but they must not come at the expense of the activity itself. To create a quality sporting experience, proper structures and capacity need to be developed first and only after this can other elements be incorporated.

On the other hand, many argue that merely participating in sport is not enough (Coalter, 2010; Coakley, 2011; Sanders, 2012) as the nature and manner in which sport is organised is key. Activities must be combined with, or complement, existing development initiatives to genuinely realise outcomes. In this approach the extrinsic value of sport is seen as its most important function. Sport is seen mainly as a vehicle through which social change can occur.

Coalter (2007) most eloquently describes this debate by identifying three approaches of sport for development. Traditionally this centred on the provision of facilities and opportunities for sport which presume that sport in itself can be beneficial to participants. Other programmes modify the sports activity or combine it with other development initiatives to create social change - this is known as **Sport plus**. And in the most recent approach sport is seen merely as a means to an end, a vehicle to attract participants to development initiatives with the promise to play as well as learn important values and skills in the process - this is **plus Sport**.

Of course, these two approaches are not unrelated. By running a sports programme with life skills as a secondary goal, youth may be able to enjoy the sport and learn valuable lessons. By making life skills the primary goal, youth may still be able to reap the rewards of playing sport. It is a matter of balance and begs the question - is sport the medium or the message?

An expert consultation on the International Platform on Sport and Development (2009) set about answering this dilemma by investigating whether the development of sport constitutes a development goal in itself. After much debate, it was decided that sports capacity needs to exist if the sport is to result in development goals. Thus even if sport is only regarded as a medium, the infrastructure for delivering this sport must be present. From this one can infer that some degree of specialist sports knowledge is necessary for organisations seeking to use sport for development - general development agencies will not be successful on their own and should thus partner appropriately.



Just as sport experts and agencies need to be involved in SDP initiatives so experts in development must be involved too. Sports practitioners may be great at delivering sports programmes but their knowledge of community issues may be poor - and vice-versa. Due to the multi-disciplinary nature of such work, the different disciplines need to be integrated. As stated by an expert on the International Platform for Sport and Development (2009: 13):

“Another challenge is expertise in sport and development. Practitioner delivering sessions on the ground often have a background as a sports coach and sometimes lack expertise in other thematic fields...The main challenge in implementing SDP programmes is that you need experts from two sides [to exist if the sport is to achieve desirable development goals]: one, an expert in sport and sport development for the interest of sport itself and two: an expert who is a social or health scientist who fully understands the problems facing communities.”

SDP organisations need to realise, as certain development actors in other fields have done before them, that there is no generic formula for development to take place. Sport may have potential for intrinsic and extrinsic benefits, but these can only occur if the right conditions and approaches are used - and the mantra of 'first do no harm' is observed. Even then development is a complex, messy and interrelated process that involves many factors beyond the control of most actors, meaning that effective implementation cannot guarantee outcomes.

2.4.3 Sport as a Human Right

In the past, sport was not necessarily regarded as a right or protected by any legal basis. In 1959, the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of the Child (UNICEF, 1959) emphasised the importance of sport as a universal human right in the following: "the child shall have full opportunity for play and recreation, which should be directed to the same purposes as education." UNESCO (1978), the Educational, Scientific and Cultural arm of the UN, took this further in 1978, issuing the International Charter of Physical Education and Sport, raising the profile of physical exercise. It stated "every human being has a fundamental right of access to physical education and sport, which are essential for the full development of his/her personality." In 1990, the Convention on the Rights of the Child declared "the practice of physical education and sport is a fundamental right for all" (United Nations, 1990).

Further affirmation came from the Olympic Charter, adopted by the IOC, which sets forth the guidelines for the Olympic Games and states unequivocally that "The practice of sport is a human right" (Olympic Review, 1998). Even the Geneva Conventions (1949), which were adopted over 60 years ago and cover the rights of war victims, make special mention of sport, stating that prisoners of war are entitled to "physical exercise, sports and games". While these developments are not new, they were ground-breaking at the time as they laid the legal foundations for sport and physical exercise to be considered fundamental human rights.

However, despite being recognised as an entitlement, the right to play is often referred to as “the forgotten right” (United Nations, 2003) and has traditionally existed on the margins of society and law.

It is clear that sport is not a panacea to society’s ills and its effects are limited. However, it can be used to promote development alongside broader efforts and strategies if it is planned, managed, implemented and reviewed appropriately, with the communities it intends to serve (Keim, 2008). CABOS (2010) advocates for SDP as “the intentional use of sport, play and physical activity as a viable, practical and effective tool to contribute to development and peace goals”. Effective SDP work cannot happen by default but must be intentional and well planned, taking into account contextual factors. Just as with sport activity itself, careful planning and implementation are crucial to a positive result. And winning is never certain.

2.5 Governance of Sport for Development and Peace

While substantial coverage has been given to the potential of sport programmes in achieving development outcomes, less attention has been paid to the governance of stakeholders within the SDP field. This is ironic given that effective governance is crucial to ensuring accountability and transparency which ultimately affect the achievement of outcomes.

This study will use governance as a central theme to explore ways in which different role players can make an impact in using sport for development and peace, including how to align strategies, policies and plans. However, first one must consult the literature on governance.

Governance concerns the relationship between the state and civil society. Grindle and Thomas (1991) have distinguished between a state-centred and society-centred approach to governance. In a *state-centred approach*, the nature and role of the state is predominant and governance is generally understood as the act of “governing” which is related to public policy

and the make-up of the political system. However, in a society-centred approach, the nature and role of civil society is predominant, as organs of civil society mobilise, structure and organise themselves to influence the state (Cloete and De Coning, 2011: 66-70).

As governance concerns the relationship between the state and civil society, one must recall that the various public sector management approaches will affect the way the state governs, which in turn affects civil society. While these approaches will not be explored in detail, many scholars (FitzGerald, 1995; McLennan & FitzGerald, 1992; Meyer, 2000; Monteiro, 2003) have noted that different public sector management approaches, have implications both globally and locally. In addition there are emerging public management styles that may have more profound effects but are not yet applicable to South Africa (De Coning & Rabie, 2015).

The concept of “good governance” is often used. In South Africa, it often seems to infer accountable service delivery, though it obviously involves many other functions such as policy setting, public management, responsibilities of the executive and implementation of strategies and plans. In South Africa, the Batho Pele policy defines standards for service delivery (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2003).

The “cooperative governance” approach has been raised as a formal approach in developing countries such as South Africa. It is designed to promote cooperation between government, private sector and civil society as well as within, and across, the various spheres of each sector. It thus aims to ensure cooperation both horizontally (across sectors) and vertically (within each sector - such as the three tiers of government, national, provincial and local). It is recognised that cooperative governance and intergovernmental relations are crucial to ensuring optimal development. Cooperative governance is a central tenet of the South African Constitution (1996). Section 41 calls on all spheres of government and organs of state to co-operate by fostering friendly relations, assisting and supporting one another,

informing one another and consulting one another on matters of common interest, and co-ordinating actions and legislation. To improve integration among all spheres of government, the Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act (Act 13 of 2005) was promulgated in 2005. This Act gives effect to Section 41 of the Constitution and establishes a framework for the different spheres of government to work together both horizontally and vertically. Effective and strengthened collaboration between government entities, and between state and civil society is essential in such efforts (Giese & Sanders, 2008).

Furthermore, developing countries may consider alternative forms of governance that may be more appropriate to their context, rather than replicating approaches from the Global North. South Africa is one such example, which has been referenced as a “developmental state”, implying a specific role for government and civil society that cannot be imported from more developed nations. In this ideology the state is intended to lead, intervene and even regulate development where necessary (Moleketi, 2003). The cooperative governance approach and developmental state concept that are present in South Africa profoundly affect the way any sector, including the SDP sector, is conceived, understood, supported, coordinated and managed. This research examines the roles played by the state, civil society and academic sector in SDP and makes suggestions for more effective governance and collaboration.

2.5.1 Role of the State

It is widely acknowledged that the state has a major, if not leading, role to play in development (Chang, 2003; Huber & Stephens, 2001), though there is much debate as to what this role entails. Neo-liberal critics propose a limited role for government: this implies that the state should play a coordination role but that most service delivery should be undertaken by non-governmental and private organisations. Modernist theory echoes the same school of thought with its emphasis on structural differentiation - the process by which

the organs of society become more specialised as they develop (Graaff & Le Roux, 2001: 55). Social democrats and leftists on the other hand emphasises the importance of an interventionist and regulatory government (Piketty, 2014).

While this study shall not deeply debate the overall role of the state, it will consider its role in SDP. Despite ideological differences over the state's disposition, few would argue that it has a critical role to play in the realm of sport, development and peace. As Bruce Kidd (2008: 376), a leading sport sociologist, stated when referring to the SDP sector: "While there will always be a role for NGOs, governments must take the lead."

But what is government's role within sport for development and peace? Scholars such as De Coning (2014) claim government is primarily responsible for policy, regulation and oversight, technical support (including funding special projects and/or partners) as well as defining institutional arrangements for SDP. This corresponds to the role of the state in sport, as envisaged by the National Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA) in the National Sport and Recreation Plan (NSRP). Greater detail on the role of the state in SDP in South Africa is provided in the peer reviewed article dedicated to this subject in Chapter 4.

2.5.2 Role of Civil Society

Civil Society essentially refers to the realm between the state and the individual, but within this there exists a multitude of interests, including the family and the private sector, NPOs, NGOs, CBOs, labour and trade unions (Civil Society International, 2009). There are many differing definitions of civil society. For example the economy is often included as part of civil society, while others see the economy as separate. It is also debatable whether political parties are part of civil society or whether they form a separate public sphere. It is not essential to narrowly define civil society, but it is important to distinguish it as separate from the state. Furthermore, when considering the role of civil society, it is important to note the

theory on civil society mobilisation, organisation and self-reliance as expounded by the likes of Sen and Max-Neef. Sen (2001) in particular notes the complex interplay and conflict between structure (systems of society) and agency (individual freedoms), which often play themselves out in the way civil society organises itself. Max-Neef and others (1989: 18) identified fundamental human needs as part of a school of thought called Human Scale Development described as “focused and based on the satisfaction of fundamental human needs, on the generation of growing levels of self-reliance, and on the construction of organic articulations of people with nature and technology, of global processes with local activity, of the personal with the social, of planning with autonomy, and of civil society with the state.” It thus notes the interaction of the various stakeholders, including civil society and the state.

For the purposes of this study, the role of civil society in SDP will be debated with cases from the non-profit sector in South Africa. It is important to note that many non-governmental organisations (NGOs) are registered as non-profit organisations (NPOs) but not all NGOs exist for such purposes. Similarly, community based organisations (CBOs) may function as NPOs but often serving specific community interests rather than a broad mandate.

It is important to locate NPOs in SDP within a global context. While globalisation does allow more flexible and innovative structures, its overarching commitment to capital leads to cost cutting (Sindall, 1997), with development initiatives usually the first to fall by the wayside. Handy (1989: 21) relates such streamlining of organisations to the growth of the ‘contract economy’. Organisations, even NPOs which are meant to fulfil a range of human needs, are often contracted to serve very specific objectives. But this approach hinders development, which by definition encompasses a multitude of dimensions and cannot be done in isolation, as per Sen’s all-encompassing categorisation of ‘Development as Freedom’ (Sen, 2001).

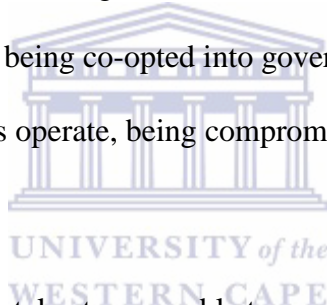
In South Africa, the term NPO is used to describe a range of civil society organisations. This may include NGOs, CBOs, aid agencies, service organisations and many more. The South African NGO Coalition (SANGOCO), the leading body for NGOs in the country, has defined NPOs as: “organisations and groups or formations of people operating in the space between family and the state, which are independent, voluntary, and established to protect or enhance the interests and values of their members/founders.” (SANGOCO, 1999).

The South African Non-Profit Organisations Act (1997) defines an NPO as “A trust, company or other association of persons established for a public purpose”. Further, the act calls on all spheres of government to support NPOs to the best of their ability claiming that “within the limits prescribed by law, every organ of state must determine and co-ordinate the implementation of its policies and measures in a manner designed to promote, support and enhance the capacity of NPOs to perform their functions.” (Non-Profit Organisations Act, 1997). As Fowler (1991) and others argue, while NPOs are often dependent on the state in many different ways, these non-governmental actors are often influential in changing state-society relations. This affirms the notion of civil society and the state being interdependent.

At times, civil society actors have demonstrated capacity to deliver certain services more effectively and efficiently than the state (Atkinson, 1996: 293). They are more flexible and can advance change in both formal and informal ways, making them more accessible to communities. However, limiting civil society to an implementation role is problematic as the majority of organisations do not have the capacity or obligation of the state to cater to the needs of all citizens. Service delivery remains the main responsibility of the state as articulated in the National Development Plan (National Planning Commission, 2013), though it is worth noting that the state may partner with civil society actors in ensuring such delivery.

Furthermore, it is crucial that civil society does not just actualise government policy but that it plays a role in determining such policy. It is worth remembering that the sports movement played a role in the struggle against apartheid, doing in fact the opposite of serving policy. As Allison (2000: 69) notes “In few countries could institutions of civil society (such as sport) outflank and manipulate what appears to be a powerful state in this manner; in no other country, perhaps, could sporting institutions have played so large a part in forming the direction that the state would take.”

As such, it should not be left to the state to decide on the role of civil society or NPOs. By including NPOs in public processes there may be little room for these organisations to operate outside the public sphere (Swilling & Russell, 2002). Space for opposition must still exist and there is danger of NPOs being co-opted into government, or an arena outside the public domain, where many NPOs operate, being compromised. This is relevant to SDP actors.



It is important that non-governmental actors are able to engage government in a support and advocacy role (SDPIWG, 2007). NPOs should understand that engaging the state may mean taking an oppositional stance at times, reflecting robust debate which may be healthy for a democracy. Besides the state, the non-governmental sector needs to ensure it works together more seamlessly and is able to present a united and coherent approach. Within SDP, there are many different organisations and while diversity is to be celebrated there are few effective common platforms. Thus while criticism is often aimed at the various spheres of government for being uncoordinated or cumbersome, one must note that civil society also has weaknesses, with a lack of funds and technical expertise, a lack of unity leading to fragmentation and a lack of real financial or political sway (Brown & Kalegaonkar, 2000: 3).

Greater detail on the role of civil society in SDP, both globally and in South Africa, is provided in the peer reviewed articles dedicated to this subject in Chapter 5.

2.5.3 Role of the Academic Sector

This study compares and debates the roles of the state, civil society and the academic sector in regard to SDP. Within civil society it includes a case study of the non-profit sector. The academic sector may often be classified as part of civil society, or in some instances as an organ of the state (depending on the funding arrangement), though there tends to be a relative degree of independence within the sector. Thus this study examines the academic sector in its own right as it boasts specific characteristics which may carve a niche role for it in society, and by extension in SDP. The sector includes higher education establishments such as tertiary institutions and training colleges, excluding formal primary and secondary schooling (Scott et. al, 2007). Higher education establishments offer academic programmes and expertise.

Within the academic sector, cases are drawn from universities in South Africa and their efforts in SDP. One must consider the overall role of universities in development and peace before debating their role in the SDP field. However, it is hard to delineate a common role for universities. There are significant, and often conflicting, differences among universities both within, and between, countries and regions. Quite simply, the status and purpose of universities can differ significantly in different contexts, with variances in terms of philosophy, mission, tradition, level of education and other functions (Keim et. al, 2011).

However, it seems clear that universities can add value in the SDP field, given that it has been critiqued for lacking a rigorous evidence base and well defined theories of change. The peer reviewed article related to universities will cover the ways universities can strengthen SDP. It will also detail the state of universities in this field in South Africa, as they are hardly mentioned in the NSRP. This does not mean that universities are not part of the SDP

movement in South Africa. There are many examples of tertiary institutions contributing meaningfully to the SDP discourse, including a research group on sport for development and peace in the Western Cape, involving UWC, the University of Cape Town, University of Stellenbosch and Cape Technikon, while the University of Johannesburg has a well-established sport science department. Many of these institutions have conducted research, including for the state, to ascertain the effects of sport programmes on development goals.

Greater detail on the role of the academic sector in SDP, both globally and in South Africa, is provided in the peer reviewed article dedicated to this subject in Chapter 6.

2.5.4 The Road to Good Governance

In summary one must recall that the work of the public sector, civil society and the academic sector is inextricably interlinked. There are multiple overlaps between each sector and many partnerships have been developed, for example between state departments and universities. In another common scenario the state has contracted civil society organisations for certain services. Each sector can only function optimally if the system itself functions optimally, while each sector needs to function optimally to enable the other sector(s) to do the same. This relates to the theory of structural functionalism and each sector playing its role within an integrated, complex and ever changing SDP field, which can be likened to an organism.

This brings us back to the issue of governance. Within this system, the state has arguably the most important role. It needs to provide regulatory and policy frameworks so as to ensure that actors in the SDP sector understand its intentions and ideally align to its work. Civil society and the academic sector have their roles to play but are to a large extent dependent upon actions of the state, though they can influence the state through various means. As Coalter (2010) states: “they (non-governmental actors) are not simple substitutes for the state, and can only really thrive to the extent that the state actively encourages them.” Similarly the

South African government calls on every organ of the state to do all in its power to support NGOs and NPOs to reach their goals. While this may not be the reality on the ground, it does indicate a recognition of the interdependence of the state, civil society and academic sector.



3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter will trace the methodological approaches used in the research. The setting for the study will be described with an overview of the organisations selected as case studies. An explanation of the case study design will be provided, as well as the population and sample groups. An overview of the different data collection methods and data analysis will be provided. Ethical considerations have been taken into account and this study has been approved by the Senate Higher Degrees and Research Grants and Study Leave Committees at UWC. The ethical clearance certificate can be provided as a separate PDF attachment.

3.1 Research design

This study seeks to determine the optimal roles, responsibilities and arrangements for the public sector, civil society and academic sector in SDP. The underpinning theoretical framework, use of a mixed methods approach and use of case studies are described below.

As described in the literature review, this study combines structural functionalism and conflict theory to form a theoretical framework. The blending of the two approaches, while markedly different, allow the researcher to adopt a multi-faceted and balanced view to the study. This includes acknowledging critical views of SDP that take account of the possible harmful effects and unintended consequences, as well as the broader structural issues that may negate well-intentioned SDP work (as described earlier). However, the researcher is also focused on finding functional solutions (taking into account the limitations of SDP) for the various actors to better work together, by establishing the optimal roles and responsibilities for the state, civil society and academic sector. Simultaneously, the use of conflict theory means that the researcher is aware that the various sectors may be in conflict, or compete, with one another, thus adding additional complexity to determining optimal interaction. The

two theories provide useful counter arguments to ensure recommendations are grounded in reality, while at the same time providing a future vision for the governance of SDP.

In terms of data collection, a mixed methods approach is adopted, characterized by the *intentional* collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell et al., 2003). With this type of design the qualitative and quantitative strands are planned and implemented to answer related aspects of the same overarching research question (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2011). By intentionally combining or integrating different approaches, each with their own characteristics, a mixed methods approach seeks to draw on the most suitable forms of data collection to answer complex research questions. If implemented well, a mixed methods approach may be able to provide multi-faceted and contextually relevant data. Quantitative data can be used to determine associations (possibly causality), and to establish the frequency of phenomena, while qualitative data can unpack the process of how and why the subject studied acts in the way it does (Pasick et al., 2009). Thus a mixed methods approach may help researchers better understand the multiple, and often interrelated, dimensions to an issue or problem, form complementary understandings of such issues, identify causes, trends or patterns, and of course compare, validate, or triangulate results (Plano Clark, 2010).

In the field of SDP, a mixed methods approach is useful as it not only shows if and to what extent change occurred (usually through quantitative means, though qualitative data can also indicate change) but can also provide context as to the reasons and process for this change occurring (or not). Given that sport is framed as a tool for development and that outcomes are thus usually anticipated in other domains (e.g. improved health), understanding the process, and degree, by which sport enables outcomes is critical. Hence qualitative research is vital. At the same time the SDP field has produced much anecdotal evidence, with calls for greater

rigour. Quantitative data has a role to play here in making a case for tangible impact. Hence this study has adopted a mixed methods approach as it seems suitable for the issues at hand.

It should be noted that mixed methods also provides the opportunity to draw on more than one type of theoretical framework (Greene, 2007). While this may create tension for certain researchers, it presents an opportunity to gather new knowledge (Morgan, 2007). However, as the format of the doctorate is by publication, and includes four peer reviewed articles, not every publication includes quantitative and qualitative data collection (the methods particular to each publication are described in the relevant articles). Yet the overall study integrates both the quantitative and qualitative datasets to draw findings related to the research question.

The research makes use of case studies from the South African Government (state), non-profit organisations (civil society) and tertiary institutions (academic sector). Yin (1984: 23) describes the case study approach “as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used.”

A case study allows the researcher to “uncover the interaction of significant factors characteristic of the phenomenon” (Merriam, 1998: 29). It is thus often used to study complex phenomena, which need to account for a range of conditions and processes. The use of sport for social change is itself a complex social phenomenon, as it entails the use of a methodology (sport) to drive outcomes in other fields (e.g. health or education).

As with any research method, there are advantages and disadvantages. Case studies may provide data that is more grounded and holistic, with a range of complex, and even diverging, viewpoints that may strengthen the research. However, case studies may be prone to oversimplify situations and form broad generalisations based on specific criteria (Guba & Lincoln, 1981: 377). Certain steps were taken to mitigate such risks, as described below.

The work of Yin (2003) has been used to guide the selection, analysis and trustworthiness of the case studies. The researcher has endeavoured to ensure that all the case studies selected are trustworthy and comply with the criteria of credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Guba & Lincoln, 1981). To foster credibility, efforts were made to ensure that research is an accurate reflection of participants' real experiences. While the studies are limited, it is anticipated that the findings are relevant for the broader SDP and development field while the study procedures are able to be replicated, thus improving transferability. The researcher was able to respond to changes in the context and design of the research and was able to sustain an extended period of research engagement, thereby contributing to dependability. Finally confirmability was assured by having independent researchers and fellow staff members (at organisations where the researcher was based) verify findings.

Each case study corresponds to a different research objective related to the role of that sector in SDP (except the civil society section which includes two case studies). As such the study population, sampling and data collection methods are particular to each objective but the constant unit of analysis remains SDP efforts of specified cases in the various sectors.

3.2 Research setting

This doctoral study has been conducted in South Africa, predominantly in the Western Cape and Gauteng provinces. Various role players in the SDP sector including government, NPOs, universities and key experts are included. A brief overview of role players is provided below.

3.2.1 Public Sector Case Study

From a government perspective, the Western Cape Department of Cultural Affairs and Sport (DCAS) will be used as a case study. The study will focus on its Mass participation, Opportunity and access, Development and growth (MOD) Programme, a flagship initiative of the department and the provincial government that has attracted national and international

attention. The research will seek to determine whether such a programme, as managed and delivered by the state, is effective in reaching its outcomes. The research will adopt a cooperative governance lens by further analyzing, with input from experts and policy makers, whether the state is best suited to manage and deliver such initiatives. This analysis will need to recognize the current, and possible, role(s) of other stakeholders in the SDP field.

3.2.2 Civil Society Case Studies

From a non-profit organisation perspective, GRS has been included, a leading NGO in the field of sport for development. Grassroot Soccer describes itself as “an adolescent health organization that leverages the power of soccer to educate, inspire, and mobilize at-risk youth in developing countries to overcome their greatest health challenges, live healthier, more productive lives, and be agents for change in their communities.” (Grassroot Soccer, 2015). GRS delivers programmes directly in three core countries, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe. However, the organisation has broadened its sphere of influence by training and capacitating other organisations to deliver its evidence-based programmes. As a result, GRS has managed to reach over 2 million youth in over 50 countries since 2002. This study focuses on the work of GRS in South Africa.

The Extra Mural Education Project (EMEP) is the other case study selected in this sector. EMEP is a smaller organisation founded in 1997 and acts as an intermediary between schools and government, facilitating the provision of extra-mural activities to disadvantaged schools. Its goal is “to help South African schools develop into hubs of lifelong learning, recreation and support, for both their school-going and surrounding communities.” (EMEP: 2015). EMEP operates in the Western Cape, having partnered with the Department of Education (WCED) in the Province.

3.2.3 Academic Sector Case Studies

From the academic sector, six institutions have been selected as shown below. Five of these universities are ranked in the top seven South African universities (Webometrics, 2016). Each institution may not focus primarily on SDP but there are elements of SDP in their work.

Table 1: Overview of Universities Selected as Case Studies

University	Status/History	Focus Area in Sport
University of the Western Cape	Founded in 1960 as a constituent college, gained university status in 1970.	Has an Interdisciplinary Centre dedicated exclusively to sport and development across Africa and has conducted much research in sport, development and peace. Provides teaching and learning in Sport and Development and Peace (ICESSD) including an international Diploma. Department of Sport and Exercise Science (SRES) provides sport science, management and other study areas.
University of Cape Town	Founded in 1829, ranked Africa's leading teaching and research institution	Has a centre dedicated to Sport Science, Nutrition and High Performance (SISSA). Teaching of Sport Management in a post graduate diploma under Commerce Faculty.
University of Stellenbosch	Founded as an Afrikaans language university	Has a centre dedicated to Sport Science and a research journal in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation
University of Witwatersrand	A multi-campus public research university situated in central Johannesburg	Operates a FIFA accredited Centre for Exercise Science and Sports Medicine
Cape Peninsula University of Technology	University of technology with over 32,000 students.	Offers a range of Diplomas, Degrees and Masters related to Sport Management and Marketing.
University of Johannesburg	Boasts four campuses and about 48,000 students, following a recent merger.	Has an Olympic Studies Centre and has conducted much research in sport and development issues. Will offer an international Master's in Sport for Development, in coordination with

		other global universities.
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3.3 Positionality

Positionality is used to refer to “the position that the researcher has chosen to adopt within a given research study” (Savin-Baden & Howell Major: 2013: 71). It is useful to clarify the position of the researcher in this study as all research is influenced by its context, including that of a researcher. The researcher has been a doctorate candidate at UWC since 2014 but has continued to work as a practitioner in the SDP field. He has worked at two of the institutions used as case studies in this doctoral thesis, namely the Western Cape Department of Cultural Affairs and Sport (DCAS) and Grassroot Soccer South Africa (GRS).

The researcher was employed by DCAS from December 2011 – July 2013 within the directorate of Sport Development. He was employed as a Research and Policy Development Officer and was tasked to coordinate research and policy development activities within the Directorate of Sport Development for the provincial government of the Western Cape. This Directorate founded the MOD Programme in the province, and as such a major part of the researcher’s work was developing, and operationalizing, a Monitoring and Evaluation strategy for the MOD Programme. As such the candidate was able to conduct extensive field research for the better part of two years, which provided him with the opportunity to visit over 100 MOD Centres. Findings from this fieldwork were then compiled into reports for senior management at DCAS, and have helped to inform the peer reviewed article published on the role of the public sector in SDP.

At Grassroot Soccer South Africa, the researcher has been employed since October 2013 until the present day. He currently oversees all programmes and monitoring and evaluation for the organisation. Again this has provided the researcher with access to a wealth of information over the last four years. It must be noted, however, that the article published in Sport,

Education and Society (Sanders, B., Phillips, J. & Vanreusel, B., (2014). Opportunities and challenges facing NGOs using sport as a vehicle for development in post-apartheid South Africa. *Sport, Education and Society*, 19(6), 789-805) is based on research conducted by the researcher prior to joining GRS. Research for the second article on the role of civil society, which involves a Social Return on Investment study of a GRS programme, was conducted while the researcher was employed at the organisation.

In terms of the article on the academic sector, the researcher was not employed by any of the universities that form part of the study at the time of the research. However, the researcher is undertaking his doctorate at UWC and this was one of the institutions selected as part of the study. However, the researcher ensured he included other universities equally in the study.

It is important to reflect on this positionality as it affects the research process. As Sultana (2007: 380) says: “It is critical to pay attention to positionality, reflexivity, the production of knowledge and the power relations that are inherent in research processes in order to undertake ethical research...” While being employed by an organisation does present challenges relating to ‘objectivity’ of research, it is important to remember that no work is truly objective as “...there is no way we can escape the social world to study it”(Hammersley & Atkinson. 1995: 17). Finaly and Gough (2003) argue that subjectivity, if applied correctly and recognized as such, may be able to strengthen the research process. Reflexivity, a process of critical self-examination, is important here and has long been acknowledged in qualitative research. Researchers need to understand that all research is located in a certain context and that findings are constructed in certain ways, depending on context and process of research.

In this study, the researcher needed to be aware of his complex and multi-faceted identity during the study. This included filling roles as an insider versus outsider, manager versus researcher and active participant versus passive observer. However, it must be noted that

great benefits accrued from the researcher being employed by DCAS and GRS, which would likely otherwise have been denied. Being employed resulted in a depth of engagement and understanding which is very difficult, likely impossible, for an external evaluator. This is mentioned as the researcher has experience at both DCAS and GRS of managing external evaluations, and the learning curve is always very steep. Being embedded in these organisations, understanding their day to day work, the intricacies and complexities of the programmes, the nature of the M&E system and data collection processes, allowed the researcher to delve deeper into outcomes-based research and evaluation, that takes into account the complex nature of their work.

Furthermore, being employed by these organisations greatly increased access to information. The researcher had access to a wide range of internal documents and data which would not be readily available externally. He had sustained, and repeated, access to staff members, including coaches, officials and senior management, and beneficiaries of the programmes (e.g. youth participants) as well as other stakeholders (e.g. school staff; community leaders etc.). The duration of engagement was comprehensive and over a considerable period of time and this contributed to the depth of the research. From an ethical viewpoint, the researcher ensured all ethical standards were adhered to throughout the process, and independent researchers, as well as the candidate's doctoral supervisors, were regularly consulted for their views and input. Further, the researcher confirmed research findings (and their relevance) with fellow staff members, helping to increase trustworthiness of data.

3.4 Data collection methods

The study population, sampling and data collection methods are described for each objective. Certain qualitative methods were used across objectives, while quantitative methods were used in set research areas. The methods depend on the objective and corresponding article.

3.4.1 Objective 1: To examine the history and impact of sport for development and peace as an emerging field by conducting a historical review of SDP in the 20th and 21st century.

To answer this objective a scoping review of the current literature in the SDP field, with particular reference to evaluations of SDP governance, programmes and policies, was conducted. Much of this content has been included in the literature review and used to frame the study.

This review included both published and unpublished studies that evaluate SDP efforts, with particular reference to South Africa. Studies reported one or more key SDP outcome.

Keywords included sport, recreation, development, peace, governance, programmes and policies. The electronic resources included databases such as EbscoHOST (CINAHL, MEDLINE, PsycARTICLES, ERIC, Academic Search Premier, Health Source: Nursing / Academic Edition, MasterFILE Premier and SocINDEX), Science Direct, SpringerLink, Wiley Interscience, Pubmed and Scopus. Furthermore, manual searches of reference lists were included and articles referred to by experts in the field, including representatives from government, civil society and academia. Clear inclusion and exclusion criteria were set for articles eligible in this review, ensuring that studies are relevant to SDP, and have their primary focus on the governance of SDP work, including specific studies related to the public sector, civil society and academic sector.

In addition to this scoping review, it is also worth noting that the candidate published an editorial in the open access *Journal of Sport for Development*. This journal is not on the university's accredited list (and as such this cannot be counted as one of the publications) but it has been widely recognised as an expert source of knowledge related to sport and development. The editorial is titled: An Own Goal in Sport for Development. Time to Change

the Playing Field. The candidate was the single author on this editorial which was well received in the SDP field. Furthermore, the candidate presented this editorial at the International Sociology of Sport Association (ISSA) Conference in Budapest in June 2016.

3.4.2. Objective 2: The role of the public sector in sport for development and peace

The study population, sampling and data collection methods are described in detail in the corresponding publications section where a peer reviewed journal article is reproduced. The article debates the role of the public sector in the SDP field, as per this objective.

Article Title: Going to Scale? A Critique of the Role of the Public Sector in Sport for Development and Peace in South Africa

Publication: African Journal for Physical Activity and Health Sciences (AJPHEs)

In addition to this article, the candidate has published a case on the MOD Programme in *The Case for Sport in the Western Cape: Socio-Economic Benefits and Impacts of Sport and Recreation*. The Case for Sport was commissioned by DCAS and conducted by UWC. The case published by the candidate is titled: Case Study of the MOD Programme in the Western Cape. The candidate co-authored this case with a representative from DCAS and a professor from UWC.

3.4.3 Objective 3: The role of civil society in sport for development and peace

The study population, sampling and data collection methods are described in detail in the corresponding publications section where two peer reviewed journal articles are reproduced. The articles debate the role of civil society in the SDP field, as per the stated objective.

Article Title: Opportunities and challenges facing NGOs using sport as a vehicle for development in post-apartheid South Africa

Publication: Sport, Education and Society

Article Title: Changing The Game - Can A Sport-Based Youth Development Programme Generate A Positive Social Return On Investment?

Publication: Commonwealth Youth and Development

In addition to this, the candidate has co-authored a book chapter titled Sport, HIV/AIDS Prevention and Adolescent Health which will be included in a Routledge Handbook on *Sport for Development and Peace*. The handbook is edited by Professor Richard Giulianotti, Dr Simon Darnell, Dr David Howe and Dr Holly Collison and is due to be released in 2018.

3.4.4. Objective 4: The role of the academic sector in sport for development and peace

The study population, sampling and data collection methods are described in detail in the corresponding publications section where a peer reviewed journal article is reproduced. The article debates the role of the academic sector in the SDP field, as per the stated objective.

Article Title: How Should Universities Play the Game? A Critical Examination of the Role of the Academic Sector in Sport for Development and Peace in South Africa

Publication: South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation

In addition, the candidate has contributed to a peer reviewed book chapter titled A Winning Team: Scholar-Practitioner Partnerships in Sport for Development. This forms part of an upcoming book by Information Age Publishing entitled *Envisioning Scholar-Practitioner Collaborations: Communities of Practice in Education and Sport*. The book presents a collection of case studies of collaborations between scholars and practitioners dedicated to both the generation of new knowledge and innovative best practices at the nexus of education and sport. This inaugural text in a series sponsored by the Research Focus on Education and Sport Special Interest Group of the American Educational Research Association seeks to reveal a number of educational spaces in which this critical work takes place. The candidate is a co-author in the book chapter, alongside practitioners and academics in the SDP sector.

3.4.5 Objective 5: To determine optimal cooperative governance in sport for development and peace

This objective involves combining the empirical research findings and broader literature review to determine the optimal roles and responsibilities for the public sector, civil society and academic sector in SDP. As such it does not involve any direct data collection or corresponding publication, but rather involves synthesising all the information presented in each of the articles to draw common themes. Furthermore, the study seeks to provide a logical framework for the cooperative governance of SDP in South Africa, with tangible recommendations and a conclusion that will be relevant both locally and globally.

3.5 Ethics considerations

Permission and ethics clearance was obtained from the Senate Research Committee at the University of the Western Cape. Further permission was sought from the organisations involved in the research. The study was conducted according to ethics practices pertaining to the study of human subjects and the following guidelines were followed. The purpose of the study was clearly explained by the researcher to the participants and relevant authorities (Information sheet attached as Appendix A). Signed, written informed consent was sought from, and provided by, all participants (Consent form attached as Appendix B). Participation in the study was voluntary. The participants were informed of their rights to withdraw from the study at any time without any consequences. Participants were treated with respect and dignity. Information obtained from participants was used for the study only and has been handled with confidentiality. Participants' identities have not been revealed.

All data has been stored in a locked and secure place. An online database was used to aggregate and temporarily store quantitative and qualitative data, including surveys, interviews and FGDs. This database only captured study IDs and was kept separate from the participant database. The

database was password-protected with restricted access. Copies of the surveys were exported into password-protected MS Excel files, merged, and prepared for analysis using software.

Information obtained from the interviews was handled with confidentiality. All audio recordings were destroyed once they had been transcribed and documented according to themes. All information will be kept for a minimum of five years where after it will be destroyed. No known perceived risks were expected in the study, nor did any individuals appear affected by the study. The findings of the study are available to all stakeholders and publicly available so as to inform best policy and practice.



4. ROLE OF PUBLIC SECTOR IN SPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT AND PEACE

This marks the beginning of the Publications Section of the study, which contains the published (or accepted) peer reviewed journal articles as outlined in the introductory chapter. This chapter explores the role of the public sector in sport for development and peace with an academic article that is based on empirical research with DCAS. The research will seek to determine whether such a programme, as managed and delivered by the state, is effective in reaching its outcomes. The research will adopt a cooperative governance lens by further analysing whether the state is best suited to manage and deliver such initiatives. This analysis will need to recognize the current, and possible, role(s) of other actors in the SDP field.

The next section of this chapter has been published as:

Sanders, B., De Coning, C. & Keim, M. (2017). Going to Scale? A critique of the role of the public sector in sport for development and peace in South Africa. *African Journal for Physical Activity and Health Sciences*, 23(4), xx-xx.

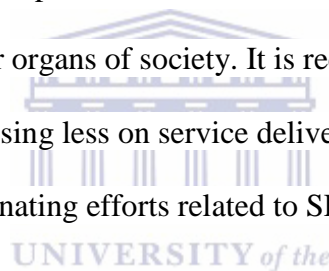
Ben Sanders was the main contributing author to the journal article and also served as the corresponding author, dealing with all correspondence with the *African Journal for Physical Activity and Health Sciences*. He conceptualised the study, collected and analysed the data, synthesised the research findings, consulted the broader literature on SDP and governance and was responsible for drafting the article from conception to the final accepted version.

Professor Christo de Coning provided technical assistance, particularly around governance and public management paradigms, referred to the student to relevant literature and reviewed the drafts. Professor Marion Keim contributed expert insights and both Professors critically reviewed drafts of the paper and provided final approval of the version to be published.

4.1 A critique of the role of the public sector in sport for development and peace in South Africa

Abstract

The Sport for Development and Peace (SDP) field has grown rapidly but still faces certain theoretical and practical limitations. This study analyses the role of the public sector in SDP, examining how it can best work with other stakeholders and partners to ensure sport is optimised as a vehicle for social change. The study examines public sector engagement in SDP in South Africa, using a parallel mixed methods approach, including key informant interviews, surveys, document analysis and observation. Findings show that state led SDP initiatives can achieve results but improved outcomes are more likely if partnerships exist within government and with other organs of society. It is recommended the state plays a strategic and regulatory role, focusing less on service delivery while providing greater leadership and direction in coordinating efforts related to SDP. Teamwork is vital.

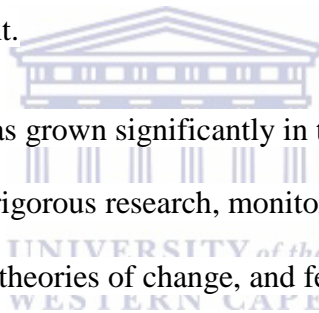


Keywords: Sport; Governance; State; Civil Society; Development; Intersectoral

Introduction

Post-apartheid South Africa manifests poor social indicators and faces a triple burden of poverty, inequality and unemployment. Over 35% of the population live below the poverty line, with approximately 19.2% of adults infected with HIV/AIDS (CIA, 2017). It has been reported that 49.9% of youth aged 15-24 are unemployed with an overall unemployment rate of 25.0% (Statistics South Africa, 2015). South Africa is the world's most unequal country and boasts a Gini coefficient index that ranges from 0.66 to 0.70 (World Bank, 2016). While sport and physical activity cannot solve these problems alone, they may play a positive role (Keim, 2010: 2).

The start of the 21st century saw the incorporation of sport into the mainstream development sector. Sport was widely hailed as a means to achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), and has assumed a higher profile in the development and donor landscape. The United Nations (UN) declared April 6 the ‘International Day of Sport for Development and Peace’ while sport has been mentioned as a tool to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs): *“Sport is also an important enabler of sustainable development. We recognize the growing contribution of sport to the realization of development and peace in its promotion of tolerance and respect and the contributions it makes to the empowerment of women and of young people, individuals and communities as well as to health, education and social inclusion objectives”* (United Nations, 2015: 8). As such sport is now more likely to be viewed as a means of development.



However, while the SDP sector has grown significantly in the 21st century, its impact remains debatable, partly due to a lack of rigorous research, monitoring and evaluation (M&E), limited long-term results, unclear theories of change, and few strategies to tackle broader structural problems (Coakley, 2011; Giulianotti 2011; Richards et al. 2013). Certain SDP programmes do exhibit an ongoing gap between evidence and practice, often with idealistic notions of sport, referred to by Coakley (2014: p.6) as the ‘Great Sport Myth’. While developing individual capacity remains a focus of many SDP actors, there appears a lack of initiatives that challenge the structures and conditions that caused this ‘underdevelopment’ in the first place (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011).

Wide-ranging, almost universal claims made on behalf of the SDP movement, including by government actors who may use sport as a political tool, must therefore be treated with caution. While sport can have positive micro-impact on individuals this does not necessarily lead to greater outcomes in the community (meso) and society (macro). Many theorists including Darnell (2007), Coalter (2007), Giulianotti (2004) and Sugden (2010) contend that

the development of social capital or local co-operation cannot nullify greater macro issues, such as a lack of resources, political support and socio-economic realities. Coalter (2010: 1) claims a major weakness of SDP actors is that they are “*seeking to solve broad gauge problems via limited focus interventions*”. While this is a common critique, it is worth noting the work of Schelling (2006) who identifies a tipping point at which micro motives may influence macro behaviour. A recognition of the collective power of micro actions and their possible effect may be relevant in SDP.

The Role of the State in Sport for Development and Peace

It is widely acknowledged the state has a major, if not leading, role to play in development, especially in developing countries (Chang, 2003; Huber & Stephens, 2001). Neo-liberal critics and modernists propose a limited coordinating role for government (Graaff & Le Roux, 2001: 55). Social democrats and leftists on the other hand emphasise the importance of an interventionist and regulatory government (Piketty, 2014). The concept of a ‘developmental state’ has been raised in South Africa (Cloete et al., 2015) where the state allows the private sector a certain amount of freedom to flourish but retains the right to lead, intervene and even regulate development where necessary (Moleketi, 2003).

Harvard scholars Grindle and Thomas (1991) have distinguished between a state-centred and society-centred approach to governance. In a *state-centred approach*, the nature and role of the state is predominant while in a *society-centred approach*, the nature and role of civil society is predominant (Cloete & De Coning, 2011: 66-70). Many scholars (FitzGerald, 1995; McLennan & FitzGerald, 1992; Meyer, 2000; Monteiro, 2003) have noted different and emerging public sector management approaches which have implications both globally and locally (De Coning & Rabie, 2015). There are clearly a range of approaches to governance.

With regard to SDP, limited attention has been paid to governance in the sector, even though this is crucial to achieving development outcomes. Many states have grand visions for sport and development yet the degree of commitment to SDP differs considerably among governments (Keim & De Coning, 2014), including those in the developing world that host most of the globe's SDP work. There is limited explicit evidence of state-led SDP work, and programming is often delivered by non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and other organs of civil society (Richards & Foster, 2014). However, with increasing recognition of the role of sport in development, including the SDGs, this may soon change.

The South African Government and Sport for Development and Peace

Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA), in consultation with stakeholders including civil society and academia, has developed a National Sport and Recreation Plan (NSRP) based on three pillars: (1) active nation; (2) winning nation and (3) enabling environment (SRSA, 2012). This plan itself reflects a commitment to SDP, whether intentional or not. Objective one 'an active nation' is centred on mass participation or 'sport for all', a central tenet of the SDP movement. While objective two is more focused on high performance, it recognises that a 'winning nation' is only possible with mass participation. There is clearly overlap between the development of sport and sport for development, though they boast different goals. The last objective an 'enabling environment' is central to the state's role, with the NSRP (SRSA 2012: 34) identifying 14 strategic objectives required to enable an active, winning nation.

In terms of governance, the NSRP (2012: 64) states that, "*there should be only two macro drivers of sport and recreation in the country, namely Government (all 3 spheres) and one NGO (SASCOC).*" The NSRP sees the state as responsible for policy, legislation and infrastructure; creating an enabling environment for all South Africans to participate in sport and recreation; and promoting and developing the sports economy and industry in all its

facets. SASCO is responsible for leading civil society in “translating policy into action”; and acting as an umbrella body for the sport sector.

The state has a vital role to play in SDP but little research has examined the optimal role for the state within developing countries such as South Africa. This study investigates the state’s role in South Africa by evaluating the effectiveness and feasibility of a state-led SDP programme and soliciting broader input from key experts on the role for the state. The study seeks to identify key recommendations for the role of the state in supporting SDP policies, plans and programmes.

Programmatic outcomes (if any) provide an indication of whether the state can effectively deliver SDP. The study further explores what mechanisms are best suited to scale SDP initiatives. As SDP has been implemented in many developing countries such as South Africa, and tends to be driven by civil society with limited mainstreaming, a review of the institutional arrangements is overdue. A cooperative or interactive governance approach may help provide clarity on the optimal role of the state in relation to other actors.

Methodology

This study utilises a parallel mixed methods approach, characterized by the collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell et al., 2003). The research uses surveys, in-depth interviews, direct observation and existing data and document review. With this type of design the qualitative and quantitative strands are planned and implemented to answer related aspects of the same overarching research question (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2011).

Research setting

The study was conducted in South Africa and focuses on the role of the public sector in SDP with an evaluation of the Mass participation, Opportunity and access, Development and growth (MOD) Programme started by the Western Cape Department of Cultural Affairs and Sport (DCAS). The MOD Programme was initiated in 2010 as a structured, after-school programme, to provide sport and recreation opportunities for at-risk youth in disadvantaged communities (Sanders, 2012; Sanders et al., 2013; De Coning, 2014; Christiaans, 2014). The MOD Programme expanded significantly since 2010 and as of 2016 there are 181 MOD Centres, located in all eight Western Cape Education Department (WCED) districts. The programme study was complimented with a situational analysis of the SDP landscape in South Africa, including a review of policy and legislation, including the NSRP, and consultation with key experts in SDP and governance.



Study population and sample

The study population included schools, communities and persons involved in the MOD Programme, including participating learners, implementing coaches and school officials. The researcher used a purposive sampling strategy with different approaches for the urban and rural areas, due to resource constraints. In the Cape Metropole all primary and secondary school MOD Centres were surveyed (n = 80). A randomised approach was used to identify MOD Centres located in the four rural districts of the Western Cape (n = 16). The randomised approach involved selecting four MOD centres per rural district (2 PS, 1 HS, 1 Farm/Community Centre), though only 13 of the 16 centres were available for scheduled visits. Two coaches, one principal, two learner participants (one male and one female) at each school answered quantitative surveys. They were selected based on availability and their participation within the MOD programme. The total sample included 465 participants. The sample is biased towards the urban setting, and contains a greater number of primary schools,

as this is indicative of the ratio of primary and secondary schools across the province. In addition, five participants at eight schools were selected for qualitative research (n=40). Participants and schools were purposively selected. Two high schools and two primary schools in urban (n=4) and rural areas (n=4) were randomly selected. Interviewees included two learners, two coaches and an educator, based on their involvement in the programme.

Table 2: MOD centres surveyed as part of the study

PRIMARY SCHOOLS SURVEYED	SECONDARY SCHOOLS SURVEYED
METRO SOUTH - 15 schools	METRO SOUTH - 7 schools
METRO NORTH - 14 schools	METRO NORTH - 8 schools
METRO EAST - 12 schools	METRO EAST - 7 schools
METRO CENTRAL - 11 schools	METRO CENTRAL - 6 schools
EDEN & KAROO - 1 school	EDEN & KAROO - 1 school
OVERBERG - 2 schools	OVERBERG - 1 school
WINELANDS - 2 schools	WINELANDS - 1 school
WEST COAST - 1 school	WEST COAST - 0 schools
Total Primary Schools In Survey: 58	Total High Schools In Survey: 31
TOTAL NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN SURVEY: 89 SCHOOLS	

4 Farm/Community Centres were surveyed bringing the total of MOD Centres to 93

The study population also included key informants in provincial and national government (n=5), including those involved with the MOD Programme. Key SDP experts in South Africa (n=5) were identified based on their understanding of the SDP sector globally and nationally, their research outputs and academic profile, as well as their knowledge of the South African government and policy frameworks relating to sport and development. In-depth individual interviews (n=10) were conducted with all the key informants and experts.

Data collection methods

Marshal and Rossman (1995) argue that the review of documents is an unobtrusive method rich in portraying the values and beliefs of participants in a setting as the researcher gathers

and analyses documents produced during every day events. A comprehensive document and online review was conducted of the state of SDP globally and in South Africa, including reviewing the evidence base of the MOD Programme. This included reviewing letters, meeting minutes, evaluations and reports. Site visits were made to schools and communities to witness the MOD Programme first hand, including various direct observation sessions.

Quantitative data was collected through attendance registers and survey questionnaires in paper-pen format. Participants were given the space to provide additional information on challenges, successes and opportunities within the questionnaire. The questionnaire was developed internally by the implementing department (DCAS) and validated against identified outcomes of the programme by the Knowledge and Information Management Unit.

Data was analysed manually though Excel to articulate outcomes (if any) and observations related to the MOD Programme. Any outcomes were explored further in qualitative work.

Qualitative data collection involved in-depth individual interviews conducted in person or where necessary telephonically. Open-ended questions with a purpose rather than formal events with predetermined responses (Marshal & Rossman, 1994) were used to investigate specific outcomes, based on the approach of Taplin, et al. (2013). An interview guide was designed to complement the survey questionnaire and validated internally by DCAS.

Qualitative data was analysed using Creswell's procedures (Creswell et al., 2007), making sure to note pre-determined and emerging research themes.

Trustworthiness of qualitative data is measured by credibility, which is determined by the match between constructed realities of the participants and the reality presented by the researcher (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Several steps were used to build credibility, including prolonged engagement and persistent observation as well as member checks (all transcribed data was given back to participants to comment on the accuracy of the recordings).

Furthermore, all responses were transcribed verbatim. After the deviation of themes, an independent researcher was asked to read through the transcripts and generate themes thus increasing the credibility (validity) and dependability (reliability) of the categorizing. Lists of the researcher and independent researcher were compared for rigor and accuracy.

Results

The research raises crucial questions regarding the role of the public sector in SDP. These include whether the state should direct or deliver SDP, whether SDP can be effectively delivered at scale and if so how, the challenges surrounding partnerships, and the importance of M&E in SDP. Certain findings are programmatic in nature but they generate greater debate about the appropriate institutional arrangements for SDP initiatives to function most effectively.

Outcomes at the Programme Level



The achievements of the programme are impressive since inception in 2010. A document review shows that 181 MOD centres have been established in underprivileged communities and over 30,000 learners partake in activities regularly (Sanders et al., 2013). Quantitative data demonstrated positive reflections from principals regarding benefits from the programme that extended beyond the playing field, as reflected in Figure 1 below.

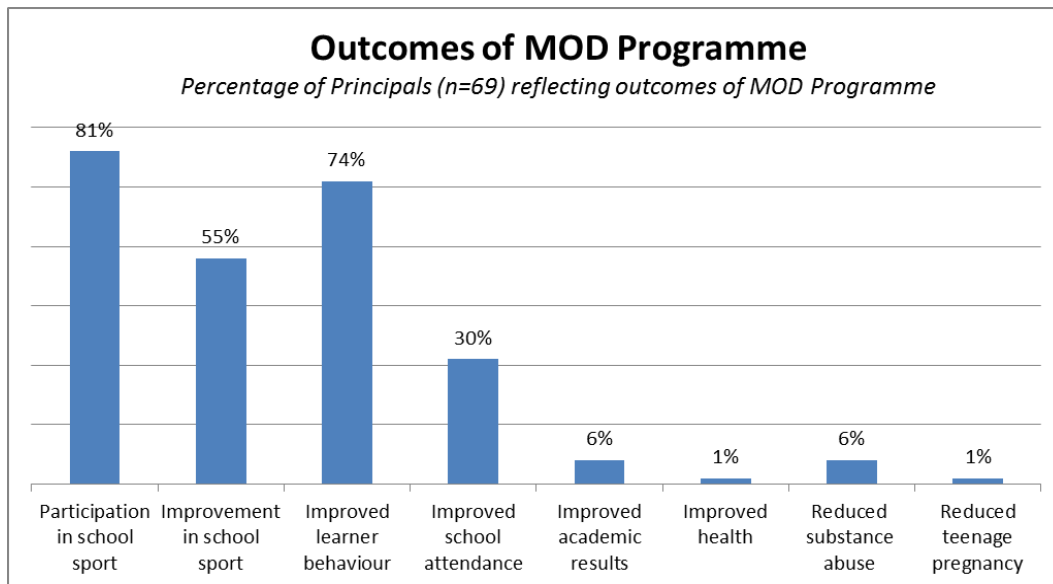


Figure 1: Outcomes of MOD Programme

These positive reflections were further validated in interviews with principals and a study from the University of Vanderbilt (USA) which found that ‘learners and teachers (and coaches) believe that extra murals are increasing learners’ attendance and interest in school in addition to providing a safe and productive space for youth.’ (Craven et al., 2012: 42).

Reflecting on the MOD Programme, a school principal stated as follows: *"Now the learners are interested in being in class, they are interested in being successful. More learners are moving onto the next grade, not staying in the same grade for two or three years."*

There is no doubt that many learners are afforded a chance to play and be active when there were no previous opportunities available. Many participants emphasised their enjoyment of the programme. This was obvious both through direct observation and participant interviews:

Recounting his experience, one learner stated as follows: *"It's fun. It keeps us off the streets...It keeps you fit. It keeps you healthy"*

Positive outcomes were also observed on youth leadership and employability. Document review and analysis revealed that over 450 community members (Coaches) are employed in

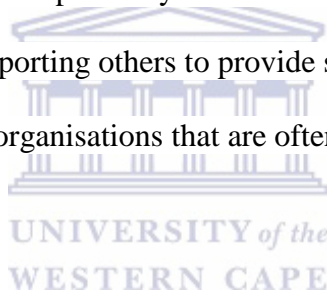
the programme, contributing to job creation and economic development. Coaches receive an income and are capacitated through skills development and training, increasing employability. One of the coaches stated as follows:

Reflecting on the reason for joining the programme, a Coach stated as follows: *“I joined the MOD Centre cos school sport was dying... And I felt that if I could give sport back to the kids and the community so they could have the same memories as me.”*

The Role of the State and Partnerships

However, while the programmatic outcomes are impressive there has been little analysis of whether it remains most effective or efficient for the state to deliver such a programme.

Certain critics feel the state should be primarily concerned with policy, planning, funding and regulatory frameworks, while supporting others to provide services directly, including community based and non-profit organisations that are often more responsive and flexible to community needs.



As a leading SDP academic stated: *“If government goes and delivers, then who is thinking strategically and evaluating? Government should not always be implementing but rather making sure it gets implemented.”*

It is acknowledged that sport is important for the state in terms of international relations and development cooperation. In addition to work with multilateral agencies, the South African government has played a role in investing in, and promoting, SDP in other African countries. Furthermore, SDP is not a stand-alone theme within sport in South Africa and the state prioritises SDP alongside its other sporting commitments, including high performance sport.

Scale and effectiveness

While civil society may be more responsive to community needs, it is clear that most civil society actors are not able to operate with the same scope or at the same scale as the state. Therefore, it may be argued that only government can coordinate efforts in SDP (and more broadly development) on behalf of the entire country (Singh, 2016). As an official from the Western Cape Government stated: *“These NGOs – they only work in one area. We have to serve all the districts of the province.”*

It can be argued that in a developmental state where needs are great and resources limited that the government can not only coordinate but does at times need to intervene directly to ensure equitable development, whether in SDP or other areas. Singh (2016) makes the case that one cannot take a single provider approach to SDP in a developmental state such as South Africa, stating as follows: *“We realise that there is not sufficient information, research or programmes (in SDP). We need to come to the party and while it may not directly be our mandate to roll out programmes, we feel we have a responsibility to do, otherwise the pace of change will be slow.”*

The danger of delivering huge initiatives at such scale is application of centralised policies and plans which do not necessarily reflect community needs. Gang troubled communities may require the use of sport for conflict resolution, while those with a significant burden of disease may require the use of sport for improving public health. Of course, these issues are interrelated and sport can drive to multiple outcomes but it is equally important to ensure a focused and targeted approach to SDP, in which different sectors play to their strengths. It is clear that government is well placed to coordinate SDP efforts across the land, but the nature of this coordination, and the relationship with civil society and other actors is crucial.

The Development of Sport or Development through Sport?

As the NSRP articulates the role of SASCOC as driving sport and recreation on behalf of civil society, there is an inherent danger that SASCOC may not be able to represent the multiple and varied stakeholders in the sport sector beyond federations, including NGOs, the academic sector, faith-based organisations, student organisations, political parties and more. Furthermore, SASCOC has primarily focused on the output of sporting federations, especially national teams, meaning it has a skewed focus on elite sport. The NSRP acknowledges that the scope of SASCOC needs to change while SASCOC has recently indicated it will provide greater support for training and education (Hendricks, 2017).

Reflecting on the need to ensure sport for all, a government official stated as follows: *“Less than 5% of the population take part in elite sport. We need to work for outcomes among the majority. It makes sense for sport for development and it makes market sense for elite sport.”*

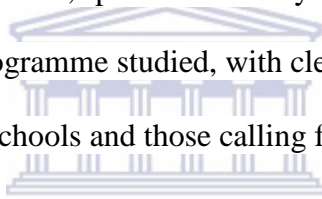


The focus on the development of sport may undermine the way in which sport can be utilised by other actors. Unfortunately, sport is often only taken seriously when the sport itself is serious (i.e. elite and competitive). However, were Departments of Sport and other actors to envisage, and invest in, a broader role for sport and engage others more deliberately on the ways sport can contribute to outcomes beyond the playing field, it could be that sport, and specifically SDP, is mainstreamed as a tool for social change. On the contrary, mainstreaming of sport plans, policies and programmes that focus disproportionately on the development of sport may ironically and unintentionally work against the mainstreaming of SDP. As a government official stated: *“Most federations spend the bulk of their resources on performance sport. They need to wake up to the fact that they serve a wider population”*

It seems obvious that, while elite sport serves only an elite few, mass participation serves the majority and that broadening the participation base is only likely to improve elite sport. This is increased justification for prioritising resources to mass participation, including SDP.

Intersectoral Collaboration

Intersectoral collaboration presents both challenges and opportunities. In the programme evaluated, the lead department does engage with other state departments and stakeholders. A vital role player in this regard is the National Department of Basic Education (DBE) as all public schools fall under their jurisdiction. Schools remain the main societal institution for young people and the majority of first, and continued, sporting experiences take place in the school system (SRSA, 2009). However, sport is not always a major priority for education officials. This is evident in the programme studied, with clear tensions between those promoting sport opportunities at schools and those calling for a focus on academics.



Document analysis showed considerable interaction between state departments regarding the MOD Programme. Despite this, there is still a tendency for departments to be territorial and protect vested interests, both within and between departments. Furthermore, there has been limited interaction with civil society actors, outside of the sport federations who have been engaged to provide training and curriculum support. With SASCOC occupying a centralised role as the custodian of sport and acting as the representative of a diverse and complex network of civil society organisations, many interests and viewpoints may be excluded. There has been a deliberate attempt to involve more civil society actors but this occurred mainly after the MOD programme was established and had been operational for a number of years.

There does appear to exist a level of mistrust between government and civil society actors. As a Western Cape Government official stated: “*They (NGOs) are always just out for money. They don’t understand the work we are doing.*” On the other hand, the Director of a sport

based NGO bemoaned the difficulty of working with the state, stating as follows: “*We have tried really hard to engage with government. We sometimes have great high-level meetings, like with the deputy minister of the national sport department. And we are excited but then it goes nowhere.*”

Monitoring and Evaluation

A common problem with development programmes is that they meet output targets, rather than achieve development outcomes. Often, targets become more important than the actual impact itself, otherwise funding will cease. The MOD Programme is no exception. For example, the Annual Performance Plan Indicators speak to the number of Centres established, rather than what outcomes are achieved at these centres. There is limited emphasis on outcomes with mainly outputs collected and limited qualitative research. The focus on reporting rather than genuine evaluation results in a lack of understanding as to what works and what doesn't and how and why change (if any) occurs. This represents an area where many donor-driven civil society organisations have more experience in designing, developing and maintaining results-based M&E systems. As the Director of a sport based NGO stated:

“It is surprising that an NGO boasts an advanced M&E system while a provincial government department with a far larger budget struggles to collect even basic output data.”

Discussion

Despite ideological differences over the state's disposition, most would agree it has a vital role to play in SDP. As Bruce Kidd (2008: 378) stated: “*While there will always be a role for NGOs, governments must take the lead.*” But what does taking the lead entail? At a global level, certain critics (Keim & De Coning, 2014; Hayhurst, 2009) argue that while national governments have engaged with SDP, especially at a multilateral level, there is huge distinction and diversity within their frameworks for sport, for development, and SDP.

In South Africa it is clear that the government appreciates the importance of sport in the post-apartheid context. The state has developed a number of plans and policies, and passed various laws, that proclaim and uphold the values of sport. As stated in the NSRP (2012: 59): “*There is an increasing acknowledgement that sport and recreation has the potential to promote social inclusion, prevent conflict, and to enhance peace within and among nations.*”

SDP in a Developmental State

In a developing country such as South Africa the government often faces a thankless task. It needs to tackle the inequities of the past, while providing regulatory and policy frameworks. It needs to work with other partners and deliver directly where needed, with significantly less resources at its disposal than the more developed countries of the ‘North’. This does not excuse the state from a lack of service delivery or poor regulatory frameworks but the many competing tensions must be noted. Thus it is vital that the state identifies both strategic and delivery partners to help provide resources and deliver outcomes related to SDP.

The state has identified various ways in which sport can promote development and provide a means to supporting the priorities of government. This is important and illustrates the role sport can play in achieving outcomes beyond the sporting field. However, the budget of SRSA remains limited, while other departments with far larger budgets (such as Health and Education) have allocated little resources to sport and physical activity, despite the benefits they may bring. This remains an important area for sport officials – to make a case for sport beyond the playing field, one that distinguishes, and at times elevates, the use of sport for development over the development of sport. The state can provide greater funding for SDP, as can civil society and the private sector. Many SDP civil society actors in South Africa have been highly effective, but receive little state support.

Distorted Focus on Elite Sport

As referenced in the NSRP, there is clearly a tendency to see mega sporting events as a panacea for social problems, when much research illustrates that mega-events tend to exacerbate inequities in developing states (Vahid, 2011). It does not appear that the state has taken this into account, with the recent staging of the 2010 Soccer World Cup and other events. As Maralack (2012: 1) argues, post-apartheid sport strategies and policies have faced a tension between elite and community sport and between global and local realities, and that such conflicting imperatives have “*deepened inequalities in post-apartheid sport rather than mitigated them.*” Thus while the state appears to have developed sound policies and plans for sport in South Africa, it is a possibility that state actions may contradict their best intentions.

Most observers agree that while the NSRP and SRSA do exhibit a developmental focus, the recognition of sport as a tool for development is implicit rather than explicit (Burnett, 2016). It is assumed the development of sport will promote other forms of development, rather than a deliberate attempt to use sport intentionally to achieve social outcomes. While the majority of the SRSA budget is allocated to school sport, one must note that elite sport, infrastructure (e.g. stadiums) and mega-events draw on other sources of public funds. It is recommended that public sector funds provided for sport be spent predominantly on SDP efforts and that the business of sport is left to the private sector and other stakeholders, as the state has more pressing social priorities.

Limited Monitoring and Evaluation

A major issue with state led programmes is that outcomes based planning and monitoring is often limited (Christiaans, 2014). The call has been made for greater investment in both process and impact evaluations. External evaluations are important but may be costly, time consuming and infrequent, reinforcing the importance of regular results based monitoring. In

addition, it is important to ensure outcomes based research is accompanied by process based research as it is crucial to diagnose the how and why of whether initiatives were successful. Sport officials need to engage with academic institutions and other role players to conduct robust research that shows if (and how) sport can result in outcomes beyond the playing field.

Governance of Sport and Development

Cooperative governance is enshrined in the Constitution (1996) and policy. The government calls on every organ of the state “to promote, support and enhance the capacity of NPOs to perform their functions” (Swilling & Russell, 2002: 77). This is not always realised with divisions existing between the state and non-profit organisations (NPOs). Nonetheless, it is clear that NPOs and the state are interdependent and there is some desire on the part of both actors to work effectively together.



It is clear the state plays a vital governance role within SDP. It has the ability, and the mandate, to provide regulatory and policy frameworks, clearly articulate its intentions and support other actors in SDP to align their goals with the state. Other sectors are crucial and while they may be dependent on state orientation it is acknowledged that they too can influence the state. As Coalter (2010: 306) states: “*they (non-governmental actors) are not simple substitutes for the state, and can only really thrive to the extent that the state actively encourages them.*”

Of course, effective governance is crucial for the state to ensure SDP outcomes are met and there is a need for the state to understand the complex nature of development when supporting SDP. There are inherent ironies in many sport teams and products in South Africa being sponsored by alcohol and soft drink manufacturers when evidence clearly shows these work against ‘good health’ promoted by sport. If the state is to regulate, is it playing the right game?

Scaling SDP through Partners and Collaboration

The case presented herein does illustrate that government can organise SDP initiatives at scale. Access to a countrywide education system, municipal facilities and sport membership bases allow the state to extend its reach. However, such scale can come at the cost of fidelity and outcomes, as programmes may not be well implemented or closely monitored, and may not take into account contextual differences between sites. A balance needs to be maintained and it may be preferable for the state to identify organisations that are located and have a history in the communities they choose to work with, as they are likely to be more adaptable, effective and responsive. The state could then play a coordinating and regulatory role.

Findings demonstrate that not only is there mistrust between the state and civil society actors, but that often both parties are unaware of, and disinterested in, each other's actions. This corresponds to the broader literature showing that there is often conflict between civil society actors and state actors in different African contexts (Sanders et al., 2014; Lindsey 2016).

The political nature of government is crucial in this regard. While political will has been instrumental to the success, and resourcing, of the MOD Programme it is indeed a double-edged sword as a change in political will may have the opposite effect. As such it seems appropriate that the state is seeking to involve civil society more clearly in this initiative, as they may be less susceptible to political changes, though they may face a less certain funding environment. Sustainability is an important consideration and this is related to the political will of those in power, as well as the global landscape. While the state makes provision for long-term strategic plans, departments are not guaranteed multi-year programmes and budgets at the same level as the previous year. This makes it difficult to make long-term plans or measure long-term outcomes.

Despite this, experts such as Burnett (2016) feel that the state needs to own or lead SDP policies or programmes since other actors (especially international agencies and NGOs) may

‘come and go’ as donor trends and patterns change. A state led programme may contradict elements of the NSRP, which states that SASCOC should lead programmes, though it must be noted that the MOD Programme studied herein is delivered with the support of federations. Furthermore, it can be argued that the state has a role to play in initiating special programmes, which can be outsourced to partners at a later stage. In addition, a state led programme provides clear scope for other departments to lend their expertise to the initiative. Intersectoral collaboration may thus present great value. In this regard it is worth noting that this study focuses on the state and its relationship with civil society, though it is acknowledged the private sector has a key role to play in development, and specifically SDP, including the efforts of business and corporate social investment.

As the state and civil society both face various constraints, including access to resources, it appears that a partnership model seems most appropriate. In this regard, Lindsey and Chapman (2017: 25-26) have identified four differing approaches to collective implementation in the field of SDP. These have been characterised as state-centred implementation; complementary implementation; structured implementation in partnerships and autonomous implementation. While there is not sufficient space to explore these in detail, this study suggests a blended approach is likely necessary in a developmental state, with each sector playing to its strengths.

However, for partnerships to succeed there needs to be a review of institutional arrangements, including financial modelling (and the possibility of Public-Private Partnerships), the policy and planning landscape for sport, as well as M&E and performance management. While government can scale initiatives such as the MOD Programme to a certain extent, it will prove far more effective if formal arrangements, with a clear articulation of roles and responsibilities, are developed with federations, non-profit organisations, the academic sector and others. Possible recommendations involve the state managing such large-scale

programmes but contracting other organisations to deliver. Others may argue rather than the state holding civil society to account, that civil society should not fill the gaps in service delivery and needs to assume a watchdog role. However, civil society is diverse and can likely fulfil delivery, oversight and advocacy functions, if positioned and supported in the right manner. Partnerships not only increase the likelihood of (multiple) outcomes for SDP initiatives but also provide an opportunity to expand the current pool of resources and efforts.

Conclusion

The case study presented herein demonstrates the potential of the state to mainstream a SDP intervention. Very few civil society actors show similar capacity for scale and reach, though they may be more effective and efficient, responsive and flexible, and more adept at monitoring and evaluating their work. The state is well-positioned to drive legislation and policy, and improve regulation and oversight, while providing funding and support to civil society actors who can form partnerships with the government. While it is posited that the state directs more than delivers, it may retain the ability to pilot and deliver special projects.

It is suggested a society centred approach should be taken to SDP, while allowing the state to provide leadership and direction, manage and regulate, and intervene when needed as per the concept of a 'developmental state'. A common critique of SDP is that projects tend to produce micro results while claiming macro outcomes. A strong and visionary state can provide opportunities for a coalition of actors to implement policies, plans and programmes at scale, enhancing the potential of SDP to achieve real and lasting change. It will require teamwork.

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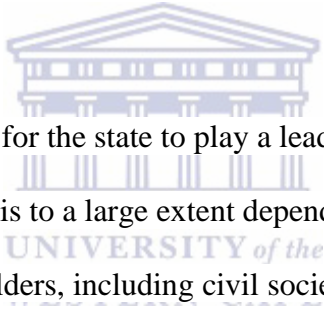
Appendix to Publication

All supporting documents for this journal article are attached in appendices as Appendix R.

The following research tools are attached in the appendices:

- In-depth interview guide for SDP Experts and Practitioners (Appendix C)
- In-depth interview guide for MOD Programme Participants (Appendix D)
- MOD Programme Participant Survey (Appendix E)
- MOD Programme Principal Survey (Appendix F)
- MOD Programme Coach Survey (Appendix G)

4.2 Conclusion



The article clearly makes the case for the state to play a leading role in SDP in South Africa, and globally. The role of the state is to a large extent dependent on the nature of the state and its relationship with other stakeholders, including civil society. Such a public management or governance paradigm may differ considerably based on the context of each nation state. In South Africa, the concept of cooperative governance and a developmental state are key factors, though they may hold relevance for other developing countries. In South Africa a society centred approach to SDP is recommended, with the state leading, regulating and providing oversight, intervening when needed, and forming strong partnerships with civil society, the academic sector and other stakeholders. Further, it is suggested such an approach can be applied more widely and that these concepts hold relevance globally within SDP.

5. ROLE OF CIVIL SOCIETY IN SPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT AND PEACE

This chapter will explore the role of civil society in sport for development and peace. This will include two academic articles that are based on empirical research with Grassroot Soccer South Africa (GRS) and Extra Mural Education Project (EMEP), two NPOs in South Africa.

5.1 Introduction to first article on civil society

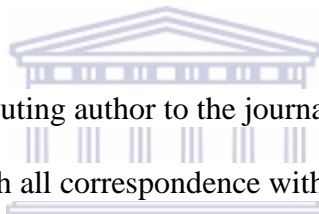
The first article explores the challenges and opportunities experienced by NGOs when delivering SDP initiatives in schools in post-apartheid South Africa. A key challenge and opportunity relates to governance and the dilemma of whether (and how) to partner with the state and other actors. Working within the contested and crowded space of the public school system also presents challenges and opportunities for NGOs and schools alike. Investigating the effectiveness of NPO-led initiatives prompts a consideration of whether NGOs should play a more prominent delivery role in SDP, as suggested in a society centred approach, while taking care to ensure they do not simply become implementing agents for the state.

The article has been well received academically and referenced by many others in the SDP field. It was in fact used by the National Sport Minister in his 2014-2015 budget speech in parliament as a way to guide future policy development around the role of NGOs in sport in South Africa. The Sport Minister was Mr Fikile Mbalula (2014) at the time and he stated: “Chairperson a Study undertaken by Ben Sanders in 2010 reflected that NGOs 'face a variety of conceptual, technical, logistical and organisational challenges using sport in schools.' More specifically the study identified the lack of support in particular from government for NGOs working with schools sports. Nevertheless, despite these challenges it is clear NGOs can support schools in South Africa to optimise their physical activity programmes in the backdrop of a stagnating education system and a lack of sporting support from the government. The observations in this study suggest that, particularly in the context of

education, a partnership policy model of NGO work is preferred. To this extent we have formulated new guidelines for recognition of recreation bodies which will be gazetted in the current financial year. These new framework will enable NGOs to be recognized as recreation bodies and will enable them to receive funding for their programmes of supporting sport from the Department.” The fact that the Minister of Sport and Recreation used this research to support his argument was testimony to its relevance and meaningfulness.

The next section of this chapter has been published as

Sanders, B., Phillips, J. & Vanreusel, B., (2014). Opportunities and challenges facing NGOs using sport as a vehicle for development in post-apartheid South Africa. *Sport, Education and Society*, 19(6), 789-805.



Ben Sanders was the main contributing author to the journal article and also served as the corresponding author, dealing with all correspondence with *Sport, Education and Society*. He conceptualised the study, collected and analysed the data, synthesised the research findings and was responsible for drafting the article from conception to the final accepted version.

Professor Julie Phillips provided technical assistance and support, particularly around the positioning of the article and its relevance to the South African context. Professor Bart Vanreusel referred to the student to relevant literature around partnerships, including the work of Houlihan, and helped locate the study within a broader global field. Both professors contributed expert insights, critically reviewed the various drafts of the paper, assisted with interpreting reviewer comments and provided final approval of the version to be published.

5.2 Opportunities and challenges facing NGOs using sport as a vehicle for development in post-apartheid South Africa

Abstract

Post-apartheid South Africa manifests poor social indicators with over half the population living below the poverty line and the worst levels of inequality in the world, with much work needed to overcome the skewed legacy of apartheid. Sport suffered in this system resulting in unequal access to sporting facilities and opportunities, meaning many South Africans cannot exercise their right to play. Despite this legacy, sport can fulfil a vital developmental role in alleviating some of these issues. The state has a major role to play but it must be supported by civil society and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) who have the ability to deliver in situations where government has struggled. This paper researches the opportunities and challenges NGOs encounter when using sport for development within the education system, in post-apartheid South Africa. This study used a qualitative approach to collect data on the opportunities and challenges encountered by two NGOs based in Cape Town that use sport as a means of development, but in markedly different ways. The study suggests that NGOs face a variety of conceptual, technical, logistical and organisational challenges using sport in schools and should enact certain measures to reduce resistance from educators and ensure successful programmes. The interaction between NGOs, schools and the state Department of Education is a complicated process that presents obstacles and opportunities. Nevertheless, despite these challenges it is clear NGOs can support schools in South Africa to optimise their physical activity programmes in the backdrop of a stagnating education system and a lack of sporting support from the government. NGOs in an educational setting such as schools operate in what Houlihan (2000) has identified as a crowded policy space. Yet, the observations in this study suggest that, particularly in the context of education, a partnership policy model of NGO work is preferred.

Keywords

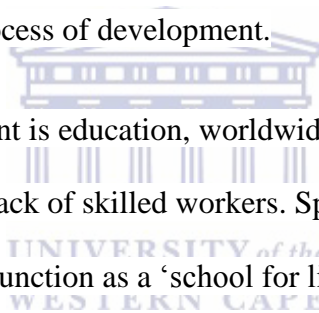
Sport; Recreation; Sport-for-development; Physical Education; Government; Civil Society; Non-governmental organisations (NGOs); Monitoring and Evaluation

Introduction

Sport is widely regarded as a means of development and for its contribution to attaining the Millennium Development Goals, a far cry from the past when it was seen merely as a form of recreation (Lindsey & Banda, 2011; Van Eekeren, 2006: 149). Participating in sport has proven intrinsic benefits but it also provides extrinsic value as it can facilitate the development of education, health and peace amongst other social issues. Many national and international actors now see sport as a development tool and indeed a number of policy initiatives have highlighted the potential contribution of sport to development efforts (Beutler, 2008). The United Nations (UN) established an Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace in 2002 and passed Resolution 58/5 entitled “Sport as a means to promote education, health, development and peace” (United Nations Inter-Agency Task force on Sport Development and Peace, 2003: 5). Furthermore, the first Magglingen Conference in 2003 set the stage as international agencies and states signed a declaration affirming their commitment to sport and development and 2005 was the International Year of Sport and Physical Education (Van Eekeren, 2006: 4). As such, sport is now prominent on donor agendas and has assumed a higher profile in development circles.

Despite the recent advances, the use of sport in social development has a long history. Kidd (2008) traced it back to the recreation interventions aimed at improving middle and working class Englishmen in the late nineteenth century. Kidd concludes however that the present display of social development through sport is different in the scale and scope of agencies and organizations involved, as well as the degree of financial support from powerful

international agencies and federations. The increased interest in sport-for-development has precipitated some research though much of it remains emerging and anecdotal. As Van Eekeren (2006: 149) claims: “Until recently, research into sport was tantamount to academic suicide” but now there is increasing knowledge of sport as a medium of development, not only from sports administrators but also in fields as diverse as health, education, governance and the environment. However, sport-for-development remains a newly emerging field and while research has grown it remains limited. Lindsey and Banda (2011) further highlighted that most of the research in this domain is characterized by its international perspectives. Others argue (Hayburst and Frisby, 2010) that sport-for-development research has been dominated by the Global North, meaning actors from the Global South have yet to be fully included in this ‘neo-colonial’ process of development.



A fundamental part of development is education, worldwide and particularly in South Africa with its high unemployment and lack of skilled workers. Sport is seen as a natural and vital component of education and can function as a ‘school for life’ by instilling values and life skills among youth (United Nations, 2003). However, these wide-ranging, almost universal claims must be treated with some caution. Sport does not automatically result in social change or an improvement in the education system or holistic development of youth. While sport can have positive micro-impact on individuals this does not necessarily lead to greater outcomes in the community (meso) and society (macro). The right conditions need to be in place for sport to successfully stimulate development and education, and even then nothing is guaranteed. Coalter (2010) contends that social capital or local co-operation cannot nullify greater macro issues, such as lack of resources, political support and the socio-economic situation. Furthermore, it is short-sighted, naïve and dangerous to claim that sport can change these overall structures since the effects of sport are not as concrete as the rhetoric suggests. We need to understand the potential benefit of sport but also the harmful effects, as like any

other activity, sport is not inherently good or bad. Coalter (2010) thus concludes that a major weakness of sports programmes is that they are “*seeking to solve broad gauge problems via limited focus interventions*”.

The Rise of Sport for Development NGOs

The emergence of NGOs with a focus on sport related programmes is a rather new phenomenon. NGOs with a specific sport related objective originated in the late 1990s and beginning of the 21st century. The first such NGO, Mathare Youth Sport Association (MYSA) started in 1987 in Kenya (Van Eyken, 2010) and now commands over 25,000 participants. Non-governmental involvement in sport for development has increased dramatically. There are now 389 sport and development related organisations listed on the “International Platform on Sport and Development” (<http://www.sportanddev.org>). Van Eyken’s (2010) research demonstrates that the most drastic increase in NGOs with sport related programmes has occurred during the 21st century. Between 1985 and 2000 about 30 organisations were in existence but by 2010 there were more than 110 recorded organisations, a remarkable shift.

Although the intervention of NGOs in sport and physical activity for youth is a relatively recent phenomenon, the number of NGO-led initiatives is growing rapidly worldwide. At the 2011 Beyond Sport Summit in Cape Town, South Africa, hundreds of NGOs from all continents were seeking partnerships in order to establish sport programmes for the underserved. 356 NGOs worldwide submitted sport related projects in order to be eligible for the Beyond Sport Awards. In contrast to this innovative growth, little research has been done on the impact of these new players in the policy field of youth sport and physical education (PE).

In general, sport policies are generated by an interaction between government initiatives, market initiatives and civil action. NGOs hold an atypical role in this policy interaction.

NGOs intervene when this interaction partially or generally fails to produce expected initiatives and outcomes. From this perspective, sport related NGOs emerge as a response to sport policies that fail to deliver expected programmes.

Sport and Education

In the context of education, the role of NGOs is even more delicate. Whereas education is essentially a priority task of local and national governments, the emergence of NGOs in an educational context suggests that public policy on education at least partially fails to meet its objectives and that civil society organisations are needed to fill the gap. Sport related NGOs with a focus on education operate in an area that is a primary concern for governments. This atypical policy interaction has received little attention in sport policy research to date.

This study on the emerging role of NGOs in school programmes on PE fits within changing and debated policies and practices in providing physical activities in an educational context, conceptualized by Houlihan (2000) as a 'crowded policy place'. Authors such as Houlihan and Green (2006), Flintoff (2003) and Macdonald et al (2008) have pointed out a multitude of interests, ideologies and programmes offering school based physical activities from traditional state intervention in PE curricula to market driven neoliberal initiatives in catering for school sport. However, the rise and specific role of NGOs in this process has received only marginal attention in this debate.

However, Houlihan's (2000) observation that PE and sports are policy spaces that were already crowded if not congested doesn't seem as relevant to South Africa and most other African countries. On the contrary, in many African countries, school based PE seems to be an under attended or almost empty policy space with NGOs (acting as private initiatives) trying to fill the policy gap. This epitomizes the difficulty of applying north-driven ideas and solutions to the developing world without first contextualizing the problem.

Flintoff (2003: 231) argues that the central premise of school sport initiatives is the strategic development of networks and partnerships to maximize the quality, quantity and the coherence of youth sport and PE opportunities. In the context of post-apartheid South Africa, schools can be seen as an arena in which a complex range of interests attempt to assert control over policy (Houlihan, 2000: 171). NGOs are seen as relatively new players in this arena. This study on NGOs catering for sport and PE aims to elaborate on Flintoff's (2003) observation, in the specific context of South Africa, and contribute more generally to understanding the role, legitimacy and policy of sport and physical activity in a context of development.

South Africa - the case for sport

Post-apartheid South Africa manifests poor social indicators with over half the population living below the poverty line, unemployment estimated at 22.9% and approximately 18% of adults infected with HIV/AIDS (CIA Factbook, 2009). Life expectancy is estimated to be only 49 and South Africa has recently overtaken Brazil as “the most consistently unequal country in the world” with a Gini coefficient index of 0.679 (Bhorat, 2009). While sport and physical activity cannot solve these problems alone, it may play a positive developmental role (Keim, 2006: 2). Sport-for-development is especially topical in South Africa given the recent 2010 World Cup (Pillay, Tomlinson & Bass, 2009: 5). This mega-event spawned much interest in sport with many development initiatives across the country using sport as a vehicle for social change

But before we map a role for sport in South Africa, one needs to examine the potential of sport in achieving development. A detailed exploration and comparison of sports development programmes in an educational context will prove useful. Improved understanding of the challenges facing NGOs in this sector will add knowledge to government and civil society and may enhance service delivery (Keim, 2009: 33). While

there is much literature on the way sport can promote development, there is little reference to obstacles that hamper this approach in South Africa. Starting from the premise that sport can promote education, if applied in the right manner; the current study seeks to fill some gaps in the literature by gathering empirical data on the challenges facing sport in the education system. This research centres on two NGOs working within the education system and examining the challenges they encounter. The research deals mainly with work in the Western Cape, though the findings do have relevance for South Africa and the continent, as well as broader policy implications for the relationship between education and sport worldwide.

Working with the state - to partner or not to partner?

Preliminary investigations reveal that integration with government is a double-edged sword for many NGOs, both an opportunity and a challenge (Kaufman, 2009). While partnerships with the state can help these organisations widen the scope of their work, access funding and become more sustainable, they can also lead to dependency on government, an inordinate amount of bureaucracy and may even hamper the development work itself (Cooper, 2009).

While the state offers more stability than alternative sources of funding, it does compromise private initiative and creativity, leading to sport becoming entangled with politics (Van Eekeren, 2006: 1490). Of course sport is not totally “free of politics” as former International Olympic Committee (IOC) chairman Avery Brundage so boldly stated over 50 years ago (Cashmore, 1990). This is nowhere more evident than South Africa, which endured a sports boycott during apartheid and has since put sport at the forefront of state policy, hosting mega-events such as the 2010 World Cup and developing an agenda and scorecard for transformation in sport. But it does become increasingly difficult to achieve outcomes when sport is expected to conform to government policy.

Sport has the potential to contribute to development of the new South Africa, but what should its role be? It can make a significant contribution to education, but how can this be realised? The potential value of sport in education explains the recent attempts to re-introduce and raise the profile of PE in schools since it has been marginalised in recent times, seen as a luxury due to its non-academic nature. This is illustrated by a far-reaching analysis of 126 countries which showed that the status of PE has dropped in almost all states surveyed (Hardman and Marshall, 1999) leading to a lack of sports activity and increase in health risks. This is nowhere more relevant than in South Africa where PE was replaced as a stand-alone subject in 2004 by Life Orientation (LO) within South Africa's National Curriculum (Draper et al., 2010). Physical development and movement is listed as one of the four learning outcomes of LO, along with health promotion, social development and personal development. However the majority of teachers are not equipped to deliver PE and are not trained in sports science and lack basic skills such as First Aid. Furthermore, the current LO training only provides one teaching hour on physical development and movement per week, hardly enough to equip teachers for the challenges they face in schools.

The South African government has recognised that PE needs to be revived in schools and the Department of Sport and Recreation and Department of Basic Education (2011) have both made a firm commitment to develop an integrated school sport framework that includes the integration of PE and sports participation into the school day. It is only recently that this debate on school sport and PE has taken centre stage in South Africa, reaching what Houlihan (2003) previously described as a 'crowded policy space'.

It is clear the state has a major role to play in both the development of sport itself and in using sport for development but it needs to be supported by NGOs and other organs of civil society who have shown an ability to deliver in situations where government has struggled. And for these organisations to realise the potential of sport as a development tool in the realm of

education, there needs to be an in-depth, critical enquiry into the range of challenges and opportunities they face in South Africa.

Methods

This study used a qualitative approach to collect data on the opportunities and challenges encountered by NGOs in Cape Town, South Africa that use sport as a means of development. A case study design has been chosen since it will offer field level insight, showing how specific sports programmes work in specific contexts as argued by Cronbach (1975). By focusing on a case, one can “uncover the interaction of significant factors characteristic of the phenomenon” (Merriam, 1998: 29). Two NGOs working with schools in the Western Cape Province constituted the cases. While there are many NGOs working in this field, these two have been chosen for the different approaches that they have adopted. The first NGO is a high-profile international organisation founded in 2002 that uses its curriculum to educate youth about HIV/AIDS through soccer. Headquartered in Cape Town, South Africa, it operates across Africa as it has formed strategic partnerships with local organisations, optimizing their ability to reach African youth (Grassroot Soccer 2009). The NGO operates predominantly during school hours in South Africa, with classes forming part of the LO curriculum which all learners are obliged to attend. The organisation thus has to conform closely to school times, policies and procedures.

The second NGO is a smaller organisation founded in 1997 and acts as an intermediary between schools and government, facilitating the provision of extra-mural activities to disadvantaged schools. Its goal is “*to help South African schools develop into hubs of lifelong learning, recreation and support, for both their school-going and surrounding communities.*” (EMEP: 2009). It is also based in Cape Town but only operates locally in the Western Cape. This NGO runs seminars with staff from schools, training them to provide extra-murals,

ranging from sport to arts and crafts, extra lessons, music etc. The NGO does not run the extra-murals but provides training, co-ordination and evaluation. Furthermore, it is not focused exclusively on sport, unlike the first NGO in this study, which is limited to soccer, but takes a holistic approach, with a range of activities for learners, parents and community members. This NGO has partnered with the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) and the subsequent funding has allowed them to broaden their network considerably.

Individual in-depth interviews were conducted with the researchers at each NGO, assistant site-coordinator and community project-coordinator, program interns, development practitioners, heads of sport at schools and or LO coordinator and school principals.

Furthermore, a focus group discussion was conducted with 8 coaches and another with approximately 20 teachers. An interview guide was used to ensure that the questions and themes generated were relevant to the participants and the research itself.

The analysis of the interviews started with the transcription of information from audio-tape recordings. Data was transcribed verbatim to ensure that it is conveyed as genuinely as possible by the researcher, with no attempt to modify the findings or set a certain agenda.

Independent perspectives were obtained by asking an independent researcher for his views on the transcripts. This process ensured a clear correlation between the reality experienced by the participants and the information presented. Analysis was done by reading through the transcripts several times, making as many headings as necessary to describe all aspects of the contents.

Additionally, grouping of the themes into broader categories helped to reduce the number of themes. Both pre-determined and emerging themes were noted, making a concerted effort to ensure that respondents do not merely answer questions but provide their own perspective on

challenges. During the interview process the same themes were raised, showing that the research had reached the point of saturation.

The data from the interviews was complemented and contextualized with data from documents and observations. The documents included letters, minutes of meetings, evaluations and external reports of the NGOs. However, most of these documents were produced internally, mainly for monitoring and evaluation purposes, and have their limitations. Furthermore observations, to experience first-hand how these sports projects operate within the education system, were included. These observations provided insight into the participants' experience of the programmes. A number of observation sessions occurred at each site, so the common practices were recorded, as opposed to a once-off viewing.

Observation was accompanied by reports from the schools and NGOs involved, so the reality observed can be contrasted with the written theory.

This mixed method approach was used in order to minimize the observation bias and improve the reliability and validity of the observation. The observer is not formally or informally linked to the work of the chosen NGOs.

Results

It was clear from the research that both NGOs faced a broad range of challenges using sport for development in schools. Certain challenges were common while others were not. Even more importantly, while the findings are based on a study of just two non-profit organisations and one cannot generalise widely, there may be an element of truth for organisations of a similar nature. Even government would do well to heed the results when it comes to reviewing its policy on sport in schools. Thus while the two NGOs are markedly different as illustrated in the table below this should be seen as a strength of research, as the findings may

be relevant for a greater range of actors, especially in the field of sport for development which boasts a diversity and depth of organisations.

Table 1. Differences between the two NGOs

NGO 1	NGO 2
Large, international organisation	Small, locally based organisation
Works across Africa and Latin America	Works only in the Western Cape, South Africa
Only urban schools in Cape Town area	Urban and Rural schools in Western Cape
Use sport for development in schools	Use extra-murals for development in schools
Only soccer and HIV/AIDS education	Extra-murals include a range of sports & activities
Developed a specific Curriculum	Developed a range of training sessions
Delivers curriculum to learners	Delivers training to teachers/educators
Works only with Grades 6-9 (teenagers)	Seeks to benefit all levels of school youth
Works mainly during LO – classroom hours	Promotes extra-murals – usually after hours
Delivers the curriculum itself through coaches	Does not deliver – trains teachers to deliver
Pays coaches for delivering the curriculum	Does not pay teachers, but offers skills training
Independent of state, funded by external donors	Partnership with state, Western Cape Education Dept.

Relationship between NGOs, government and schools

These challenges are perhaps the most important and relate to the way in which the organisations (NGOs), schools and the relevant government departments understood each other. The smaller, locally based NGO had developed a partnership with government (The Western Cape Education Department) to promote extra-murals and turn schools into community hubs. No formal partnership existed between the larger international NGO and government but the organisation was seeking to get its curriculum approved by the Department of Education. Both these NGOs did however experience difficulties with the government, but despite these they were committed to working with government and clearly

believed that the benefits of any partnership far outweighed the disadvantages. It is thus important to examine these relationships in detail. Furthermore, it is vital to interrogate the relationship between the schools and government. Kidd (2008) has suggested that because of the problematic issues evident in the relationship between NGOs and states, a concerted effort should be made to strengthen state capacities in the South. Irunuzun-Lopez and Poku (2005) however draw attention to the fact that political competition and a lack of resources weaken the relationship between states and NGOs.

The smaller, locally based NGO was initially independent of the state but had since worked with government departments as its extra-mural project (Continued Development Programme) was approved by the WCED. While this partnership allowed the NGO to expand and gain access into the education system, it meant that the organisation was somewhat dependent on government. The NGO had to show that its interventions resonated with the WCED's 9 key focus areas of whole school development. The extra-mural programme was essentially a partnership between the NGO and the WCED, though it is the NGO that was most often (and incorrectly) seen as the owner or lead partner. Furthermore by always assuming a lead role, and branding the programme as that of the NGO, the organisation almost ignored, or negated, the role of the state. In reality, the schools targeted were the responsibility of the WCED and the programme was a partnership, not NGO owned with government support. As a result, it became clear to most government officials that the partnership was not really working. Both sides were to blame and this malaise obviously contributed to the end of state funding.

Furthermore, it is important to note that the political landscape affected the NGO's relationship with the state even more. The Democratic Alliance (DA) replaced the African National Congress (ANC) as the ruling party in the Western Cape after the 2009 elections, leading to many proponents of the NGO being replaced by more sceptical politicians. This

drastic shift even led to concerns that the existing agreement between the NGO and the state would not be honoured. While these fears were unfounded, the organisation realised it would be futile to apply for further funding.

“The DA replaced the ANC last year (2009) and the new education department does not like NGOs. Our big supporters like Naledi Pandor (former Minister of Education) are gone. We knew there was no point in trying to renew the contract because we work with district officials and they told us. So we need new funding. Maybe in 2 years’ time, the ANC will be back in power and we will start again. Who knows?” (Anonymous, 2010)

As part of the change of the ruling party in the Western Cape, new directors were appointed with subsequent changes to policies. An increased focus on literacy and numeracy and on the improvement of Grade 12 results were some changes that resulted in extra-mural activities being marginalised and the NGO suddenly found themselves out of favour with the new regime. In response, the NGO modified their intervention and made a concerted attempt to link it to the Education department's 9 key focus areas of whole school development.

As mentioned earlier, the large international NGO is mainly funded by international donors and operated independently of government. But on examination of the relationship between this NGO, government and schools, most schools indicated it was easier and more effective partnering with the NGO. Most teachers were critical of the Department of Education and felt they did not provide enough support or training. The LO co-ordinators in particular felt let down by the department and were disillusioned with the state.

“They send subject advisors to our school, to check our sessions and give advice. But I cannot say they help. They speak more than doing.” (LO Co-ordinator, Primary School, Khayelitsha)

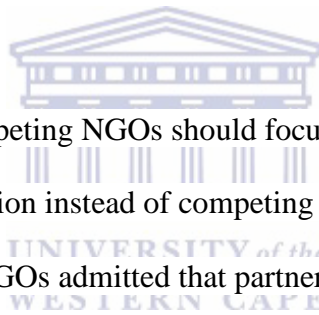
LO co-ordinators agreed that it was such NGOs that “were doing things” but the government was just “talk, talk, talk”. They also complained that while there were workshops for other subjects (e.g. Maths and Science), there were no workshops for LO. Again it appeared that the state did not regard LO as an equal partner in the school syllabus.

The relationship between the large international NGO and government was clearly evolving and there was a possibility that they may have formed a partnership. In addition it is important to note that with the political changes, and changes in donor funding and requirements, the nature of the relationship with state departments (and which departments) changes markedly over time.

While these two NGOs, and other similar organisations, must be commended for having helped schools provide and manage their sporting activities in the light of a lack of sporting support from the state, they must not assume the same role as government. These organisations do not have the same capacity as the state and are dependent on government in some form or another. While NGOs may be more flexible and responsive and have shown an ability to deliver in situations where the state has struggled, they cannot, and must not, take over government’s service delivery role. Rather NGOs and other such organisations should provide advocacy and support to state departments, and explore alternative avenues for co-operation.

There are number of different policy models in which NGOs can perform their work. While many NGOs adhere to an intervention policy model, working independently of local authorities, this may result in organisations competing with one another and the state for resources. Forming partnerships with local authorities and aligning with government directives may be more complicated and convoluted but will ultimately ensure shared strategic objectives and more sustainable outcomes.

Lindsey and Banda (2011) highlighted that the relationships between governments and NGOs have been interrogated recently and some authors (Irunzun-Lopez and Poku, 2005) believe this could be due to political competition and a lack of resources. Apart from the strained relationship between government and these NGOs, competing with other organisations is another challenge faced by NGOs. This competition has also been highlighted by other authors (Kidd, 2008; Amstrong, 2004; Webb, 2004). In this case it was reported that an international NGO not dissimilar to the one included in this study that “uses media, pop culture, music, theatre and sports to stop the spread of HIV/AIDS” (Youth Aids: Our Mission, 2010) was working at one of their partner schools. In fact the coaches reported one instance in which a communication mix-up meant both organisations were set to use the same class period for their work.



Kidd (2008) has warned that competing NGOs should focus on strengthening the state programmes on health and education instead of competing for funding and placement for volunteers. Officials from both NGOs admitted that partnering with government was a catch-22 situation as it may empower them with funding and resources but may limit their independence and lead to a great deal of bureaucracy and even conflict. While the two NGOs included in this study reported differing relationships with government, both organisations realised the need to work with state organs in order to access sustainable funding and broaden the scope of their work. Perhaps they realise as Coalter (2010: 306) states “they are not simple substitutes for the state, and can only really thrive to the extent that the state actively encourages them.”

Organisational challenges

Both NGOs included in this study are confronted with many organisational challenges, from the difficulties of working within the school structure to the numerous complaints provided by coaches about a lack of logistical support. Furthermore, schools are often critical of the

relevant organisation for not providing enough genuine support and evaluation of their projects.

At one primary school, a teacher complained the relevant NGO virtually disappeared and he cannot remember their last meeting, hardly a good sign. This is illustrated by the quote below:

“We hardly see them anymore. Our last meeting was planned for last year, but it was cancelled. It is like they came here and promised to help us and we got excited about it. But then they just left again and it is the same.” (Primary School Teacher)

Similarly most of the schools surveyed professed a desire for regular feedback from the large, international NGO. At the end of each curriculum, learners do complete a questionnaire which provides the organisation with an idea of the progress they have made. However these results are usually not communicated to the schools themselves. It would be useful for teachers to understand the progress students are making through the curriculum designed by the NGO and how this links with their classroom subjects. It would also help the NGO cement their position in schools if educators are aware of the benefits of the programme.

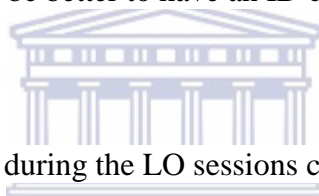
“Just one thing I am asking for is the assessment. We need to know the learners’ problems so we can help them. Also if they (the NGO) can show us proof of their performance then it will help us to continue with them next year. They must please share this information.” (LO Teacher, Primary School, Khayelitsha)

A major organisational challenge for these NGOs is the lack of cooperation from school staff and the conflict between teachers and coaches. Teachers often feel threatened by the coaches from NGOs and refuse them access to their classroom even though an agreement between the school and organisation exists. Furthermore, school staff often claim that the coaches are a

distraction, interrupting their learning time and getting the children excited and noisy with the promise of exercise and sport, thereby hindering their academic focus.

“The teachers think we will take their jobs and they see that the students like us. Sometimes they get angry with us. But we are not teachers so we cannot take their jobs.” (Anonymous Coach)

Coaches also felt that teachers did not respect them, and they were undermined because of their age and culture. They argued *“having a white person with us will help because they are from a different culture”* (Coaches, 2010), raising the issue of racial profiling. The coaches do have certificates as proof of their training, but as they cannot carry these with them everywhere they claimed it would be better to have an ID card showing their affiliation to the NGO and school.



Normally teachers are not present during the LO sessions conducted by the international NGO. Coaches claim this is beneficial because learners are more likely to open up and speak about sensitive issues if the teacher is absent. But on the other hand, the lack of an authority figure means the kids are often unruly and ill-disciplined, showing less respect to the younger, less ‘official’ coaches. Since teachers do not generally witness the sessions, they do not understand the value of the programme and regard it as something secondary to their classes. Coaches feel they are often viewed with suspicion and there is a perceived distrust from certain teachers.

Furthermore, there is a high turnover of coaches with many moving onto better employment. Given the organisation’s investment in these coaches and the relationships they have built with learners, this high turnover does not bode well for sustainability. Teachers are a permanent part of the school system and it would make sense to include them, so that sport

and physical activity are able to continue without the relevant NGO or coach, thereby creating long-term impacts.

Similarly to the organisational challenges expressed above, Clark et al. (2006) reported on the need for teacher education to assure sustainability of such programs. This is especially important as teachers can provide answers to follow-up questions from students. However, Clark et al. (2006) also drew attention to the fact that teachers noted that students were more willing to discuss sensitive issues when they were not present.

Discussion

The study suggests that NGOs face a variety of challenges using sport in schools. From the data gathered it would appear there is an urgent need for such organisations to formalise the relationship with schools which should ensure that these organisations and their staff are seen as a more integral part of the school day, and thus more likely to be accepted by teachers, who should have been briefed as to the service agreement between said school and NGO. A good working relationship between the management and ground staff of the school and NGO is desirable. The research indicates that there are pros and cons to working during school or after hours, and combining these two approaches would allow NGOs to reach the majority of learners and help schools act as community hubs in the afternoon. Providing regular training and support will keep school staff and coaches motivated and allow them to broaden their range of skills. Diversifying the range of sports available and linking these activities with academic subjects will allow the organisations to bridge the gap between the field and classroom.

Furthermore, involving teachers in the process is essential since any school activity should be educator driven - the study has shown that in instances where educators are not involved the programme is less likely to succeed. Therefore it is suggested that coaches work with the

teachers as well as the children, since the teachers can then formalise this process and create structured school sport teams as well as link the lessons from these interventions to the regular academic curriculum. However, there are issues with teachers attending LO sessions as learners may no longer feel comfortable sharing sensitive information. Furthermore, many coaches are inexperienced and unskilled and may not have the capacity to interpret sensitive information and provide mentoring and counselling to learners, or share this with teachers. Appointing external personnel to deliver LO classes at school creates confusion as it blurs the roles between educator and sports coach, and between classroom time and extra-mural activities. There are difficulties in this process, as detailed by Whipp et al (2011) in their study on the outsourcing of PE at primary schools.

Sport and physical education are an integral part of the school day and should assume an equal footing to other classes, whether these sport activities take place during LO or as extra-mural programmes. While most educators would agree to this in principle, it is obvious that the Department of Education has privileged academic achievement, especially literacy and numeracy, above sport given the poor pass rates across the country and the great disparities in the education system. As such, the benefits of sport and its contribution to health, social inclusion, school attendance, better discipline and academic achievement should be leveraged by relevant officials within the education system.

Government can play a role in this regard by raising the profile of sport and regarding it as an equal partner in the curriculum. According to teachers, the amount of administration has increased despite promises to the contrary, and this is centred on academic performance, with sport taking a back seat. With the marginalisation of PE in the curriculum, it is more important than ever that youth can partake in sports and physical exercise at schools. After this research was conducted, the South African government finally reintroduced PE as a

stand-alone subject (2 mandatory hours per week) in schools from 2012. This bodes well for the future.

It has become clear that partnering with government is a catch-22 situation for many civil society organisations as it may empower them with funding and resources but may limit their independence. While the two NGOs in this study have differing relationships with government, both organisations do realise the need to work with the state so as to improve their outputs and impact. Furthermore, working in unison with other organisations and stakeholders is likely to be more effective and sustainable than duplicating resources and programmes.

The analysis shows that sport related NGOs operate within different policy models. The intervention policy model perceives NGOs as external agents with an independent intervention agenda. Embedded interaction with local authorities, if any at all, is perceived as a hindrance or complication of the NGO agenda. The arena model puts NGOs as mutual competitors in an arena of delivering services for development. NGOs not only need to compete for recognition, market share and funding at the donor side, but increasingly compete in direct service delivery in order to comply in the most efficient way with their objectives, donor expectations and to meet the increasing demand of evidence based output. The pressure of competing in the same development arena may have two sided policy consequences. NGOs will try to be direct and straightforward in their objectives and methods, thereby underestimating the need to form structural links with local authorities and responsible institutions. Other NGOs will strengthen their relations with local authorities in order to improve their competitive position in the arena and to develop solid and durable growth for their programmes. In a partnership policy model, NGOs deliberately seek synergies with local authorities as basic policy steps to develop programmes. Although it will complicate issues and it is time consuming, the partnership policy model increases chances

for efficiency and durability in the long-term and brings together practitioners from both sides of the field.

It is important to note that these models are not necessarily exclusive and the NGOs may show characteristics from a number of models. Furthermore, no model can be definitively advocated as the best option since the context of each organisation and that of their environment is different. The models, at best, provide frameworks which organisations can adapt to their circumstances. In addition, while a partnership model is advocated, it is important to examine the nature of the partnership and ensure it is fair, equitable and just. Partnerships should be clearly conceptualised with a joint vision and agreed understanding of the roles and responsibilities within the relationship. Clear lines of communication and accountability are vital and organisations must ensure that any partnership helps, rather than hinders, their overall goals and objectives.



The socio-economic realities in post-apartheid South Africa affect many school sport and PE programmes. Outsourcing sport and physical activity to private and semi-private partners (Whipp et al., 2011) will become a growing and common practice and policy in such conditions. NGOs as well as market driven commercial initiatives will enter this emerging field. However, outsourcing such programmes for reasons of feasibility and quality cannot imply the transfer of legitimacy and power from the educational environment to the external agent.

Finally, it is important to note that the work of NGOs is not sacrosanct. If these organisations do not contribute properly to, or align themselves with, greater development efforts, they may actually undermine the very communities they choose to work in. As with the use of sport as a development tool, NGOs need to operate in a certain environment and in a certain manner if their programmes are to be genuinely successful.

Conclusion

The observations in this study suggest that, particularly in a context of education, a partnership policy model of NGO work is to be preferred. Although partnership seeking policy may delay direct interventions and may not be helpful to an organisation's competitive position at the outset, it appears crucial because education is one of the core responsibilities and tasks of local and national governments, supported by legislations and public administration. NGOs can lend support in this regard, but it is government who must take the lead, thus partnerships are vital. However, it is important to note that partnerships may bring their own set of challenges and may compromise the independence of civil society organisations, leaving NGOs in a deliberation over whether 'to partner or not to partner'. The power relations and parameters within the partnership will affect the outcome of any such partnership, and there are a range of other possible variations.

The results from the field observation clearly indicate the need for a partnership policy model between NGOs and local authorities. Donors, monitoring and evaluation agencies and the public at large, as well as NGOs and the state themselves, need to understand that a partnership policy model for sport related NGOs, although complicated and time consuming, is likely to be the most effective, sustainable and durable model of using sport as a vehicle for education. Having said this, one must recognise the complexity of relationships, and possible partnerships, and that like sports activity itself, partnering needs to occur under the right circumstances to be effective.

It is recognized that many NGOs operate externally in an arena policy model where they have to transmit their message and realize their objectives as they compete with other organisations for their market share. Yet, a call for a partnership model of interaction and cooperation between NGOs and the educational system at all policy levels and processes is heard. While organisations cannot simply implement a one size fits all policy or model, there

are certain benefits to partnering with other stakeholders as long as the partnership is properly and fairly managed.

In conclusion, it is clear NGOs can support schools in South Africa to optimise their sports and physical activity programmes in the backdrop of a skewed apartheid legacy, a stagnating education system and a lack of sporting support from the government. However, they encounter many obstacles and would perform better by paying attention to the concerns of schools and coaches, and engaging with the state, other civil society organisations and community stakeholders to partner more effectively in the sports arena to create a level playing field for all.



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Appendix to Publication

All supporting documents for the publication are provided in Appendix S.

The following research tools were used and are attached in the appendices:

- In-depth Interview Schedule for School Staff (Appendix H)
- In-depth Interview Schedule for NGO Staff (Appendix I)
- Focus Group Schedule for Coaches (Appendix J)
- Focus Group Schedule for Teachers (Appendix K)



5.3 Introduction to second article on civil society

The second article related to NPOs in SDP reflects a Social Return on Investment (SROI) study conducted by GRS to determine the return (if any) of its investment in a youth development and employability programme for its Coaches over a five-year period. The study investigates whether such a civil society led programme is cost effective and can result in impact that may assist other stakeholders such as the government and private sector in tackling deep-seated issues such as youth unemployment. This then raises considerable debate as to the optimal roles and responsibilities of civil society and the state in such efforts.

The next section of this chapter has been accepted for publication as

Sanders, B. & Raptis, E. (2017). Changing The Game - Can A Sport-Based Youth Development Programme Generate A Positive Social Return On Investment? *Commonwealth Youth and Development*. Volume 15 (1).

Ben Sanders was the main contributing author to the journal article and also served as the corresponding author, dealing with all correspondence with *Commonwealth Youth and Development*. He was responsible for drafting the article from conception to the final accepted version.

Emanuel Raptis was the main researcher on the SROI study. He developed the framework for the study and worked with a team of staff at GRS to ensure data collection and analysis. He critically reviewed the various drafts of the paper and provided final approval of the version to be published.

5.4 Changing the Game - Can a Sport-Based Youth Development Programme Generate a Positive Social Return on Investment?

Abstract

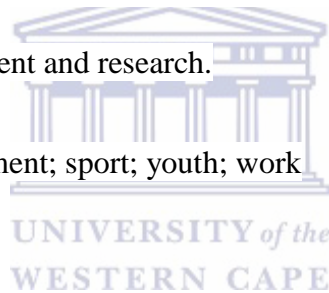
This study examines a sport for development and peace intervention initiated by Grassroot Soccer South Africa that promotes youth employability and leadership. A results-based management approach and a social return on investment methodology were used to track youth during and after the intervention. Preliminary results offer encouraging evidence of positive social returns for the youth and external stakeholders. The results indicate that structured sport-based programmes can put young people to work in a constructive manner, thereby stimulating economic growth. It is concluded that initiatives using sport to promote youth work merit greater investment and research.

Keywords: development; investment; sport; youth; work

Introduction

Sport for Development and Peace (SDP) refers to the use of sport to promote varied outcomes beyond the playing field and is defined by the Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group (SDPIWG) as “the intentional use of sport, physical activity and play to attain specific development objectives in low- and middle-income countries and disadvantaged communities in high-income settings” (SDPIWG 2008). SDP stakeholders working in the field and launching various initiatives over the past two decades include the United Nations, the Commonwealth, the public and the private sectors and civil society.

The 21st century saw the incorporation of sport into the mainstream development sector. Sport was widely hailed as a means of achieving the Millennium Development Goals of the United Nations (UN) (United Nations 2003). The UN established its Inter-Agency Task



Force on Sport for Development and Peace in 2002 and passed Resolution 58/5 titled “Sport as a Means to Promote Education, Health, Development and Peace” in 2003. At the First International Conference on Sport and Development held in Magglingen in 2003, international agencies and states signed a declaration affirming their commitment to SDP. The year 2005 was declared the International Year of Sport and Physical Education and from 2014, April 6 has been celebrated as the International Day of Sport for Development and Peace. In a document issued by the UN (2015), sport is mentioned as a tool to achieve sustainable development goals, which includes the empowerment of the youth:

“Sport is also an important enabler of sustainable development. We recognize the growing contribution of sport to the realization of development and peace in its promotion of tolerance and respect and the contributions it makes to the empowerment of women and of young people, individuals and communities as well as to health, education and social inclusion objectives.” (United Nations 2015)

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While the SDP sector has grown enormously, its impact remains debatable, partly due to a lack of rigorous research and monitoring and evaluation, limited results, unclear theories of change, and few strategies to tackle broader structural and systemic problems in development (Coakley 2011; Giulianotti 2011; Richards et al. 2013). Certain SDP programmes exhibit a gap between evidence and practice, which is often a reflection of somewhat naïve and idealistic notions of the power of sport, sometimes referred to as the “Great Sport Myth”. Even if sport is applied in the right manner and does result in the intended change there are deeper structural issues that may negate, or even reverse, such well-intentioned work (Sanders 2016). In a statement by the Commonwealth Advisory Body on Sport, this paradox is acknowledged as follows: “There have been instances where sport has been poorly planned, overly aligned to extremist nationalist, political or economic motives or beset by

doping and corruption scandals such that a negative impact on human and social development could be argued” (Dudfield 2014, 7).

Despite these criticisms, sport has the potential to foster development, especially among the youth, as it can provide mechanisms to reach young people in a “language they can understand” and engage with them on sensitive issues (e.g. HIV and AIDS) without adopting a traditional classroom-based approach. Sport is seen as a natural and essential component of education and can function as a “school for life” by instilling values and life skills in the youth (United Nations 2003). By its very nature, sport can function as a “youth-friendly” vehicle to engage young people in serious matters (Barkley, Sanders, and Warren 2016).

Youth in South Africa

As this study examines the effects of an SDP intervention relating to youth employability and leadership in South Africa, it is pertinent to look at the state of the youth in the country. First, it is worth taking note of the “youth bulge” in South Africa (and other African countries).

Statistics South Africa (2016) reports that 66 per cent of the total population of over 54 million are below the age of 35 years, whereas 18.5 per cent are between the ages of 10 to 19 and 24 per cent are aged between 15 and 24. While these young people are often touted as the country’s future leaders, they face a range of obstacles in post-apartheid South Africa.

Youth unemployment, specifically in disadvantaged areas, remains a major issue for concern.

In the second quarter of 2015, whereas the overall unemployment rate was 25 per cent (Statistics South Africa 2015), 49.9 per cent of young people aged between 15 and 24 years were unemployed. Of these, 45.4 per cent were males and 55 per cent were females. These official figures were conservative and excluded those who had given up looking for work.

The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA, 2016) claimed that, based on the 2009–2014

South African National Youth Policy's definition of youth as persons between 15 and 34 years old, almost 70 per cent of the youth were unemployed.

As such, leaders worldwide have described youth unemployment as “a ticking time bomb”. Young people, especially those from disadvantaged backgrounds, play a limited role in the South African economy. Only 33 per cent of them own businesses (UNFPA 2016) and the total early entrepreneurial activity rate is estimated to be about seven per cent (Global Entrepreneurship Monitor 2016). Furthermore, in a 2013 report it was stated that only two per cent of the working-age population was enrolled in tertiary education programmes (Centre for Development and Enterprise 2013).

South Africa's National Development Plan identifies the following two main obstacles to eliminating poverty and reducing inequality: too few South Africans are employed; and poor educational outcomes are generated by the educational system (National Planning Commission 2011). This is especially true in the case of the poor population among which many out-of-school youths and adults are unemployed. The Grassroot Soccer (GRS) youth employability and leadership programme that is reviewed in the current study is specifically designed to tackle the first obstacle directly and the second obstacle indirectly.

This study unpacks the components of the GRS programme in an effort to link specific activities to specific outcomes, and included in the study are external stakeholders that may benefit indirectly. In order to achieve this aim, the study applied the social return on investment (SROI) methodology. This involved the valuation of both inputs and outcomes (tangible and intangible) and the determination of the worth of the benefits the programme generated for society at large.

Results-based management and social return on investment

The Development Assistance Committee of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development defines results-based management (RBM) as a “management strategy focusing on performance and achievement of outputs, outcomes and impact” (Vähämäki, Schmidt, and Molander 2011). This definition has been expanded by Meier (2003, 6) as follows:

RBM is a management strategy aimed at achieving important changes in the way organisations operate, with improving performance in terms of results as the central orientation. RBM provides the management framework with tools for strategic planning, risk management, performance monitoring and evaluation. Its primary purpose is to improve the efficiency and effectiveness through organisational learning, and to fulfil accountability obligations through performance reporting.

RBM, like its predecessor, the logical framework approach, depends on the conceptualisation of a plausible assumption of a results chain (Vähämäki, Schmidt, and Molander 2011).

However, the main differences of RBM lie in the defined relationship between the terms in the results chain and the high level of RBM’s contextual adaptability (ibid.).

The SROI framework builds heavily on the rationale of RBM and closely follows the approach of conceptualising a results chain built on the inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes and impact components to be analysed. The following description of SROI provided by the New Economics Foundation (Lawlor, Neitzert, & Nicholls. 2008) corresponds with the above definitions of RBM:

“By incorporating social, environmental and economic impacts for a range of stakeholders [SROI] more accurately reflects the value the organisations are achieving. At the same time, it helps organisations to evidence their claims and

demonstrate that specific changes are attributable to their actions.[...] SROI promotes the philosophy that measurement systems should be embedded within organisations, that they should inform strategic planning, and that those delivering services are often best placed to engage with their stakeholders and respond to new information.”

SROI thus extends the focus of RBM to incorporate methods for the valuation of the social, environmental and economic benefits generated by an organisation to further strengthen its accountability obligations towards its stakeholders.

Methods

The primary purpose of this study was to use the SROI method to analyse the monetised value generated by a GRS intervention. It involved making the intangible benefits generated by the chosen programme tangible by monetising the generated outcomes and comparing the value of benefits with the value of investment in order to provide evidence (if any) of social return.

The SROI ratio entails a comparison between the value being generated by an intervention and the investment required to achieve the desired impact. However, a SROI analysis should not be restricted to one number or percentage reflecting the total return on investment, as it could be seen as a short-hand for expressing value. Rather, it should present a framework for exploring an organisation's social impact, a framework in which monetisation plays an important but not exclusive role (Lawlor, Neitzert, & Nicholls. 2008). The study followed the approach recommended in the SROI guide prepared by Social Value UK (2012), and this approach consists of six stages and their corresponding phases (see Table 1).

Table 1: The six stages and phases of the SROI method

Stage 1	Establishing scope, identifying and involving stakeholders
Stage 2	Mapping and valuing inputs, clarifying outputs, identifying outcomes
Stage 3	Evidencing and valuing outcomes
Stage 4	Establishing attributable impact of the intervention
Stage 5	Calculating SROI, performing sensitivity analysis and establishing payback period
Stage 6	Reporting

Source: Social Value UK (2012)



Research Setting

The GRS youth employability and leadership programme is presented in South Africa with the aim of developing unemployed youths (coaches) (volunteers aged between 18 and 30) to (1) become effective change agents for improving adolescent health through training and presenting adolescent health programmes to the youth; and (2) move onto employment, education or training following their two-year tenure with GRS.

The programme seeks to empower coaches to tackle broader societal issues, including high unemployment, poverty, gender inequality and the structural drivers of HIV and violence. GRS thus empowers young people to work as peer educators in delivering adolescent health programmes to learners and out-of-school youths in historically disadvantaged communities.

Following the International Labour Organisation's guidelines on enhancing youth employability, the programme delivers interventions aimed at improving the following skills

of participants: basic and foundational skills to meet labour market needs and move on to education and training; vocational or technical skills required to perform specialised tasks; professional and personal skills related to work habits and ethics, personal integrity and honesty; and core skills such as computer literacy, creative problem-solving, active listening, group facilitation and social interaction (Brewer 2013, 6). The programme organises weekly structured group sessions with participants, monthly one-on-one mentoring, annual training sessions and quarterly follow-up sessions to track progress.

Stakeholders

To identify the relevant stakeholders impacted, the potential reach of the programme was carefully considered. It was necessary to look beyond primary subjects—the coaches themselves—and consider secondary subjects impacted either positively or negatively. Based on the data collected, potential stakeholders and corresponding outcomes were either validated or discarded. Stakeholders included were deemed to be significantly impacted on by the programme, and the inclusion and exclusion of stakeholders were motivated (see Table 2). The exclusion of many potential stakeholders constituted a limitation of this study; thus, the findings could have reflected an underestimation of SROI ratio.

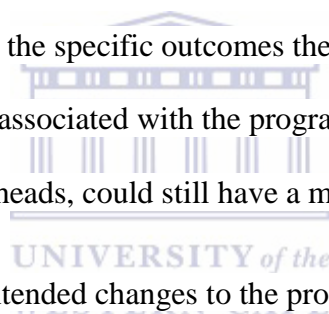
Table 2: Stakeholders included and motivation for their inclusion

Stakeholder	Motivation for inclusion
Coaches	Primary stakeholders
Coaches' immediate families	Dependent on coaches' income for household support
Employers	Benefits from employable and skilled labour

Implementing GRS staff	Income and knowledge accumulation
Local government	Increased tax base and less spending on social benefits and employment and skills development programmes
Educational institutions	Improved allocation of public/private resources, higher rate of timely completion and lower levels of drop-out

Mapping the Theory of Change

An impact map was established to identify all relevant inputs, activities and outputs, outcomes and indicators. The inputs directly related to the coaches corresponded to specific programme components based on the specific outcomes they aimed to achieve. Inputs related to other stakeholders not directly associated with the programme components, such as an organisation's subsidies and overheads, could still have a monetary value.



The recognised intended and unintended changes to the programme guided the breakdown of specific components attributable to these changes. Specific components provided either internally or through external partners aiming to develop specific knowledge or skill sets were treated independently based on the specific outcomes these components aimed to generate.

The outcomes were related to the specific inputs and activities whereas the indicators were either related to the specific outcomes generated by those activities or to the overall intended or unintended change. The outcomes were determined objectively based on both the specific programme activities and previous programme evaluations. The subjective outcomes emerging from the data collected from the coaches tended to confirm the objective outcomes or were used to modify the objective outcomes to better correspond to the data collected.

Desk-top research was used to obtain data on external stakeholders, and the outcomes reached were based on the intended or unintended changes that were presumed to occur as a result of the programme.

Establishing Impact

The method of establishing impact that was used followed the recommended approach (Social Value UK 2012) of identifying how much change there was and how long the change would last. In estimating deadweight, which refers to how much change would have happened without the intervention, national statistics were used where possible. Information emerging from the data collection was used in some cases, and judgment-based estimations were made in single cases. The study also considered other potential contributing factors (attribution) in the environment where the coaches resided, which were mostly estimated based on data collected and previous evaluations related to the programme. Finally, the longevity (drop-off) of the outcomes generated was for the most part given a standard deduction for estimation purposes.

Data Collection

Primary and secondary data collection from stakeholders provided specific data relating to the study. A pragmatic approach was taken towards data collection with resources being allocated based on the relative importance of the stakeholder and the likelihood of obtaining the desired data.

In-depth interviews were conducted with 15 coaches. Three specific questionnaires were developed based on the current status of the coach being either employed, in education or training, or not in employment, education, or training. The immediate families of the coaches were not directly contacted; instead, relevant data was collected through interviewing the

coaches. To attribute inputs and outcomes realistically, two questions with one sub-question each related directly to the impact of the programme on a family.

Key informant interviews were conducted with the programme's coordinator and monitoring and evaluation director, and the same interview questions were put to four ex-staff members in the questionnaire.

Primary data collected revealed the number of coaches employed at the time of the evaluation. The value of the programme to the employers was estimated using a government wage subsidy aimed to increase employers' confidence in hiring unemployed youth. A further aim was to evaluate the ways in which coaches in employment or education provided potential benefits to the local government in that they gave inputs into the programme in the form of subsidies related to facilities where most of the programme components were implemented. Finally, the primary data collected revealed how many coaches were pursuing education or training, and this information guided estimating the quantity and duration of the potential impact. Potential impact was calculated based on desk-research on the cost of providing education, the average number of students per 100,000 working-age population and a yearly drop-off estimate.

Scope and Limitations

Because of the scope of the study, the components of the programme that were isolated for exploration were those focusing on generating entrepreneurial, employability, leadership, networking, computer and financial literacy skills, with the corresponding outcome of accessing employment, education or training (EET) after graduation. However, the study recognised that additional components relating to being a coach might be important inputs in generating intended and unintended outcomes. The study considered a range of stakeholders that could be impacted on.

GRS initiated a structured coach development programme in 2013, and at the end of 2014 the first batch of coaches graduated from their two-year tenure. As the programme was relatively new, the current study combined both an evaluative and a forecast perspective. The time period under study was 2013–2017, with the period 2013–2015 constituting the evaluation, and 2016–2017 the forecast. It was planned to continue further follow-ups with coaches through 2016 and 2017.

To control the study's scope (which also represented a limitation), one geographical area where the programme was presented at the time of the study, namely Khayelitsha, Cape Town's largest township, was focused on.

A further limitation was the small sample of 16 coaches (of whom 15 responded).

Furthermore, the data collected from them was self-reported, which could be construed as unreliable. To minimise unreliability, all interviews were conducted in the local language by a local staff member (a one-time coach). To counteract potential social desirability bias caused by data being self-reported and collected by a local staff member, all interviews were conducted confidentially and coaches were made aware that participation was voluntary and that personal details would be kept confidential.

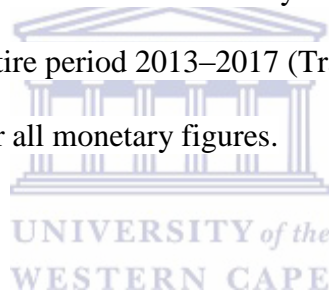
Results

The results of the evaluation are provided in terms of the SROI ratio, value per monetary unit invested, the payback period and sensitivity analysis. Whenever a verified and monetised value was not readily available, the study made use of financial proxies to account for the value either invested or generated. Financial proxies related to inputs were primarily used to value volunteer time, pro bono time provided by partners, and income foregone by coaches. Financial proxies for outcomes were used to value increase in confidence, the likelihood of future employment, the value of employability skills related to remaining employed, the

value of increased health awareness, wage and stipend differences compared to minimum wage, cost of services and facilities for job searching, employee rewards, and outcomes for external stakeholders, which included employers, local government and educational institutions. Monetising outcomes can be complicated; therefore the study used the Global Value Exchange database that offers a comprehensive set of valuations relating to many outcomes.

Calculating Present Value

The calculations of present value followed standard procedures as established by Social Value UK (2012) and widely accepted methods for performing such calculations (Investopedia n.d.a.). The discount rate as determined by the South African Interbank was taken to be six per cent for the entire period 2013–2017 (Trading Economics n.d.), and South African Rand (ZAR) was used for all monetary figures.



Present Value of Inputs

The inputs constitute the investment portion of the programme. Since the investment was allocated over two years (2013–2014), the present value was calculated with 2013 as year zero.

$$PV_{inputs} = \frac{326,929}{(1 + 0.06)} + \frac{339,203}{(1 + 0.06)^2} = \text{ZAR } 610,313$$

Present Value of Outcomes

The outcomes were assumed to occur over the period 2013–2017. Thus, the present value of the outcomes was also calculated with 2013 as year zero.

$$\begin{aligned}
 PV_{outcomes} &= \frac{201,888}{(1 + 0.06)} + \frac{171,406}{(1 + 0.06)^2} + \frac{471,543}{(1 + 0.06)^3} + \frac{267,726}{(1 + 0.06)^4} + \frac{134,379}{(1 + 0.06)^5} \\
 &= ZAR 1,051,408
 \end{aligned}$$

Net Present Value

The net present value (NPV) was calculated by subtracting the present value of the inputs from the present value of the outcomes (Investopedia n.d.a.).

$$NPV = PV_{outcomes} - PV_{inputs} = 1,051,408 - 610,313 = ZAR 441,095$$

SROI Ratio

The SROI ratio was calculated using the formula recommended by Social Value UK (2012), which corresponds to the more conventional formula for calculating return on investment (Investopedia n.d.b.). The present value of the inputs (PV_{inputs}) was deducted from the present value of the outcomes ($PV_{outcomes}$) and then divided by PV_{inputs} to generate the SROI ratio. The SROI ratio was calculated as 72.27 per cent over the five-year period, indicating a significant social return on investment generated by the programme.

$$SROI = \frac{1,051,408 - 610,313}{610,313} = 0.7227 = 72.27\%$$

Value per Monetary Unit Invested

The value per monetary unit invested was calculated by dividing the present value of outcomes by the present value of inputs and not by subtracting the latter from the former. It was found that each ZAR invested in the programme generated ZAR 1.7227 in social value for the stakeholders included in the study.

$$Value/ZAR = \frac{1,051,408}{610,313} = ZAR 1.7227$$

Payback Period

Payback is considered when SROI is zero per cent, which occurred after 32 months (i.e. two years and eight months) from the start of the project (i.e. January 2013). This indicates that investments in the programme were recovered eight months after completion. During the remaining 28 months of the investigation, positive benefits were thus generated for both coaches and society at large. Because of a lack of detailed data, these benefits were estimated by treating the financial flows in year three (2015) as monthly annuities (which in all likelihood did not reflect the real situation). It was believed that, due to the front loading of income generated by coaches in the first half of 2015, payback probably occurred sometime between months 30 and 32. The SROI ratios and NPV at year-end from 2013 to 2017 are shown in Table 3.

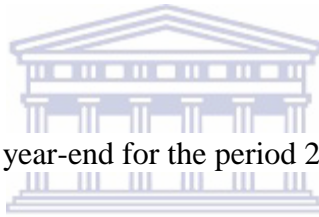


Table 3: SROI ratios and NPV at year-end for the period 2013–2017

Year	SROI Ratio	Net Present Value
2013	-68.79%	ZAR-419,852
2014	-43.80%	ZAR-267,301
2015	21.07%	ZAR128,615
2016 (forecast)	55.82%	ZAR340,680
2017 (forecast)	72.27%	ZAR441,095

ZAR = South African Rand

Sensitivity Analysis

The main sensitivity consideration was to establish the share of SROI attributed to outcomes related to the coaches, which also included benefits accruing to their families. This was done

to determine if the coaches generated a positive SROI in their own capacity or if benefits attributed to other stakeholders were necessary for the programme to generate a positive SROI.

$$SROI_{coaches} = \frac{PV_{coachoutcomes} - PV_{inputs}}{PV_{inputs}} = 0.0281 = 2.81\%$$

The sensitivity analysis revealed that the coaches generated a small positive SROI ratio in their own capacity. However, the analysis suggested that one additional coach in unemployment would result in the coaches generating a negative SROI in their own capacity. Thus, *ceteris paribus*, the results of the programme were considered to be the minimum target in terms of EET-related outcomes.

Audit and Validity



The study closely followed the recommendations of NEF (Lawlor, Neitzert, & Nicholls, 2008) and Social Value UK (2012) regarding SROI methodology, and as such it can be considered valid. Furthermore, the checklist for SROI analysis was considered throughout the project to ensure compliance (ibid.).

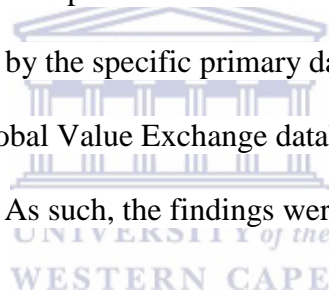
Excluded Stakeholders, Outcomes and Proxies

In most cases the excluded stakeholders, although assumed to be impacted on by the programme to some degree, were not presumed to experience a material change as a result of the programme. Furthermore, the scope of the study was relatively limited, focusing on those stakeholders that were assumed to experience the highest relative change because of the programme, as well as those who could be clearly defined. Some stakeholders who provided inputs into the programme but did not experience material changes as a result of it, were excluded. Furthermore, a number of outcomes were not included in the study. In most cases,

exclusion was not due to the irrelevancy of an outcome per se but to the difficulty of validating or monetising the outcome. The financial proxies used to monetise the outcomes that could not otherwise be monetised were retrieved from the Global Value Exchange database and customised to suit the South African context. Proxies requiring the use of hourly/monthly wages were based on the average wages of professions in South Africa indicated in relevant databases. In respect of the outcomes for external stakeholders, government reports and budgets were used to approximate the value.

Validity, Reliability and Verification

The validity, reliability and verification of the study's findings were assessed primarily through cross-references to previous reports and evaluations. The objective outcomes were either validated or complemented by the specific primary data collected. For those outcomes not previously considered, the Global Value Exchange database was used to choose best practice outcomes and indicators. As such, the findings were believed to be fairly valid.



Discussion

The SROI methodology has proven to be useful for evaluating previous outcomes and forecasting future outcomes relating to the GRS youth employability and leadership programme. The findings suggest that the programme can potentially provide positive returns for society, and show that sport can play a crucial part in the youth work profession by both engaging and capacitating the youth. SDP, in particular, has clear synergies with youth development.

The limitations of the study are acknowledged. The sample size used was small, but the SROI methodology used was rigorous and detailed and a number of other programme evaluations were employed. The fact that data was self-reported by coaches might affect the validity of the findings but attempts were made to ensure respondents answered truthfully and

confidentially. The research had to be limited to one project location in South Africa due to time and resource constraints, but it is hoped that future studies can expand on this research. Lastly, it is acknowledged that while GRS seems to influence coaches' lives positively, there are external factors that the organisation cannot control. Thus the results of the programme, for instance that the SROI ratio was positive and that more coaches moved onto EET, are dependent upon the number of jobs and opportunities available.

The findings of this study can be described as preliminary as they are based on forecasted future outcomes and assumptions about outcomes relating to external stakeholders.

Notwithstanding that, the researchers have confidence in the method for valuing the inputs and outcomes related to the coaches and their families, the staff and volunteers as these stakeholders are within the programme's sphere of influence. Therefore the calculations provided should be viewed as fair estimations within a confidence interval rather than as definitive findings. Furthermore, the true social return on investment is believed to be significantly higher than indicated as many potential stakeholders positively impacted on by the programme were excluded from this study and the estimations were conservative.

Despite the study's limitations, it is anticipated that its findings will hold true for a wider audience and will fill a gap in both youth work and SDP literature. Persons that implement SDP or youth-led programmes tend to be regarded as inputs in a results chain rather than as beneficiaries. Therefore the effects on implementers are rarely subject to evaluation and research (Coalter 2008) even though their work determines much of the success of programmes and they may experience various outcomes as a result of their involvement. This is important to take into account in the context of youth work since implementers of SDP programmes are often youths themselves.

Furthermore, it is clear that SDP initiatives aimed at the youth or youth work programmes are interlinked. Sport can be a cost-effective tool for engaging young people in something they can relate to and enjoy. The concept of the youth educating the youth is common in the SDP field. Peer education allows young people to relate to a role model who can communicate with them about sensitive issues that may be too challenging for teachers, parents or health officials (Barkley, Warren, and Sanders 2016).

As indicated in the study, the positive effects of an SDP programme are not limited to programme participants—such effects may extend to peer educators. Young people trained as peer educators increase their skill sets and gain valuable leadership and work experience when they implement programmes, which may boost their self-esteem and reduce their vulnerability to pressures that can lead to risky behaviours (Mwaanga as cited in Levermore and Beacom, 2004). Involving young people in all stages of programme design, planning, delivery and evaluation nurtures a sense of control and individual and collective responsibility and empowerment (Coalter 2013, 11). This study reinforces claims in the literature that volunteering has the effect of generating individual benefits extending beyond those resulting from the act of volunteering itself (Wilson and Musick 1999).

The benefits derived from the GRS programme have been shown to be partly the result of training and capacity building (as well as a curriculum that GRS has designed for its coaches) but also of on-the-job training and the provision of a structured work experience. Most GRS coaches get their first genuine work experience when they join the programme, and they get the opportunity to develop the skills, confidence and experience needed to progress further in employment, education or training. It is suggested that training programmes combined with hands-on experience are more likely to be effective than stand-alone training programmes.

In addition, these benefits clearly extend beyond the individual: the SROI approach demonstrates tangibly that the benefits extend to the family, broader community, government, education institutions and employers. This seems to reinforce the claim of Coalter (2013, 35) that the development of peer leaders, coaches and educators in SDP programmes is “a major part of the contribution of sport-in-development projects to the development of civil society.”

It is important to note that outcomes among implementers or peer educators tend to be measured and judged at an individual or community level. However, the use of a SROI methodology that takes stakeholders and the broader interconnectedness and complexity of development into consideration is likely to provide a more realistic and holistic framing of the outcomes (if any) of a programme—this can show the actual contribution of an intervention to broader facets of society instead of only its contribution based on individual or anecdotal claims. Thus, while the SROI methodology may be viewed as reductionist in the sense that it seeks to monetise returns, it can be an effective results-based management approach to demonstrate the worth (or lack of worth) of an intervention. This approach may be regarded as a positive response to constant calls to address the lack of rigour and cost-effectiveness underlying many SDP and youth development initiatives, and it may appeal to the private sector and other development actors who insist on a return on investment. Admittedly, the SROI approach does not replace other research approaches and is best used alongside existing programme evaluations, as was done in this study.

Conclusion

The findings from the study indicate that structured sport-based programmes can put youths from historically disadvantaged backgrounds to work in a constructive manner. It is recommended that the youth work profession recognises the role that sport can play in youth development, especially in the SDP field. For its part, the SDP field should engage with the

youth work sector more meaningfully to determine the optimal role of sport in positive youth development, which is essential given sport's innate ability to attract and engage young people in a "youth-friendly" manner. A well-designed sport-based intervention can strengthen the fields of youth work and development. An integrated approach using sport for youth development may be a worthwhile investment and provide positive returns for society at large, including capacity building, employment, economic growth and social change. The SROI methodology and the synergies between youth development and sport for development and peace clearly merit greater investment, recognition and research. Potentially it is a winning combination.



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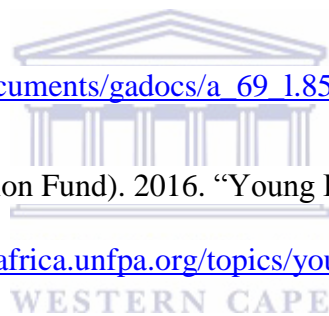
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Appendix to Publication

An acceptance letter from Professor Khan, editor in chief of the journal, providing written consent to reproduce the article as part of the doctoral study, is listed as Appendix T.

The following research tools were used and are attached in the appendices:

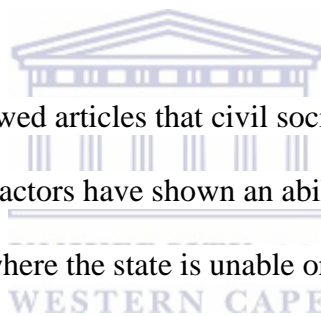
- SROI coach questionnaire Education or Training (Appendix L)
- SROI coach questionnaire Employment (Appendix M)
- SROI coach questionnaire Not in Employment, Education or Training (Appendix N)
- SROI staff questionnaire (Appendix O)
- SROI intern questionnaire (Appendix P)

5.5 Concluding Thoughts

It is clear from the two peer reviewed articles that civil society actors, including NPOs, have a vital role to play in SDP. These actors have shown an ability to deliver programmes effectively, often filling the gap where the state is unable or unwilling to intervene. Further, the second study shows that there is a tangible return on investment from an SDP initiative, important considering the lack of evidence on proven cost-effective approaches in SDP.

Nonetheless, it is important that civil society actors are not constrained by a service delivery or programmatic role, as they can fulfil a range of other functions, including influencing the state through advocacy and other means, and voicing the needs of marginalised communities.

As recommended in the first article, a partnership policy model is preferred, which links to the crosscutting need for cooperative governance and identifying optimal responsibilities, roles and arrangements for the public sector, civil society and academic sector in SDP.



6. ROLE OF ACADEMIC SECTOR IN SPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT AND PEACE

This chapter will explore the role of the academic sector in SDP. This will include a journal article that considers how the academic sector can contribute most meaningfully to SDP. This includes analysing cases of South African universities and their current commitments to sport and development, while also drawing on the views of key SDP experts. It seeks to determine the optimal role and responsibility for the academic sector to ensure it is most effective, in conjunction with other actors, in ensuring sport can result in development and peace.

The next section contains the following journal article as accepted for publication in the *South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation*:

Sanders, B & Keim, M. (2017) How Should Universities Play the Game? A Critical Examination of the Role of the Academic Sector in Sport for Development and Peace in South Africa. *South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation*. Volume 39 (3).



Ben Sanders was the main contributing author to the journal article and also served as the corresponding author, handling correspondence with the *South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation*. He conceptualised the study, collected and analysed the data, synthesised the research findings, consulted the broader literature and was responsible for drafting the article from conception to the final accepted version.

Professor Marion Keim provided technical assistance, referred to the student to relevant literature, including her own contributions to the subject matter, and provided expert inputs. Furthermore, Professor Keim reviewed the drafts, helped to locate the study in a broader global setting and provided final approval of the version to be published.

6.1 How Should Universities Play the Game? A Critical Examination of the Role of the Academic Sector in Sport for Development and Peace in South Africa

Abstract

Sport for Development and Peace (SDP) refers to the use of sport to promote varied outcomes on and beyond the playing field. It encompasses a range of initiatives and stakeholders including multilateral agencies, governments and civil society. While multiple benefits may be achieved through sport, critics cite a lack of rigorous research, monitoring and evaluation and urge against oversimplified notions of sport. The academic sector, with expertise in research, teaching and learning, is well positioned to fill this gap. This study contributes to SDP as an emerging field by exploring the role(s) of the academic sector, in particular universities. The study focuses on South Africa, with an overview of the policy environment and institutional arrangements for Sport and Recreation. The study analyses the way in which various South African universities are engaged in SDP. Qualitative methods of data collection were used, including key informant interviews, focus group discussions, desk-top review and document analysis. The study found academic institutions can strengthen research, teaching and learning in SDP and help inform evidence-based practice and policy. Better collaboration is needed within and between the academic sector, government and civil society as well as an improved North-South exchange for universities.

Keywords: Sport; Recreation; Sport for development and peace; Government; Civil society; Universities; Monitoring and evaluation.

Introduction

This article is part of a larger study that explores the roles of the state, civil society and academic sector in Sport for Development and Peace (SDP), with literature complimented by comparative case studies of each sector in South Africa. The role(s) universities play (and can

play) with key stakeholders in SDP is explored, including research, monitoring and evaluation (M&E), teaching and learning, capacity building, policy and advocacy. Empirical research centres exist at various academic institutions in South Africa, including the University of the Western Cape (UWC), University of Cape Town (UCT), University of Stellenbosch (US), the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT), the University of the Witwatersrand (WITS) and the University of Johannesburg (UJ), which have been selected for this study.

A debate on the role of universities cannot occur without clarifying the relationship between universities, civil society and the state. Good governance, including effective and strong collaboration between government entities, and between the State and civil society is essential for the success of development initiatives (Giese & Sanders, 2008). In South Africa, cooperative governance is a central tenet of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996). Section 41 calls on all spheres of government and organs of state to co-operate by fostering friendly relations, assisting and supporting one another, informing one another, consulting on matters of common interest, and co-ordinating actions and legislation. The role of universities in SDP is interconnected to the role of the State and civil society.

The academic sector refers to higher education establishments, such as tertiary institutions and training colleges, and excludes formal primary and secondary schooling (Scott *et al.*, 2007). Higher education establishments provide academic programmes and expertise.

Technically this sector is part of civil society and sits largely outside state control. It is vital to note that education is a continuum and tertiary institutions are influenced by the success of primary and secondary schooling beforehand, among other factors. The challenges that continue to plague public schools in South Africa may therefore impact the tertiary sector, including its possible role in SDP.

Background

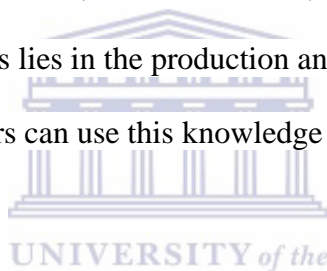
It is important to consider the overall role of universities in development and peace before debating their role in SDP. While international development and cooperation has largely been seen as the domain of government, civil society and aid agencies, universities are gaining increasing recognition globally as stakeholders, who can make valuable contributions (Neave, 2000; Unceta, 2007). Similarly, universities themselves are beginning to envisage broader roles related to such issues (Zezeza & Olukoshi, 2004; Keim *et al.*, 2011). This is pertinent given globalisation and the increasing interconnectedness and complexity of development. Daniel Sanders (1994:51) stated:

The role of universities in peace and social development has to be viewed in the context of pressing global problems and the central issue of human survival in an increasingly interdependent world... It is also presumptuous to think that any one institution or group by itself – be it the United Nations, the non-governmental organisations or universities – could deal with problems that are unprecedented in terms of increases in rate, scale and complexity.

However, while universities can play a role in international development, there are significant, and often, conflicting differences among universities both within, and between countries and regions, including the ‘North-South divide’ (Preece, 2009). Furthermore, it is important to note that divides also exist within the Global South (and North) and South Africa is no exception with the highest Gini Coefficient in the world (World Bank, 2015). These inequities are reflected among universities, with the greatest concentration of tertiary institutions and associated research in Gauteng and the Western Cape, provinces with greater access to resources than other provinces. As such, certain universities and regions within South Africa do not receive as much recognition as others, an issue which needs to be addressed locally and globally. In addition, it is increasingly difficult and problematic to distinguish between the North and South developed and developing nations. Nonetheless,

Arrighi *et al.* (2003) argue that widespread convergence in the degree of industrialisation between former First and Third World countries over the past four decades has *not* been associated with convergence in regard to income levels that remain skewed. Thus, one must note that significant differences remain in regard to resources, status and knowledge production between universities located in the global North versus the South. As Keim and De Coning (2015) point out, three times as many scientific papers are published per person in Western Europe, North America, and Japan, than in any other region.

Additionally, universities vary greatly in terms of philosophy, mission, tradition, level of education, as well as the degree to which they emphasise research, learning, teaching, service, programming and community outreach (Keim *et al.*, 2011). Nonetheless, it seems that the major expected role of universities lies in the production and transfer of knowledge to ensure that practitioners and policymakers can use this knowledge to inform policies, plans and projects.

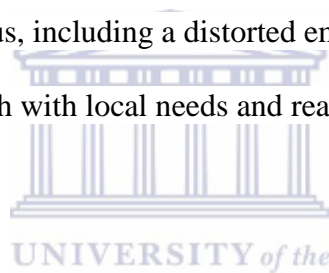


An inherent risk is that not all knowledge and technology may be beneficial for development. Conflict theorists would argue that much research and knowledge production is used to protect vested interests of an economic, industrialised elite (Rydin, 2007). On the contrary, research and knowledge production can be conducted in a participatory manner, with the very communities and people that development projects are intended to serve. Fals Borda and Rahman (1991) claim that serving both academic and community needs is possible, more ethical yet more time-consuming. While universities are intended to possess a sense of academic freedom, it must be realised that they are increasingly subject to political pressure and external forces (Sanders, 1994).

Despite clear differences, it is clear that a common objective for universities in an interconnected global order is internationalisation. In higher education, this can be seen as

“the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education” (Knight, 2003:2). This results in increasing connections between universities in different parts of the globe, including the recruitment and transfer of international students, exchange programmes for staff and students and internationalisation (some may say westernisation) of curricula and teaching methods (Khorsandi, 2014). This development has precipitated global competition among institutions. While internationalisation may stimulate inter-university learning and possible sharing of resources and best practices, it has been critiqued for increasing inequalities across universities and regions, reducing higher education to a commodity within a reductionist economic model (De Wit, 2011). This can result in universities being preoccupied with international positioning and status, including a distorted emphasis on international publications, possibly losing touch with local needs and realities.

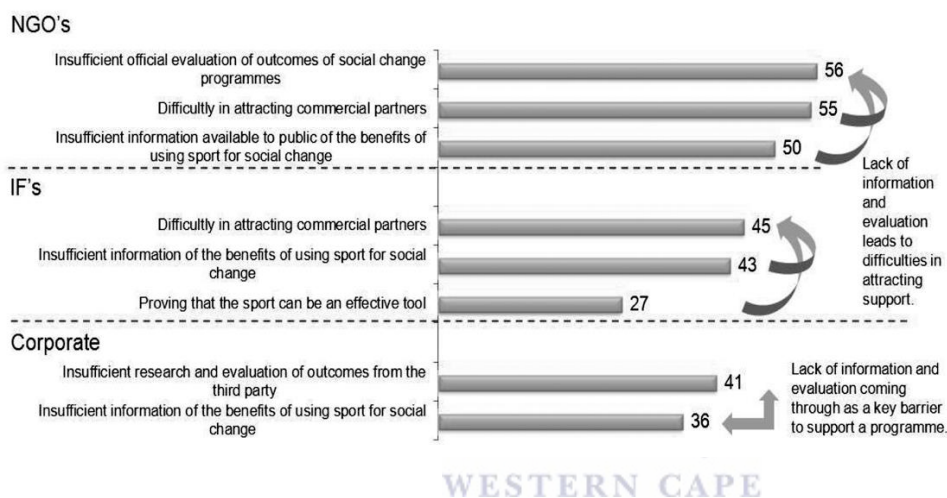
Universities in the SDP Field



Despite these challenges, universities can still fulfil a critical function in SDP, working with civil society and the State. Keim *et al.* (2011) identified various ways in which universities can play a role in SDP, including research, monitoring and evaluation; teaching, training and capacity-building; skills and knowledge transfer to civil society and stakeholders; community outreach, engagement and development; technical assistance from experts and specialists; stimulating critical thinking around issues of sport, development and peace; partnerships, collaboration among and between universities and civil society; publication of best practices and challenges to inform better programming; and academic freedom and objectivity in evaluating SDP.

Expanding on the above, a common critique of SDP is the lack of evidence base, rigorous research and poorly conceptualised theories of change. Market research has shown that all

stakeholders in SDP, whether practitioners or funders, see evaluation and information as a barrier to setting up, running and supporting initiatives as illustrated in Figure 1 below (Beyond Sport *et al.*, 2010). This figure shows that lack of information and evaluation is a key barrier for corporates to supporting SDP programmes (as opposed to other programmes). Similarly, this barrier affects the ability of international federations and NGOs to attract support and funding for their work. The numbers indicate the percentage of NGOs, federations and corporates that identified these issues.



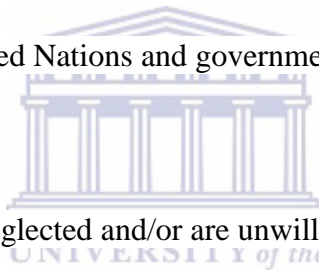
NGO=Non-Governmental Organisation IF=International Federation

Figure 1. BARRIERS TO SUPPORTING PROGRAMMES USING SPORT FOR SOCIAL CHANGE (Beyond Sport *et al.*, 2010:8)

Research conducted at the 2005 Magglingen Conference demonstrated that university participants were more likely to critique SDP policies, plans and programmes (Rato & Ley, 2006). This critical independence gives universities a valuable ‘watchdog’ role to play in SDP though it is recognised universities may themselves have their own biases and/or external agendas. Universities have great potential to play an advocacy role and their ‘objectivity’ and critical independence may allow them to assist other SDP actors in influencing policy environments and strategic plans (Keim *et al.*, 2011). Furthermore,

universities may be best suited to bridge the gap between the State, civil society and academia, ultimately helping to institutionalise cooperative governance within the SDP sector (Keim & Groenewald, 2014).

Despite this, universities remain largely on the side lines of SDP. While various conferences and fora have been convened by universities in the last decade, their involvement tends to be limited to theoretical discourse and an advisory role. Universities are conspicuous by their absence in the United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace (UNOSDP) Report, “Harnessing the Power of Sport for Development and Peace”. They are not included in the twenty-five recommendations for government nor as key stakeholders in the peace building matrix, which makes mention of community leaders, teachers, coaches and top athletes, heads of NGOs, the United Nations and government organisations (SDPIWG, 2008:234).



It seems universities have been neglected and/or are unwilling to engage deeply in this field. Van Eekeren (2006:1) claims that until recently SDP research was seen as “academic suicide”. While this has changed over the last two decades, partly due to the internationalisation of SDP and of universities, two simultaneous but interconnected processes, sport is often stigmatised as less worthy of rigorous research. Nixon and Frey (1996:1) claim people eulogise about sporting conquests but “their eyes often seem to glaze over when sport is mentioned in the same breath as economics, politics, poverty, pollution, racial and gender discrimination, crime or the quality of education”. Furthermore, much research around sport is centred on sport management, sport science, nutrition, psychology and high performance rather than SDP.

The divide between the Global North and South is pronounced in SDP. While most programmes occur in the Global South, the reality remains that most knowledge production

resides in the North and there are few examples of genuine North-South partnerships (Lindsey *et al.*, 2015). Cynical observers may argue organisations in the South are expected to deliver grassroots work for North based actors to conduct ‘new’ research and/or maintain existing patterns of power, privilege and inequality (Keim & De Coning, 2015).

Universities and SDP in South Africa

The South African National Sport and Recreation Plan (NSRP) outlines an integrated national sport and recreation system with an M&E framework. The SRSA (2012:64) states “there should be only two macro drivers of sport and recreation in the country, namely Government (all 3 spheres) and one NGO (South African Sport Confederation and Olympic Committee [SASCOC])”. The NSRP positions government as responsible for: policy, legislation and infrastructure; creating an enabling environment for all to partake in sport and recreation; and promoting and developing the sports economy and industry in all its facets. SASCOC is responsible for leading civil society in translating policy into action; implementing policy, creating programmes in a system of good governance; and acting as an umbrella body for the overall sport sector. However, there is an inherent danger in SASCOC leading and/or representing the multiple stakeholders that make up civil society, including the academic sector, NGOs, faith-based organisations, student groups, political parties etc. Further, SASCOC has primarily focused on the output of sporting federations, especially national teams, meaning it has a skewed focus on elite sport. While the NSRP acknowledges that the scope of SASCOC needs to change given the new institutional arrangements, the confederation may find it difficult to articulate all the needs of civil society, especially the academic sector.

As such, universities are barely noted in the NSRP of 2012. There is no articulation of the value of the academic sector and it is conspicuous by its absence in the demarcation of roles

and responsibilities. There is brief mention of the role university sport has to play, but this undermines the inherent strength of the academic sector in providing scientific research, rigorous evidence and M&E, all of which allow it to influence policy and advocate strongly for SDP. The lack of reference in the NSRP does not mean that universities are not part of SDP in South Africa. Many tertiary institutions contribute meaningfully to the discourse, including regular conferences and fora convened by universities, as well as research networks. Furthermore, a number of academic staff continue to advise the state on their sport and recreation policy, including SDP.

Research Problem

The study focuses on South Africa, with an overview of the policy environment and institutional arrangements for Sport and Recreation. An analysis of the way in which various South African universities are engaged in Sport for Development and Peace (SDP), forms the major content. It is intended to contribute to SDP as an emerging field of study by exploring the role(s) that can be played by the academic sector, in particular, universities.

Research Methodology

Table 1: Universities selected for the study and their relation to SDP

University	Status/History	Focus area in sport
University of the Western Cape (UWC) (2010)	Founded in 1960 as a constituent college. Gained university status in 1970. (ICESSD, 2016)	Interdisciplinary Centre dedicated exclusively to sport and development across Africa and has conducted much research in sport, development and peace. Provides teaching and learning in Sport and Development and Peace (ICESSD) including an international Diploma in Sport & Exercise Science (SRES)
University of Cape Town (UCT) (2016)	Founded in 1829, ranked Africa's leading teaching and research institution	Centre dedicated to Sport Science, Nutrition and High Performance (SISSA) Teaching of Sport Management
University of Stellenbosch (US) (2016)	Founded in 1864 and became an Afrikaans language university	Centre dedicated to Sport Science and a research journal in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation
Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT) (2016)	University of Technology with ±32,000 students. Established in 2005 when Cape Technikon and Peninsula Technikon merged. Has roots in the Cape Technical College, founded in 1920.	Offers a range of diplomas and degrees related to sport management and marketing.
University of the Witwatersrand (WITS) (2016a&b)	Founded in 1896. Now a multi-campus public research university situated in central Johannesburg	Operates a FIFA (<i>Fédération Internationale de Football Association</i>) accredited Centre for Exercise Science and Sports Medicine.
University of Johannesburg (UJ)	Founded in 1967 (as Rand Afrikaans University). Four campuses and ±48,000 students, following a merger in 2005.	Olympic Studies Centre and has conducted much research in sport and development issues.

SDP=Sport and Development and Peace

UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE

Research setting

South Africa boasts 26 universities. Five out of the six universities in this study are ranked in the top seven South African universities (Webometrics, 2016). A brief overview of these universities is listed in Table 1. While the institutions may not focus primarily on SDP, they incorporate elements of SDP into their work. All the universities boast sport infrastructure and competition and some offer sport-based community outreach.

Ethical clearance

Permission and ethics clearance (Registration no.: 15/6/2) were obtained from the Senate Research Committee at UWC. Further permission was obtained from research participants who provided signed and informed consent.

Research approach

This study uses a qualitative case study approach to ascertain the role(s) of universities in SDP in South Africa. A case study was undertaken of UWC, UCT, US, CPUT, WITS and UJ and their activities in the SDP field. The population includes key stakeholders at these institutions and other experts.

Data collection methods

This involved a document and online review of the work of the universities, including meeting minutes, evaluations and reports. Key informant interviews and focus groups were held with academic staff and other SDP experts. Open-ended questions with a purpose rather than formal events with predetermined responses (Marshall & Rossman, 1994) were used to investigate specific outcomes based on the approach of Taplin *et al.* (2013).

Analysis of data

Qualitative analysis accompanied by data collection were the two processes that tend to occur simultaneously. Focus groups were analysed using case study procedures (Creswell *et al.* 2007) starting with the transcription of information from audio-tape recordings. Analysis included reading transcripts several times to identify recurrent and most important themes (Popay *et al.*, 2006). An independent researcher read transcripts and created themes (for comparison) thus increasing the validity and reliability of the categorising. Prolonged engagement, persistent observation and member checks applied. The research design can be modified for varied settings and is not limited to one case study (Guba & Lincoln, 1981). The research will be disseminated with participants and key stakeholders in order for them to use findings.

Delimitation and limitations

The scope of the study has the following delimitations. Firstly, it focuses primarily on South Africa, though it is hoped the findings are relevant for a broader audience. Secondly, it focuses on universities though it must be noted the academic sector is much broader. Furthermore, it has selected six of the largest and most influential universities for the study, though there are a total of 26 universities in the country, differing in scope, scale and size. Lastly, the study focuses only on universities in the Western Cape and Gauteng, and excludes other sites.

Results

While much research in SDP has focused on the individual outcomes of programmes, little attention has been paid to organisational and institutional outcomes among key stakeholders (Coalter, 2010; Coakley, 2014). Findings illustrate universities face a range of opportunities and challenges in SDP, and can play a role in strengthening the field, in relation to research and M&E; policy and agenda setting; teaching, learning and professional preparation; community development ensuring that principles translate into best practices.

Research, monitoring and evaluation

Universities can make a major contribution in lending academic expertise and capacitating SDP actors to conduct scientific research. Burnett (2016) and others feel universities are well suited to conduct high level systems research and not only programmatic assessments. In addition, universities can assist with participatory and ethical processes related to research in SDP.

We need universities to help with research so that we can build an evidence base. This is especially important as sport for development is an emerging field. (Government official)

Universities can do much to bolster the capacity of SDP actors to better monitor and evaluate their work, and better communicate results internally and externally. SDP actors identified the need for “improved reporting, including better data collection and improved quality of information” (Collins & Mungal, 2016: Interview). This is seen as necessary for funding and donor/sponsor relations (external) and improved programmes and operations (internal).

Policy and agenda setting

Universities have a unique role to play in policy and advocacy. While SDP actors often lobby the State to include SDP in national development policies and strategies, this is far more effective when results have been verified externally, where universities fit the bill perfectly with their ‘critical independence’. A notable example is the Western Cape Department of Cultural Affairs and Sport (DCAS) that commissioned a university to produce a ‘Case for Sport’ report which was used to successfully lobby provincial treasury for funding (Bouah, 2016). The Department works with universities to convene a regular annual conference to bridge the divides between practitioners and academics.

Teaching, learning and professional preparation

All institutions surveyed offer academic programmes and services related to sport. However, as with many other universities globally and linked to the internationalisation of higher education, the focus tends to be sport science, high performance sport, sport nutrition, sport management and administration. Nonetheless, there is an increased portfolio of diplomas and degrees related to SDP, including a number of courses and qualifications offered internationally.

If universities only teach subjects tied to the business of sport, then graduates won't get jobs.

Sport for development has more opportunities and the need is greater. It must be included.

(Government official)

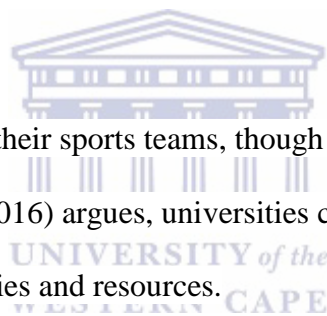
Community development

While the strength of universities lies in research, teaching and learning, there is no need for institutions to be limited in this regard. Many universities run community outreach projects, often on campus, that can be connected to SDP.

Universities have a standing in communities and a resource base of staff and students who may be mobilised to both deliver and receive SDP interventions in a powerful manner.

(P. Singh, 2016: Interview)

Universities pride themselves on their sports teams, though this may fall more in the realm of elite sport. However, as Bouah (2016) argues, universities can also contribute to SDP by enabling others to use their facilities and resources.



From principle to practice

Interactions among universities and practitioners illustrate the gap that can exist between principle and practice in global development, including SDP. Universities should not function as ivory towers removed from communities.

We need to build evidence and theory in the Global South, including Africanisation of curricula. We cannot not just oppose the Global North. (Academic)

Discussion

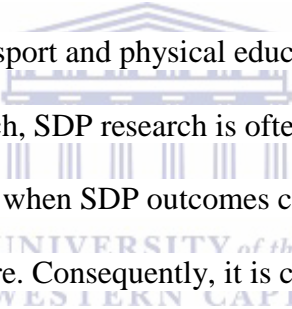
It is clear universities can add value to SDP in areas, such as research, M&E, policy and agenda setting, teaching, learning, professional preparation and community development,

including service and outreach. Internationalisation presents a challenge and opportunity to institutions, which need to ensure they respond to local community needs while competing in a global world order.

Keim *et al.* (2011) argue that academic and intellectual discourse must be translated into tangible learning for practitioners, who may have many of the answers they seek. Universities should not use a social control and deficit-reduction model (Darnell & Hayhurst, 2012) in which practitioners are seen as lacking skills or knowledge. This is equally relevant with regard to interaction among universities. While the practice of north-driven funders dictating terms of development to south-based organisations needs to change quickly (Darnell, 2007), universities in the Global North and South can form equitable partnerships. Lessons of experience can be shared and there is a clear need for universities in the global south to produce more SDP graduates. On this note, it is encouraging that certain South African universities are partnering with Global North institutions to offer joint SDP qualifications. Hopefully others will follow to ensure more academics are produced in areas where SDP initiatives are most needed, allowing for greater cultural sensitivity and a better balance between the need for academic rigour and local relevance.

As mentioned, there are clear divides between universities in South Africa. The latest QS World University Ranking shows the top fields of study at South Africa's best universities. Sport is not listed as a stand-alone subject, let alone SDP, but South African universities show expertise in development studies. "South African institutions receive their highest rankings in the new subject of Development Studies, in which University of Cape Town is 7th worldwide, and University of The Witwatersrand ties for 15th" (Webometrics, 2016:online). While this is promising, it is crucial that imbalances in power and production of knowledge among tertiary institutions are addressed to ensure greater diversity and inclusivity of voices that may too play a role in SDP.

Academic research is likely to hold more value when accompanied by experiences from the field. In this sense, universities can both deliver and evaluate SDP programmes, though delivering services may reduce their 'objective' advantage. It is thus recommended that universities maintain their focus along their lines of expertise in providing academic support and experimental methodology in data collection and analysis (Collins & Mungal, 2016). If universities venture into programme delivery, it should be to critically analyse methodologies and develop effective strategies to enhance the SDP field, including equipping students with practical experience, rather than the delivery of programmes. This is crucial so as not to duplicate the work of civil society and blur roles and responsibilities of the various actors within SDP.



A challenge for universities is that sport and physical education, including SDP, is often not taken seriously in academia. As such, SDP research is often underfunded and remains the domain of a sport department only, when SDP outcomes can be much broader including business, health, education and more. Consequently, it is clear that universities must adopt an interdisciplinary approach as other disciplines can lend considerable expertise, while SDP will strengthen if other development actors realise the value of sport beyond the playing field.

Universities may assist practitioners and funding agencies alike to understand that measuring social change is complex and that hard targets may be the best way to appease investors, but not always the most effective way to measure and/or understand change. Universities can assist practitioners, frequently located in the global south, to better measure, explain and reflect their work, while also ensuring that funders, agencies and academics, often based in the global north, are able to better understand possible complexities and contradictions of SDP work.

Practical Application and Recommendations

There are eight practical application and recommendations for universities that are evident from this research. Universities should play to their inherent strengths in research, teaching and learning in the following ways:

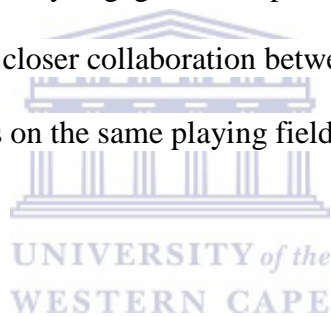
- (1) Use these strengths to improve programmes rather than delivering them directly and support the State in terms of regulating SDP through legislation, policy and creating an enabling environment;
- (2) Lobby and advocate for greater investment in SDP;
- (3) Promote an interdisciplinary approach by working across university faculties and with partners in the field;
- (4) Bridge the gap between principle and practice, managing the tension between delivering high-brow publications and doing relevant practical research in the field;
- (5) Share research with beneficiaries, implementing partners and stakeholders (including other universities), so that results are publicly available, useable and not duplicated unnecessarily;
- (6) Ensure ethical considerations are adhered to; and
- (7) Ensure sporting opportunities are available to all students and staff, regardless of race, gender, ability or any other status.

Conclusion

The academic sector can play a major role in SDP given the lack of rigorous evidence cited by proponents of SDP. Universities can strengthen research and evidence-based practice and assist with the institutionalisation of results-based M&E systems. Universities can promote a

culture of teaching and learning, including ethical, participatory research among practitioners, while remaining a critical and independent voice for policy and advocacy purposes.

International aid agencies, national states, regional and local governments, and civil society actors, including the non-profit sector, need to better recognise the unique ability of universities to strengthen them as institutions and drive the SDP sector forward. There is no point in universities existing for their own sake, as they should also be committed to serve human causes. The academic sector needs to engage more beneficially with practitioners and stakeholders to ensure efforts in the classroom are aligned to the needs of communities, who should be involved fully in these processes. The academic sector should also recognise, value and appreciate its potential community engagement impact, including SDP, besides its research focus. There needs to be closer collaboration between universities, government and civil society to ensure everyone is on the same playing field.



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6.2 Conclusion

The study highlighted that one way to strengthen the field of SDP can be by facilitating greater engagement from, and with, the academic sector. The academic sector can strengthen research, teaching and learning processes and produce a cadre of critical thinking SDP practitioners and policy makers, helping to build capacity. The academic sector can help connect the gaps between theory, policy and practice and provide a more objective, and if need be critical, voice to ensure the SDP sector is just, equitable and well informed.

It is clear that the academic sector needs to better engage with stakeholders in the SDP field, work in an inter-disciplinary and multi-disciplinary fashion, and simultaneously be recognised by others as an important stakeholder in its own right. This ties in to greater collaboration with the state and civil society, and ultimately cooperative governance. Once again for such cooperation to be truly effective and sustained, a clear understanding of the optimal roles and responsibilities of the public sector, civil society and academic sector is needed.

Appendix to Publication

All supporting documents are attached in Appendix U. This includes an acceptance letter from Professor Moss, editor of the journal, providing written consent to reproduce the article

as part of the doctoral study. It also includes a Cover Letter (which accompanied the original submission) and a Rebuttal Letter (which accompanied the revised submission following the editorial comments). Reviewer comments are also attached.

Lastly the following research tools are attached:

- In-depth interview guide for SDP Experts and Practitioners (Appendix C)
- Focus group discussion guide for SDP Experts and Practitioners (Appendix Q)

7. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The studies undertaken in this doctorate, as well as a broader literature review, demonstrate that real potential exists for the SDP sector to make a greater impact upon pressing social issues. However, while many notable efforts and outcomes have been achieved, the SDP sector remains loosely coordinated and still faces difficulty in being incorporated into, or recognised by, mainstream development efforts. The recent closure of the United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace (UNOSDP) would seem to indicate that while progress has been made, there is still a way to go in genuinely mainstreaming SDP globally.

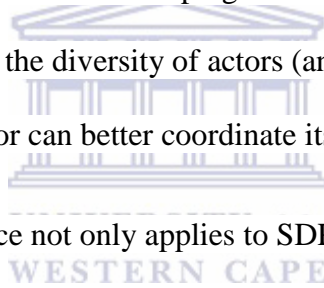
Furthermore, it is clear that a focus on showing impact and proving results, while admirable, has resulted in SDP efforts primarily concerned with programmatic outputs and outcomes. Many actors, especially those from civil society, are thus located in an intervention policy model where cooperation is often viewed as a hindrance to delivery or an arena policy model where they compete with other stakeholders for limited resources in the market place.

While the focus on results is understandable, it is equally important to consider broader issues related to governance. There is little literature on the optimal governance systems or structures related to SDP. Many studies focus on the vague and broad language of partnerships, without specifying how partnerships should be formed, what roles and

responsibilities should be filled and what arrangements are needed for partnerships to form and flourish (Lindsey, 2016). Even the best intentions to partner may be difficult to achieve without a deeper understanding of the possible roles of the various sectors engaged in SDP. Furthermore, the use of conflict theory forces us to acknowledge that actors are often in conflict, and competing, with each other (as per the arena policy model described), and that partnerships may not always be possible or preferred. Nonetheless solutions do need to be found and a structural functionalist approach is used to complement the use of conflict theory to ensure that tangible, realistic roles and responsibilities are charted for the relevant sectors.

7.1 Governance as a Goal

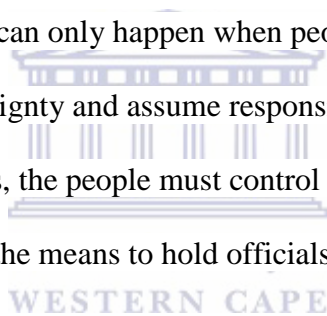
The researcher does recognise that while developing a framework for cooperative governance of SDP may be challenging given the diversity of actors (and their intentions) in the sector, it remains critical to ensure the sector can better coordinate its efforts to drive greater change.



In addition, the issue of governance not only applies to SDP initiatives but also to the broader governance of the sport industry. It remains difficult for sport to be taken seriously as a tool for development when sport federations, and other actors, remain embroiled in scandals related to corruption, match fixing, doping and more. This was recognised as an issue at the 6th International Conference of Ministers Responsible for Sport and Physical Education (MINEPS VI) in July, 2017 where the newly adopted Kazan Action Plan includes a commitment to “unifying and further developing international standards supporting sport ministers’ interventions in the field of sport integrity.” (Dudfield, 2017). SDP actors need to recognise their place in the ecosystem of the overall sport sector, commit to integrity in their work and understand the need and responsibility to drive greater integrity in the industry.

While scholars such as Grindle and Thomas (1991) have differentiated between state and society centred approaches to governance, it is crucial to note the wide array of public

management and governance paradigms that may occupy space in between these two approaches. The researcher has previously made the point that SDP actors need to take a *people-centred* approach (Sanders, 2010). This has an emphasis on local involvement by arguing that the majority of the population must participate in development for any venture to be successful. This is part of the move away from centralised power to the local control of resources. Governance, rather than government, should point the way forward. That is, the state should seek to involve the populace in an equal dialogue at all levels (Roodt, 2001: 474). A vibrant and diverse Civil Society is seen as essential to participatory development since it will keep the established powers (e.g. state and business) in check. This approach is best described by David Korten (1990: 218), founder of the People-Centred Development Forum, who claims development can only happen when people and communities direct the process. “To exercise their sovereignty and assume responsibility for the development of themselves and their communities, the people must control their own resources, have access to relevant information and have the means to hold officials of government accountable.”



Examples of Good Governance

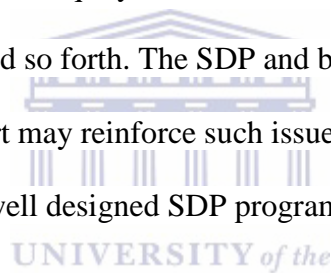
A number of cross cutting themes related to good governance are relevant to this study.

The formulation of effective and relevant policy is regarded as a fundamental function of good governance (Cloete & De Coning, 2011: 66). While this responsibility is usually laid at the door of the state, other actors can influence the policy making and goal setting process, and hold the state accountable to deliver on such policies and objectives. Policy needs to be dictated to by setting a clear vision and goals, which are vital components of governance.

As mentioned above with regard to a people-centred approach, governance needs to serve the needs of the people, ensuring democracy, transparency, accountability and social justice issues (Nko, 2017; Huntington, 2012; Bendana 2005). It has been mentioned in the literature

that development needs to be regarded in terms of its human impact. Transparency and accountability are crucial here. As Nko (2017:135) states: “Transparency as a function of good governance is built on the easy and free flow of information, which is accessible to those who consume it, and that enough information is available to understand the message and monitor the actions...for accountability, decision-makers in government, the private sector, and civil society organisations are accountable to the public as well as institutional stakeholders”. These principles can be applied equally to all role players in the SDP field.

Linked to the above is the need for governance to ensure equity. Much has been mentioned in this study about the need to allocate greater resources to SDP efforts rather than elite or competitive sport. It is important that equity takes into account greater structural issues, such as gender, race, level of ability and so forth. The SDP and broader sport sector need to take cognisance of these issues as sport may reinforce such issues and stereotypes in configured in certain ways. On the other hand well designed SDP programmes can challenge such issues.



As emphasised in the fieldwork, M&E is vital to the success of SDP initiatives, and there are huge variances in the capacity for, and commitment to, M&E among the public sector, civil society and the academic sector. Evaluation and results-based management are crucial components of governance (Cloete, Rabie & De Coning, 2015: 300). The sentiments in this research that civil society actors can show the way forward with M&E are echoed by EvalPartners (2012: 1) who state: “Civil society organisations in general, and voluntary organisations must play a key role in influencing and enhancing the demand for evaluation and the use of evaluation results; in developing the capacity of national and local authorities, as well as communities, NGOs, academia and the private sector, to endorse and support evaluations of their own policies and programmes.”

There are many more principles of good governance, including partnerships and good relationships, shared decision-making, implementation, resource mobilisation and adjudication, as well as collaboration and cooperation. The latter will be explored below.

7.2 Collaboration and Cooperation

Of course there are risks, as well as time and opportunity costs associated with collaboration, but possible benefits are greater. This would help avoid a scenario all too common in the development sector, and SDP is no exception, when actors with similar goals operate in silos. Such sectionalism has a reductionist effect since organisations are less effective alone than when they pool resources and ideas. As Sindall (1997: 6) says: “systems become essentially self-referential dominated by their own language and communicative processes, convinced of the primacy of their own functions.” Cooperation may prevent silos or sectionalism and if coordinated well, may ensure that outcomes are shared and thus more likely to be achieved.

It may prove useful to look to developing countries where the majority of SDP initiatives are delivered, for direction on optimal arrangements for SDP. The concept of a developmental state, first raised in post-apartheid South Africa, does resonate beyond this state’s borders as it seeks a broader role for the state which combines oversight and intervention. Other developing countries face similar issues as South Africa in that resources are limited and social issues are pronounced. It is thus encouraging that government officials in countries like South Africa, at national and provincial level, recognise the need for the state to play a more complex role that encompasses leadership, coordination, collaboration and direct delivery at times (Bouah, 2016; Singh, 2016). This involves forming strong partnerships with civil society and academia, and a range of other stakeholders, including business, labour and private sector, that build on each other’s respective strengths and strive to a common goal.

7.3 A Cooperative Governance Framework for Sport for Development and Peace

The notion of cooperative governance, while not a new concept, has been established in South Africa. It is reflected in the Constitution and given effect with the Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act. Furthermore, there exists a Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs to spearhead this approach. Such structures do not automatically imply cooperative governance is alive and well in the country's systems but there is clearly deep commitment on behalf of the state to adopt a cooperative approach.

Cooperative governance is designed to promote cooperation between government, private sector and civil society as well as within, and across, the various spheres of government and the other sectors. Again this notion of vertical and horizontal cooperation, while challenging and time consuming, is recognised as effective and its global relevance need not be limited to developing countries. Similarly it holds great relevance not only for governments and states, but also the diverse array of other actors in SDP, including civil society and the academic sector. All actors can improve their collaboration, both within and across various sectors.

With a cooperative governance lens in mind, and given the gaps in the literature from SDP around governance and institutional arrangements, case studies of the public sector, civil society and academic sector were undertaken. This was used to determine optimal roles and responsibilities for each sector in relation to one another other.

7.3.1 Role of the Public Sector

A brief summary of the role of the public sector in SDP is described. The study indicates that the state must take a leading role in SDP but that such a role depends on the nature and make-up of the state, as well as the other sectors of society. In developing countries, it is recognised that a more interventionist role may be required (as in a developmental state), though the need for collaboration with other sectors is paramount as each boasts different strengths.

However, the literature remains vague, and at times divided, on how exactly the state should act in SDP. Further, many states have different orientations and policies related to sport and development (Keim & De Coning, 2014). There is often a limited understanding of the difference between development of sport and the use of sport for development among state actors and policy makers and this confusion may undermine attempts to mainstream SDP.

The empirical research demonstrates that the state can manage SDP programmes effectively if proper M&E is present, though effectiveness may be improved through partnerships. The state has a unique ability and mandate to ensure development outcomes are achieved at scale (sport remains one tool), but quality and fidelity remain challenges when seeking such scale.

A review of documents and interviews seems to indicate that the state tends to exclude the majority of civil society organisations (except federations) and academia in the governance of sport in South Africa. Certain critics argue this reflects a top-down approach with a distorted focus on elite sport (Maralack, 2012) that may in fact exacerbate sports inequities and work against development. While cooperative governance is widely hailed by the state, there is often limited interaction both horizontally and vertically, with government and civil society.

Following the findings of the study, it is recommended that the state focuses on leadership in SDP, including policy, legislation, regulation and oversight, and forming strong partnerships with other sectors to ensure SDP efforts are effective and efficient, and subject to evaluation. It may still retain the ability to fund or deliver special projects and scale initiatives as needed.

7.3.2 Role of Civil Society

A brief summary of the role of civil society in SDP is described. Civil society actors have been at the forefront of the recent global emergence of the SDP sector (Richards & Foster, 2014). While civil society boasts a diverse set of actors, this study focuses on the role of

NPOs (or NGOs). Many of these actors are interventionist (Giulianotti, 2011), focused on programmes and reaching outcomes, often emerging as a response to public policies that fail to deliver expected programmes. They have often been effective and efficient in delivering programmes, producing robust research and M&E, and have achieved results though mainly at micro and meso levels, with limited efforts to tackle deeper structural issues. In this regard, there remains a lack of actors focused on governance and social justice, and this remains a gap for others to fill as issues of governance continue to haunt the sport sector. It has been noted that many SDP actors may unintentionally reinforce the causes of the very problems they are seeking to overcome with their work (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011).

Nonetheless it does appear that civil society actors may be better suited to delivery than the state as they are more responsive, innovative and flexible. Civil society organisations can lend expertise with regard to community-based research, which can be used by the state and others to scale SDP efforts. For example, the SROI study shows that there is a tangible return on investment from an SDP initiative, important considering the lack of evidence on proven cost-effective and impact-driven approaches in SDP. This provides rationale for the state to recognise the value of civil society actors in SDP, as per a society-centred approach, and consider partnering with such organisations to achieve outcomes. In South Africa, the state can certainly do more to include, and engage with, civil society, beyond the sports federations who represent only a fraction of a diverse and complex civil society movement.

In this regard, it is vital to note the important role of sport federations, who are crucial role players and exert significant power, though governance remains a challenge for many such bodies. They need to be engaged in SDP, and not just the development of sport. A case can be made for SDP approaches to be incorporated into the work of mainstream sport structures, as developing life skills among sports participants is only likely to improve sporting output.

This is being increasingly recognised by sport bodies, with the example of the South African Football Association (SAFA) deliberately incorporating life skills into its training manuals.

Likewise, it is vital for civil society actors to align their work to the state and not be solely driven by external mandates such as those of funders, which may not be sustained (Burnett, 2016). Nonetheless, it is important that civil society actors are not constrained by a service delivery or programmatic role (despite their effectiveness), as many of them do not have the same capacity or mandate as the state. Further, they have a crucial role to play in other areas such as policy and advocacy, as well as agenda setting, and holding the state to account.

The findings also suggest that SDP initiatives led by civil society can form part of larger solutions to structural issues such as unemployment and poor education. This is especially relevant in South Africa given that The National Development Plan, which charts a vision for 2030 for the country, identifies the two main causes of poverty and inequality as i) too few South Africans are employed, and ii) poor educational outcomes are generated by the educational system (National Planning Commission; 2013). SDP initiatives, and civil society actors, cannot solve such macro issues alone but they can make meaningful contributions.

While civil society has been critiqued for a lack of SDP efforts targeting such deep-seated issues, findings here do show that sport-based programmes can provide a means to generating employability and leadership skills which are needed to address the youth unemployment crisis in South Africa (and it is worth noting many other countries face the same crisis). In addition, this study contains evidence on SDP initiatives in the school system as well as recommendations for ways civil society actors can help schools optimise sport and physical activity programmes as part of strengthening the education system. Evidence does show that sport and physical activity can improve education outcomes, with youth who spent five hours doing exercise per week performing better academically than those who were active for less

than an hour (United Nations, 2003: 10). The state of schooling at primary and secondary level can be improved in South Africa (National Planning Commission, 2011), and enhanced provision of sport and physical activity, and in particular SDP initiatives, may contribute.

Furthermore, the state of primary and secondary schooling will also affect access to tertiary education, and will impact the role the academic sector plays. On a related note, the SROI study provides evidence for a SDP programme among youth implementers resulting in greater access to employment, education and training. Within society, such issues are interconnected, reinforcing the need for various sectors to understand the complexity of issues they are tackling and to form cooperative partnerships, as any attempts to solve a problem will be necessarily affected by the actions of other stakeholders. Lastly, it is recommended that the youth work profession and actors in the SDP field engage more meaningfully together as sport can play a significant role in positive youth development.

7.3.3 Role of the Academic Sector

A brief summary of the role of the academic sector in SDP is described. The findings show that the academic sector, and universities in particular, face a range of opportunities and challenges in SDP. However, they can play a role in strengthening the field, in relation to research and M&E; critical thinking, academic objectivity and rigour; policy and agenda setting; teaching, training and capacity building; learning and professional preparation; community outreach and development and ensuring principles translate into best practices.

Internationalisation may allow academic institutions to broaden their perspectives, reach larger audiences and compete on a global scale, but can also mean they are less responsive and understanding of local needs (De Wit, 2011; Khorsandi, 2014). In terms of equity, more needs to be done to bridge the inequities between universities in the Global North and Global South (Keim & De Coning, 2015), as well as within countries and regions, and ensure all

partnerships formed are equitable, fair and ethical. Greater investment in evidence and knowledge production related to SDP is required from, and for, universities in the Global South where the majority of SDP projects tend to be delivered. Universities should shy away from a social control and deficit-reduction model (often used in SDP when engaging with marginalised groups) and engage with practitioners in meaningful and participatory ways.

Furthermore, universities may be best suited to bridge the gap between the state, civil society and academia, ultimately helping to institutionalise cooperative governance in the SDP field. For this to occur, government and civil society need to better recognise the unique value proposition the academic sector can bring to sport and development. It is barely mentioned in the NSRP (in relation to South Africa), nor in many global reference documents related to SDP. This needs to be rectified by broader efforts to engage universities in this space.

As with the state, SDP is not always taken seriously within academic institutions and there is limited investment in this subject, while it usually remains confined to the sport department despite its relevance in other areas. Greater investment and attention is merited for SDP in the academic sector, including a recognition of the interdisciplinary nature of the SDP sector.

A concise synthesis of the literature and theory, research aims and design, and findings and recommendations for each of the sectors described above is summarised in the table below.

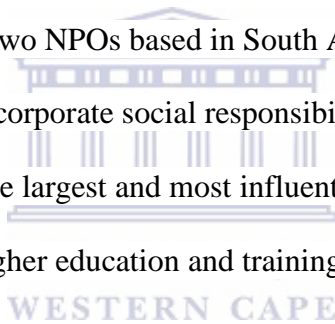
Stakeholder	Theory & Literature	Research Aims & Design	Findings & Recommendations
Public Sector	<p>Indicates that the state must take a leading role in SDP. In developing states, it is recognised a more interventionist role may be required though the need for collaboration with other sectors is paramount. This includes effective governance and relations with civil society.</p> <p>Limited literature on optimal role and responsibility for the state, with large variations in states' orientations to SDP.</p>	<p>Empirical research conducted using a case study of a large, provincial government led school sport and recreation programme. Quantitative and qualitative research conducted with principals, coaches, participants, government officials and SDP experts to examine the optimal role for the state in such initiatives, and overall in within the SDP field.</p>	<p>The state can manage SDP programmes at scale, if proper M&E is present, though it may not always be the most effective or efficient delivery mechanism. The state needs to engage more with other sectors, including civil society and academia, and collaborate horizontally and vertically. The state should focus on leadership, policy, legislation, regulation and oversight, and forming strong partnerships in SDP, though it may intervene and deliver directly when needed.</p>
Civil Society	<p>Boasts a diverse set of actors though most are interventionist, focused on programmes and outcomes mainly at micro and meso levels. There remains a lack of SDP actors focused on governance and social justice. They may work in isolation of the state and other sectors. They can, and often wish to, partner with the state though it remains a dilemma, as they are often competing in an arena for market share.</p>	<p>Empirical research conducted using a case study approach of two NPOs in South Africa. Qualitative research conducted to analyse the challenges and opportunities facing NGOs and SDP in schools in South Africa. Quantitative research done to assess Social Return on Investment of an NPO-led SDP employability project.</p>	<p>Civil Society may be better suited to delivery than the state as they are more responsive, innovative and flexible, with greater capacity for M&E and research. They face challenges working with the state and others but can help optimise SDP, if engaged. They need to keep a balance between delivery and holding state to account, while also aligning to public policies. A partnership model is challenging but vital to ensure sustainability.</p>
Academic Sector	<p>Has made contributions to SDP, especially in terms of research, teaching and learning. May help the SDP field to establish scientific rigor and make a case for its work. Needs to work in a more inter-disciplinary manner, and better engage and partner as it has tended to function on margins of SDP field, locally and globally.</p>	<p>Empirical research conducted using a case study - six universities in South Africa. Qualitative research with academics, state officials and SDP experts to determine the most effective role for the academic sector.</p>	<p>Academic sector has unique strengths to lend in research, teaching, learning, capacity building, M&E, policy and advocacy. It needs to be better engaged by, and engage with, other actors. The sector is well placed to critically analyse SDP efforts and provide evidence to improve policies, programmes and governance of the sector.</p>

Table 1: A Cooperative Governance Framework for the State, Civil Society and Academic Sector in Sport for Development and Peace

7.4 Study Limitations

It is important to acknowledge the study's limitations based on its scope and design. It is based on empirical research conducted only in South Africa, and in only two of the nine provinces in the country, namely the Western Cape and Gauteng. The case study approach proves useful to compliment theory with grounded evidence but each case cannot represent the full diversity of its sector - such limitations are to be expected of any case study approach.

The public sector case study is based on a programme run by provincial government and does not include cases from national and local government. Inputs were, however, sought from national, provincial and local government officials as part of the key informant interviews. The civil society case studies focus on two NPOs based in South Africa and exclude the efforts of the private sector, including business (corporate social responsibility) and labour. The academic sector case studies include six of the largest and most influential universities in South Africa, excluding other universities and higher education and training institutions.



The positionality of the researcher has been clarified, and while seen as a strength of the study, it is noted that this does present conflicting tendencies to an insider-outsider approach.

Furthermore, the researcher endeavoured to be reflexive at all points in the research process.

Much of the data collected in the various studies has been self-reported, such as the SROI study interviews with coaches and the MOD Programme questionnaires delivered to principals, participants and coaches. Self-reported data may raise reliability issues and possible social desirability bias. However, the researcher has endeavoured to ensure that all responses are honest, and that all respondents are aware of the confidential nature of their responses.

Furthermore, the researcher consulted a wide range of stakeholders in each study and used a mixed methods approach to validate and triangulate findings where possible.

In addition, as with any research project, there were time and resource constraints. Each case study required the selection of various participants and stakeholders for research, with it being impossible to contact all persons or organisations affected by the respective cases. For example, many potential stakeholders were excluded from the SROI study as it proved impossible to include everyone possibly affected by a youth development programme. Thus, the findings are likely to portray an underestimation of the SROI generated for this reason.

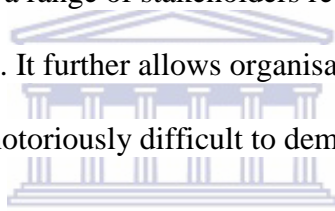
Recommendations for further research

Further research is certainly warranted around this subject of cooperative governance in SDP. Conducting systematic reviews of the roles of the various sectors could prove a logical next step in further analysing the governance of the SDP sector. A broader range of case studies, from a broader range of geographies and actors, would be useful, including the efforts of business, the private sector, labour and other important stakeholders. A broader investigation may reinforce existing themes from this research as well as prompt new forms of evidence.

Further research on the effects of SDP programmes on those who implement them would prove valuable. This study shows impressive outcomes among youth tasked to deliver an SDP intervention, corresponding to broader literature showing that the effects of peer educator programmes are often most pronounced on the peer educators themselves (Medley *et al.*, 2009; Harden *et al.*, 2001). It is important to see implementers as beneficiaries and not simply inputs, and conduct greater research into the outcomes (intended or unintended) they may experience as a result of their involvement (Coalter, 2008).

Further research adopting an SROI or results-based management methodology is urged. While these methods are exhaustive and time consuming, they hold particular relevance for the SDP field, given the continued critique against its lack of evidence around impact and cost effectiveness, the latter becoming increasingly important in a resource limited world. While monetising outcomes is not simple and may be criticised for its reductionist approach, it is worth noting that the SROI study contained herein used primary data as well as financial proxies to monetise diverse outcomes such as the value of employment, the value of increased health awareness and the cost of job searching, among many other outcomes.

The SROI methodology is able to better determine the value (or lack thereof) of selected initiatives, and tracks outcomes for a range of stakeholders recognising the complexity and interconnectedness of communities. It further allows organisations to show some level of attribution to their work, which is notoriously difficult to demonstrate in the social sciences.



However, it is recommended that such quantitative methods are accompanied by qualitative research in order to understand the how (process) and why (rationale) relating to any observed change. This relates to a broader observation calling for greater mixed methods research in the SDP field, as the combination of the two approaches provides greater rigour and detail in unpacking complex social phenomena and issues which the SDP field seeks to tackle.

Investigations into the (possible) roles and responsibilities of higher education and training institutions in SDP, apart from universities that form part of this study, would be valuable. This is especially pertinent in the South African context, given that many cannot afford access to universities, and other forms of higher education and training are widely present.

7.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, sport no longer seems to be “*the forgotten right*” as governments, aid agencies and sporting institutions worldwide proclaim the right of every individual to take part in sport and physical activity. Not only do numerous documents, emanating from high-profile sources such as the United Nations and the International Olympic Committee, declare that sport is a fundamental human right, it is seen as vital for the development of youth and indeed all members of society. Sport has been brought in from the touchline to occupy a more prominent stage in development, including its contribution to the SDGs. However, it is important to note that the potential benefits of sport may be over-exaggerated, as certain critics question the evangelical rhetoric used by certain SDP actors. One must recognise that sport is not inherently positive or negative but can have either impact depending on the context and manner in which it is delivered and received.

Having said that, there is no doubt that, if designed and delivered in the right manner, SDP interventions can have positive outcomes. However, there remain serious gaps in our collective understanding of which initiatives work best, how and why, and whether these can be scaled.

Further, there remains little literature or robust debate around the governance of sport and development, which is the primary question that this study seeks to resolve. This is recognised as a gap by SDP experts, including representatives from universities, government departments and civil society, and the limited literature is reinforced by a historical review of the SDP field.

Following such a historical review, including caution around assuming sport produces positive outcomes as noted above, the study seeks to explore issues of governance, especially the roles of the state, academia and civil society. The unique needs of developing countries such as South Africa are considered, with an attempt to ensure that the study also has relevance at a global

level. Cooperation and collaboration among and between the various sectors (i.e. horizontally and vertically), while challenging and complicated, appears to be the ideal outcome for the SDP field and is reflected in this study as cooperative governance.

The nature of cooperation and governance within SDP is then examined with regard to the public sector, civil society and academic sector, with case studies being conducted of each sector in the South African context. This provides an opportunity to complement the literature with empirical research that has passed the tests of rigour by being published or accepted in peer reviewed publications. Each publication constitutes an original contribution to the field of knowledge, and as a whole the study seeks to fill the gaps around the optimal governance framework for SDP.

Furthermore, the publications will ensure that findings are more immediately available to all relevant stakeholders, who will similarly be provided with a copy of the full doctoral study once completed. Beyond immediate beneficiaries and organisations involved, it is envisaged that the findings will hold value for a range of players, including state officials, multilateral agencies, civil society actors (including NPOs, NGOs, CBOs, and the private sector who make considerable investments in sport and development) and academic actors who have long critiqued the SDP field for its lack of impact and coordination, as well as its limited focus.

In this regard, a suggested cooperative governance framework is detailed in the table above, necessarily simplified so as to be broadly relevant. This framework may prove useful for policy makers, practitioners and other players in the SDP realm. Within such a framework, the state should focus on leadership in SDP, including policy, regulation and oversight, as well as funding support and special projects where needed. Civil society groups are often better suited to deliver SDP projects but need to maintain a balance between delivery and other critical functions,

including holding the state to account and ensuring they align to public sector policies. The academic sector has unique strengths, including providing scientific rigour and objective validity, as well as high quality research, teaching and learning, all sorely needed in SDP. However, this sector needs to be better engaged by and engage with other relevant actors.

In conclusion, this study has generated new forms of evidence and made a valuable contribution to the field. It is hoped that this will prompt deliberations at a variety of levels to ensure that SDP actors reflect on their work, re-imagine their roles and responsibilities, and commit to playing to their strengths to ensure optimal governance of the sector. This will ideally result in greater collaboration and impact as the SDP sector looks to strengthen its place on the playing field.



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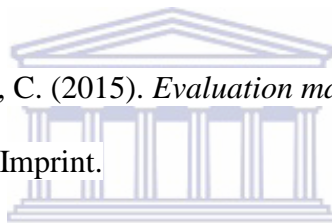
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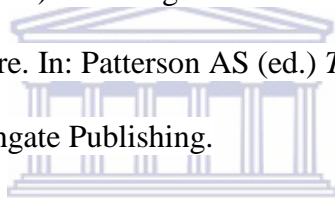
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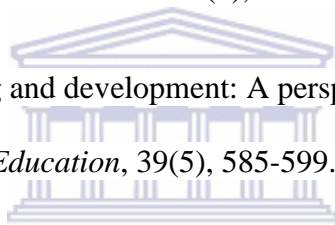
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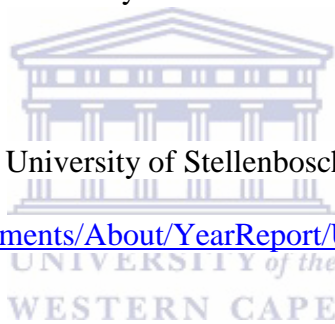
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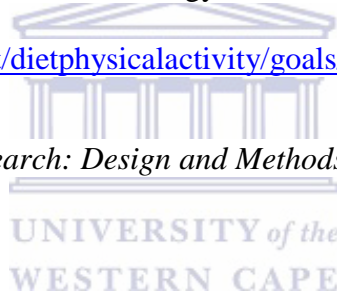
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APPENDICES

The appendices contain the relevant research tools used in the study as well as supporting documentation for the articles reproduced, as per guidelines for the PhD by publication.





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Appendix A: Participant Information Sheet

Project Title: Sport and the Struggle for Development

Conceptual approaches to sport for development and peace as an emerging field of evaluation - case studies from the public sector, academic sector and civil society led initiatives in South Africa

What is this study about?

This is a research project being conducted by Ben Sanders at the University of the Western Cape. The main aim of this project is to conduct an empirical and conceptual analysis of sport for development projects, with the objective of determining if/how these projects achieve impact.

What will I be asked to do if I agree to participate?

We will ask you to answer questions related to your participation in sport for development and peace (SDP) policies, plans and programmes. This may involve the management of such initiatives as well as your experiences and/or opinions of the relevant SDP initiatives.

Would my participation in this study be kept confidential?

We will keep your personal information confidential. To help protect your confidentiality your name and other vital information provided will not be shared publicly. Data collected will be kept in a password protected computer and other saving devices. If we write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected to the maximum extent possible.

What are the risks of this research?

There are minimal risks associated with participating in this research project. Your anonymity is protected

and counselling services are available should you should require them as a result of participating in the research. If you feel any risks are posed to you at any point during the process, you are welcome to withdraw at any point.

What are the benefits of this research?

This research project will provide essential knowledge on the outcomes of sport projects which seek to promote development. This will allow the researcher and other organisations to identify best practices, overcome challenges and ensure they can maximise the impact of their work.

Do I have to be in this research and may I stop participating at any time?

Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to participate in this research, you may stop participating at any time. If you decide not to participate or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized.

Is any assistance available if I am negatively affected by participating in this study?

You will be referred to appropriate health care professionals should there be a need for referral.

What if I have questions?

This research is being conducted by Ben Sanders of the Sport, Recreation and Exercise Sciences Department, University of the Western Cape. If you have questions about the study please contact me at: Sport, Recreation and Exercise Sciences Department, University of the Western Cape, Private Bag X17, Bellville 7535, South Africa or telephone: 084 969 4942, email: bensanders10@gmail.com.

Should you have any questions regarding this study and your rights as a research participant or if you wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact:

Head of Department: Prof Andre Travill

Telephone: (021) 959-3934; Fax: (021) 959-3688; Email: atravill@uwc.ac.za

Dean of the Faculty of Community and Health Sciences: Professor Jose Frantz

University of the Western Cape; Private Bag X17, Belville 7535,

Telephone: (021) 959-3137; Fax: (021) 959-3688

This study has been approved by the university's Senate Research Committee and Ethics Committee.



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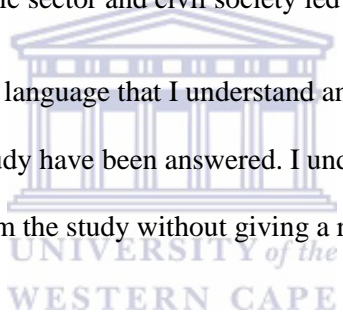
Email: mkeim@uwc.ac.za

Appendix B: Informed Consent Form

Project Title Sport and the Struggle for Development

Conceptual approaches to sport for development and peace as an emerging field of evaluation - case studies from the public sector, academic sector and civil society led initiatives in South Africa

The study has been described to me in language that I understand and I freely and voluntarily agree to participate. My questions about the study have been answered. I understand that my identity will not be disclosed and that I may withdraw from the study without giving a reason at any time and this will not negatively affect me in any way.



Participant's name.....

Witness.....

Participant's signature.....

Date.....

Should you have any questions regarding this study or wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact the study coordinator:

Study Coordinator's Name: Prof Marion Keim

University of the Western Cape; Private Bag X17, Belville 7535



Telephone: (021) 959-3859

Email: mkeim@uwc.ac.za

Appendix C: In-depth Interview Schedule for SDP Experts and Practitioners

Instructions to the interviewer: Complete the following information prior to the interview. Read the introduction to the interviewee. After collecting contact information and initials, detach the cover sheet.

Start the recorder and state aloud the date, time, and location of the interview.

In-depth Interview (IDI) Information		
Date: ____ / ____ / ____ (dd) (mm) (yyyy)	Start Time:  End Time:	<i>To be completed after the IDI:</i> Duration of IDI: _____ minutes
Venue:	Interviewer: 	Co-interviewer:
Interviewee Information		
Name:	Title:	Phone number:

Introduction

“We greatly appreciate your agreeing to participate in this interview. You have been selected as a expert or practitioner in the field of sport for development and peace (SDP) and your insights will prove valuable in determining the optimal role for various stakeholders in the SDP sector.

The discussion will take approximately 90 minutes or less. It will be recorded and transcribed for the sake of accuracy and for review by the team that will be working on this assessment, and potentially by others, but only for learning purposes. Thank you for your cooperation.

Turn on the voice recorder. Record your name, as well as the date, time, and location of the interview and begin.





Topic	Main questions	Follow-up questions
1. Introductions; knowledge of Sport for Development and Peace.	<p>Let's begin with introductions and discuss your understanding of Sport for Development and Peace.</p> <p>Please start by introducing yourself. How did you first become involved with SDP?</p>	What do you think are the main challenges and opportunities facing the SDP sector?
2. Views on the governance of SDP	<p>Let's talk about your views on the governance of SDP</p> <p>How would you describe the current state of governance related to SDP, locally in South Africa and globally?</p>	Is there room for improvement related to governance of the sector? How? Why?
3. Views on the role of government in SDP	<p>Let's talk about the role of the public sector in SDP.</p> <p>How would describe the current role of the public sector in SDP in South Africa? What are the challenges and opportunities for the state?</p>	What would be the ideal role for the public sector in SDP, locally and globally?
4. Views on the role of civil society in SDP	<p>Let's talk about the role of civil society in SDP, including federations, NGOs, NPOs, CBOs and other actors.</p> <p>How would describe the current role of civil society in SDP in South Africa?</p>	What would be the ideal role for civil society in SDP, locally and globally?
5. Views on the role of the academic sector in SDP	<p>Let's talk about the role of the academic sector in SDP, including universities and other tertiary institutions.</p> <p>How would describe the current role of the academic sector in SDP in South Africa?</p>	What would be the ideal role for the academic sector in SDP, locally and globally?
6. Overall thoughts	<p>How do you feel the above actors (state, civil society and academic sector) can best interact with one another in SDP?</p> <p>What are the optimal roles and responsibilities for each of these actors?</p>	What are the optimal institutional arrangements for these actors to work together?

Appendix D: In-depth Interview Schedule for MOD Programme Participants

Instructions to the interviewer: Complete the following information prior to the interview. Read the introduction to the interviewee. After collecting contact information and initials, detach the cover sheet.

Start the recorder and state aloud the date, time, and location of the interview.

In-depth Interview (IDI) Information		
Date: ____ / ____ / ____ (dd) (mm) (yyyy)	Start Time: End Time:	<i>To be completed after the IDI:</i> Duration of IDI: _____ minutes
Venue:	 Interviewer:	Co-interviewer:
Interviewee Information		
Name:	 Title:	Phone number:

Introduction

“We greatly appreciate your agreeing to participate in this interview. You have been selected as a participant, coach or principal involved in the MOD Programme and your insights will prove valuable in determining the optimal role for various stakeholders in the SDP sector.

The discussion will take approximately 90 minutes or less. It will be recorded and transcribed for the sake of accuracy and for review by the team that will be working on this assessment, and potentially by others, but only for learning purposes. Thank you for your cooperation. Turn on the voice recorder. Record your name, as well as the date, time, and location of the interview and begin.

Topic	Main questions	Follow-up questions
1. Introductions; knowledge of Sport MOD Programme	<p>Let's begin with introductions.</p> <p>Please start by introducing yourself. How did you first become involved with the MOD Programme?</p>	
2. Views on the MOD Programme	<p>Let's talk about your views on the MOD Programme.</p> <p>How would you describe the MOD Programme?</p>	<p>Is there room for improvement related to governance of the sector? How? Why?</p>
3. Benefits of the MOD Programme	<p>Let's talk about the possible benefits of the MOD Programme.</p> <p>What do you consider the benefits of the programme for yourself and the school?</p>	<p>How do you see these benefits on the ground?</p>
4. Challenges of the MOD Programme	<p>Let's talk about any challenges of the MOD Programme.</p> <p>How would describe the current challenges of the MOD Programme?</p>	<p>How do you see these challenges on the ground?</p>
5. Opportunities for the MOD Programme	<p>Let's talk about opportunities for the MOD Programme.</p> <p>How would describe the current opportunities for the MOD Programme?</p>	<p>How can the programme be improved?</p>

6. Overall thoughts	Do you have any recommendations or suggestions to add? Is there anything else about the MOD Programme that you would like to say?	
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Appendix E: Participant Survey MOD Programme

Objective: To find out how participants feel about their experience in the MOD Programme.

District: _____ MOD Centre: _____

School: _____ Grade: ____ Age: ____

1. Do you play sport for your school and/or club? If so, which one?

School		Club		Neither
--------	--	------	--	---------

2. Do you feel the activities in the MOD programme have improved your sport/cultural skills?

Yes	No	Details:
-----	----	----------

3. How did you find out about the MOD programme?

Teacher	Coach	Community	Friend	Parent	Other:
---------	-------	-----------	--------	--------	--------

4. Before the MOD programme was available, what did you do after school?

Nothing	Stayed at home	Work	Homework	Social ill/s:	Other:
---------	----------------	------	----------	---------------	--------

5. How often do you participate in the MOD programme per week?

Once	Twice	Three	Four	Five
------	-------	-------	------	------

6. a. Do you enjoy the MOD programme?

YES	NO
-----	----

- b. What do you enjoy most about the programme?

Recreation	School Sport	Cultural:	Social:	Other:
------------	--------------	-----------	---------	--------

- c. Do you dislike anything about the programme?

Yes	No	Details:
-----	----	----------

7. How would you describe your coach? *

Good:	Average:	Bad:
-------	----------	------

8. Do your parents support your participation in the programme?

Yes	No	Details:
-----	----	----------

9. Is transport (getting home) a problem in the programme?

Yes	No	Details:
-----	----	----------

Further comments and/or recommendations:



Appendix F: Principal Survey MOD Programme

OBJECTIVE: Obtaining information from principals to determine their opinion(s) of the MOD Programme.

DISTRICT: _____ MOD CENTRE: _____

1. How long has your school been involved in the MOD programme?

0 – 1 year	1 -2 years	2- 3 years
------------	------------	------------

Why did your school join the MOD programme?

2. How did you find out about the MOD programme?

District Manager	Advertisement*	Other school	Word of mouth	Other:
------------------	----------------	--------------	---------------	--------

3. Has the MOD centre made a positive impact at your school? If so, provide details.

4. Has the MOD centre had a negative impact at your school? If so, provide details.

5. Do you feel the coaches are doing a good job at the centre? Please provide details.

6. Do you feel the district manager is servicing your centre adequately?

Yes	No	Details:
-----	----	----------

7. Has the MOD Programme had a positive effect on the following?

Attendance	Learner behaviour	Academic results	Involvement in school sport codes	Safety
Teen pregnancy	Substance abuse	Learner health	Excellence in school sport codes	Other

8. Is the community aware of the MOD Centre?

Yes	No	Details:
-----	----	----------

9. Do learners from other schools attend the programme?

Yes	No	Details:
-----	----	----------

10. Are the school staff and management supportive of the programme?

Yes	No	Details:
-----	----	----------



Are all learners motivated to partake in the programme? Please provide details.

FEEDBACK: What are the successes and challenges of your MOD Centre?

FEEDBACK: How has the MOD Programme been marketed at your school? Can this be improved?

Appendix G: Coach Survey MOD Programme

OBJECTIVE: obtaining information from coaches to determine their opinions of the mod centre(s).

DISTRICT: _____ MOD CENTRE: _____

1. How long have you been involved in the MOD programme?

0 – 1 year	1 -2 years	2- 3 years	+ 3 years
------------	------------	------------	-----------

2. Why did you join the MOD programme?

Employment	Passion for sport	Coaching experience	Give back to community	Other:
------------	-------------------	---------------------	------------------------	--------

3. How did you find out about the MOD programme?

The school	Advertisement*	Club	Word of mouth	Other:
------------	----------------	------	---------------	--------

4. Do you enjoy working at the MOD centre?

Yes	No	Details:
-----	----	----------

5. Which of the following do you feel are a challenge at your centre?

Equipment	Poor facilities	Lack of staff	Institutional support	Crime and safety	Other:
-----------	-----------------	---------------	-----------------------	------------------	--------

6. How often does your district manager visit your centre?

Once a week	Once every 2 weeks	Once every 3 weeks	Once a month	Less	Never
-------------	--------------------	--------------------	--------------	------	-------

7. Do you get the relevant support from your district manager?

Yes	No	Details:
-----	----	----------

8. Do you find the training courses offered by DCAS useful?

Yes	No	Details:
-----	----	----------

9. Did you find the information session on Monitoring and Evaluation and being a coach useful?

Yes	No	Details:
-----	----	----------

10. Is the community aware of the MOD Centre?

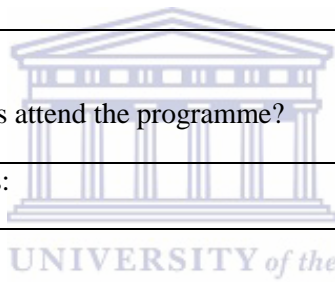
Yes	No	Details:
-----	----	----------

11. Are the school staff and management supportive of the programme?

Yes	No	Details:
-----	----	----------

12. Do learners from other schools attend the programme?



Yes	No	Details:
-----	----	----------



FEEDBACK: What are the successes and challenges of your MOD Centre? How can the centre be improved?

Appendix H: In-depth Interview Schedule for School Staff

Instructions to the interviewer: Complete the following information prior to the interview. Read the introduction to the interviewee. After collecting contact information and initials, detach the cover sheet. Start the recorder and state aloud the date, time, and location of the interview.

In-depth Interview (IDI) Information		
Date: ____ / ____ / ____ (dd) (mm) (yyyy)	Start Time: End Time:	<i>To be completed after the IDI:</i> Duration of IDI: _____ minutes
Venue:	Interviewer: 	Co-interviewer:
Interviewee Information		
Name:	Title: 	Phone number:

Introduction

“We greatly appreciate your agreeing to participate in this interview. You have been selected as a school official in the Western Cape. Your insights will prove valuable in determining the challenges and opportunities facing the delivery of sport for development in the education system in South Africa. This will include the role of NGOs and other organisations who deliver sport in schools.

The discussion will take approximately 90 minutes or less. It will be recorded and transcribed for the sake of accuracy and for review by the team that will be working on this assessment, and potentially by others, but only for learning purposes. Thank you for your cooperation. Turn on the voice recorder.

Record your name, as well as the date, time, and location of the focus group and begin.


Topic	Main questions	Follow-up questions
1. Introductions; knowledge of Sport for Development and Peace.	<p>Let's begin with introductions.</p> <p>Please start by introducing yourself. How did you become involved with sport as a teacher?</p> <p>Please discuss your understanding of Sport for Development and Peace (SDP).</p>	Do you understand the difference between the development of sport and SDP?
2. Views on the state of sport and physical education in schools	<p>Let's talk about your views on sport and physical education in schools</p> <p>How would you describe the current state of sport and physical education in schools generally? And in your school in particular?</p>	How has this changed over the years? Has it improved or not?
3. Views on the challenges and opportunities facing SDP in schools	<p>What are the challenges and opportunities facing the delivering of SDP (or more broadly sport and physical education) in schools? And in your school in particular?</p>	What are the possible solutions to challenges?
4. Views on the role of NGOs in SDP	<p>Let's talk about the role of NGOs in providing SDP (or more broadly sport, life skills and physical education) in schools? And in your school in particular?</p> <p>Do any NGOs work in your school related to sport? What do they do? Does it help?</p>	Do you think NGOs can be effective in supporting schools in SDP and sport?
5. Views on support from government in SDP	<p>Let's talk about the support from government regarding SDP (or more broadly sport, life skills and physical education).</p> <p>What support do you get from the state? Is it adequate? How do you interact with officials from the various departments?</p>	<p>Is the state effective in supporting your school in SDP and sport?</p> <p>What more can be done?</p>

6. Overall thoughts	How do you think the different role players can work together to improve SDP in schools? Who should do what? Are there any other challenges and opportunities you would like to mention?	What is your vision for improved sport and SDP efforts in schools?
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Appendix I: In-depth Interview Schedule for NGO Staff

Instructions to the interviewer: Complete the following information prior to the interview. Read the introduction to the interviewee. After collecting contact information and initials, detach the cover sheet. Start the recorder and state aloud the date, time, and location of the interview.

In-depth Interview (IDI) Information		
Date: ____ / ____ / ____ (dd) (mm) (yyyy)	Start Time: End Time:	<i>To be completed after the IDI:</i> Duration of IDI: _____ minutes
Venue:	Interviewer:	Co-interviewer:
Interviewee Information		
Name:	Title: 	Phone number:

Introduction

“We greatly appreciate your agreeing to participate in this interview. You have been selected as a staff member at an NGO using sport as a means of development within the school system in South Africa. Your insights will prove valuable in determining the challenges and opportunities facing the delivery of sport for development in the education system in South Africa. This will include the role of NGOs and other organisations who deliver sport in schools.

The discussion will take approximately 90 minutes or less. It will be recorded and transcribed for the sake of accuracy and for review by the team that will be working on this assessment, and potentially by others, but only for learning purposes.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Turn on the voice recorder. Record your name, as well as the date, time, and location of the interview and begin.

Topic	Main questions	Follow-up questions
<p>1. Introductions; knowledge of Sport for Development and Peace.</p>	<p>Let's begin with introductions.</p> <p>Please start by introducing yourself. How did you become involved with this work?</p> <p>Please discuss your understanding of Sport for Development and Peace (SDP).</p>	<p>Do you understand the difference between the development of sport and SDP?</p>
<p>2. Views on the state of sport and physical education in schools</p>	<p>Let's talk about your views on sport and physical education in schools</p> <p>How would you describe the current state of sport and physical education in schools generally? And in the schools you work in?</p>	<p>How has this changed over the years? Has it improved or not?</p>
<p>3. Views on the challenges and opportunities facing SDP in schools</p>	<p>What are the challenges and opportunities facing the delivering of SDP (or more broadly sport and physical education) in schools? How does this affect your work?</p>	<p>What are the possible solutions to challenges?</p>
<p>4. Views on the role of NGOs in SDP</p>	<p>Let's talk about the role of your NGO in providing SDP (or more broadly sport, life skills and physical education) in schools?</p> <p>How do you work with schools? What are the ways you engage with stakeholders?</p>	<p>Do you think NGOs can be effective in supporting schools in SDP and sport?</p>
<p>5. Views on support from government in SDP</p>	<p>Let's talk about the support from government regarding SDP (or more broadly sport, life skills and physical education).</p> <p>What support do you get from the state? Is it adequate? How do you interact with officials from the various departments?</p>	<p>Is the state effective in supporting your NGO in SDP and sport?</p> <p>What more can be done?</p>

6. Overall thoughts	How do you think the different role players can work together to improve SDP in schools? Who should do what? Are there any other challenges and opportunities you would like to mention?	What is your vision for improved sport and SDP efforts in schools?
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Appendix J: Focus Group Schedule for Coaches

Instructions to the facilitator: Complete the following information prior to the Focus Group Discussion (FGD). Read the introduction to the FGD participants. After collecting contact information and initials, detach the cover sheet. Start the recorder and state aloud the date, time, and location of the FGD.

Focus Group Discussion Information		
Date: ____ / ____ / ____ (dd) (mm) (yyyy)	Start Time: End Time:	<i>To be completed after the FGD:</i> Duration of FGD: ____ minutes
Venue:	Moderator:	Co-Moderator/Observer:

Introduction

“We greatly appreciate your agreeing to participate in this Focus Group Discussion. I am going to ask you some questions and there are no right or wrong answers and you may answer in any way. Your answers are completely confidential. Your name will never be used in connection with any of the information you tell me. You do not have to answer any questions that you do not want to answer, and you may end the discussion at any time if you want to. However, your answers to these questions will help us better understand your experience or reaction to being a Coach with Grassroot Soccer. The discussion will take about 60 minutes or less. It will be recorded and transcribed for the sake of accuracy and for review by the team that will be working on this research project, and potentially by others, but only for research purposes.

Thank you for your cooperation.

First, let me introduce myself. I am..., and I will be asking you some questions to day. *<Other researchers or observers now introduce themselves and state their roles.* Remember there are no ‘right’ or ‘wrong’ answers-- please be honest and critical, as it will help us learn. We are here to learn from you.

To ensure that no one has pressured you to participate in this focus group, please initial (don’t sign) next to your name above.”

Turn on the voice recorder. Record the date, time, and location of the focus group and begin the discussion.

FGD Questions for Coaches

I am going to ask you some questions about your experience in the programme.

Topic	Main questions	Follow-up questions	Probes
1. General reaction to the programme	<p>Round of introductions</p> <p>Let's talk about your experience in the programme.</p> <p>What do you do in the programme?</p>	How do you feel being a Coach at Grassroot Soccer?	
2. Joining and attending the programme	<p>Let's talk about your decision to join the programme.</p> <p>What did you hear about the programme before you joined?</p>	Why did you decide to join the programme as a Coach?	
3. Views on the programme	<p>Let's talk about your views on the programme.</p> <p>How would you describe the programme?</p>	<p>What are the benefits of the programme?</p> <p>What are the challenges of the programme?</p>	<p>How do you feel about the life skills activities?</p> <p>How do you feel about the soccer activities?</p>

<p>4. Views on working in schools</p>	<p>Let's talk about your experience working in schools.</p> <p>How do you find it working in schools and with educators?</p>	<p>What are the challenges of working in schools?</p> <p>What are opportunities we can take to work more effectively in schools?</p>	<p>How can these challenges be resolved?</p>
<p>5. Impact of the programme</p>	<p>Let's talk about the effect of the programme on your life.</p> <p>Has being a coach helped you in your life?</p> <p>What is the most important thing you learned from the programme?</p> <p>Did you form any meaningful relationships during the programme?</p>	<p>Do you think or act differently now that you are a Coach?</p> <p>Did you share anything you did in the programme with your family, friends, or people outside of the programme? What did you share? Who did you talk to?</p>	<p>Has the programme affected you in your present life? Will the programme affect you in your future life?</p> <p>Did you share information with others about the activities?</p>
<p>8. Closing remarks</p>	<p>How can the programme be improved?</p> <p>Is there anything else you would like to share?</p>		

Thank you for your time during this focus group discussion; all your responses will help us with our work.

NOTES

Appendix K: Focus Group Schedule for Teachers

Instructions to the facilitator: Complete the following information prior to the Focus Group Discussion (FGD). Read the introduction to the FGD participants. After collecting contact information and initials, detach the cover sheet. Start the recorder and state aloud the date, time, and location of the FGD.

Focus Group Discussion Information		
Date: ____ / ____ / ____ (dd) (mm) (yyyy)	Start Time: End Time:	<i>To be completed after the FGD:</i> Duration of FGD: ____ minutes
Venue:	Moderator:	Co-Moderator/Observer:

Introduction

“We greatly appreciate your agreeing to participate in this Focus Group Discussion. I am going to ask you some questions and there are no right or wrong answers and you may answer in any way. Your answers are completely confidential. Your name will never be used in connection with any of the information you tell me. You do not have to answer any questions that you do not want to answer, and you may end the discussion at any time if you want to. However, your answers to these questions will help us better understand your experience or reaction to being a teacher dealing with sport and physical education in a public school. The discussion will take about 60 minutes or less. It will be recorded and transcribed for the sake of accuracy and for review by the team that will be working on this research project, and potentially by others, but only for research purposes.

Thank you for your cooperation.

First, let me introduce myself. I am..., and I will be asking you some questions to day. <Other researchers or observers now introduce themselves and state their roles. Remember there are no ‘right’ or ‘wrong’ answers-- please be honest and critical, as it will help us learn. We are here to learn from you.

To ensure that no one has pressured you to participate in this focus group, please initial (don’t sign) next to your name above.”

Turn on the voice recorder. Record the date, time, and location of the focus group and begin the discussion.

Topic	Main questions	Follow-up questions
1. Introductions; knowledge of Sport for Development and Peace.	<p>Let's begin with introductions.</p> <p>Please start by introducing yourself. How did you become involved with sport as a teacher?</p> <p>Please discuss your understanding of Sport for Development and Peace (SDP).</p>	Do you understand the difference between the development of sport and SDP?
2. Views on the state of sport and physical education in schools	<p>Let's talk about your views on sport and physical education in schools</p> <p>How would you describe the current state of sport and physical education in schools generally? And in your school in particular?</p>	How has this changed over the years? Has it improved or not?
3. Views on the challenges and opportunities facing SDP in schools	<p>What are the challenges and opportunities facing the delivering of SDP (or more broadly sport and physical education) in schools? And in your school in particular?</p>	What are the possible solutions to challenges?
4. Views on the role of NGOs in SDP	<p>Let's talk about the role of NGOs in providing SDP (or more broadly sport, life skills and physical education) in schools? And in your school in particular?</p> <p>Do any NGOs work in your school related to sport? What do they do? Does it help?</p>	Do you think NGOs can be effective in supporting schools in SDP and sport?
5. Views on support from government in SDP	<p>Let's talk about the support from government regarding SDP (or more broadly sport, life skills and physical education).</p> <p>What support do you get from the state? Is it adequate? How do you interact with officials from the various departments?</p>	<p>Is the state effective in supporting your school in SDP and sport?</p> <p>What more can be done?</p>
6. Overall thoughts	<p>How do you think the different role players can work together to improve SDP in schools? Who should do what?</p> <p>Are there any other challenges and opportunities you would like to mention?</p>	What is your vision for improved sport and SDP efforts in schools?

Appendix L: SROI coach questionnaire – In Education or Training

Hi,

My name is [name] and I'm calling from Grassroot Soccer. We are conducting an evaluation about coach development and your input as a former coach is very important in this process. I would like to ask you a couple of questions about your time after being a GRS coach specifically related to employment and education. Except for questions about your current employment or education status, all other answers will be confidential and not linked to you. The interview will last approximately 10-15 minutes. Are you able and willing to participate in this evaluation?

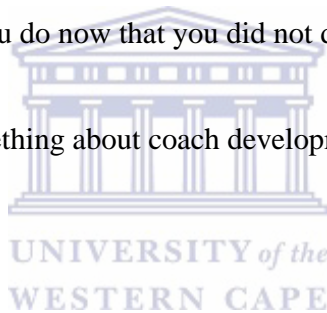
Questions? If there are no questions we can begin with the first question.

1. Are you currently in education or training?
 - a. If yes: How long have you been in education or training?
 - b. How long is your education?
 - c. If student: Do you receive a bursary or scholarship? If so: approximately how much?
 - d. If in employment, see separate questionnaire.
 - e. If not in employment, education or training, see separate questionnaire.

2. Which factor(s) was/were the most important contributing to you pursuing education or training?
 - a. If it were not for GRS, how likely do you think you would be in the same position today?
 - b. Were there any other factors that contributed to you finding this education and/or training opportunity?

3. What do you think is the most important factor(s) for succeeding in school?
 - a. How much do you rely on knowledge/skills gained at GRS for achieving those factors?
 - b. How likely do you think it is that you will graduate from your education/training?

4. When you were a coach did you financially support, or receive support, from your family?
 - a. If yes: What did the support provide?
5. Now, do you receive or provide financial support to your family?
 - a. If yes: What do the support provide?
6. Do you save money on a regular basis?
 - a. How much did the sessions at GRS contribute to your saving habits?
7. In your own words: What do you think was the most important factor from coach development?
 - a. What was the most important thing you learnt?
 - b. How has that skill changed you?
 - i. What do you do now that you did not do before?
8. If you were to change something about coach development at GRS – what would it be?



Appendix M: SROI coach questionnaire – In Employment

Hi,

My name is [name] and I'm calling from Grassroot Soccer. We are conducting an evaluation about coach development and your input as a former coach is very important in this process. I would like to ask you a couple of questions about your time after being a GRS coach specifically related to employment and education. Except for questions about your current employment status, all other answers will be confidential and not linked to you. The interview will last approximately 10-15 minutes. Are you able and willing to participate in this evaluation?

Questions? If there are no questions we can begin with the first question.

1. Are you currently employed, in education or training?
 - a. If yes: How long have you been employed, in education or training?
 - b. If employed: what is your profession and in general terms what is your monthly income including benefits?
 - c. If in education or training: See specific questionnaire
 - d. If NEET: See specific questionnaire
2. Which factor(s) were the most important contributing to employment?
 - a. If it were not for GRS, how likely do you think you would be in the same position today?
 - b. Were there any other factors that contributed to you finding employment?
3. What do you think is the most important factor(s) for staying employed?
 - a. How much do you rely on knowledge/skills gained at GRS for achieving those factors?
4. When you were a coach did you financially support, or receive support, from your family?
 - a. If yes: What did the support provide?
5. Now, do you receive or provide financial support to your family?

- a. If yes: What do the support provide?
6. Do you save money on a regular basis?
 - a. How much did the sessions at GRS contribute to your saving habits?
 7. In your own words: What do you think was the most important factor from coach development?
 - a. What was the most important thing you learnt?
 - b. How has that skill changed you?
 - i. What do you do now that you did not do before?
 8. If you were to change something about coach development at GRS – what would it be?
 9. Would it be all right if we could ask your employer a number of questions related to the evaluation? (If yes: Get name and contact number)



Appendix N: SROI coach questionnaire - Not in Employment, Education or Training

Hi,

My name is [name] and I'm calling from Grassroot Soccer. We are conducting an evaluation about coach development and your input as a former coach is very important in this process. I would like to ask you a couple of questions about your time after being a GRS coach specifically related to employment and education. Except for questions about your current employment status, all other answers will be confidential and not linked to you. The interview will last approximately 10-15 minutes. Are you able and willing to participate in this evaluation?

Questions? If there are no questions we can begin with the first question.

1. Are you currently employed, in education or training?
 - a. If in Employment, Education or Training please refer to other questionnaires.
 - b. If not: Are you actively looking for work or education and training opportunities?
2. Which factor(s) are the most important in your search for employment, education or training?
 - a. If it were not for GRS, how would you access opportunities?
 - b. Are there any other factors contributing to you finding employment and/or education and training?
3. What do you think is the most important factor(s) for becoming employed or succeeding in school?
 - a. How much do you rely on knowledge/skills gained at GRS for achieving those factors?
4. When you were a coach did you financially support, or receive support, from your family?
 - a. If yes: What did the support provide?
5. Now, do you receive or provide financial support to your family?
 - a. If yes: What do the support provide?

6. Do you save money on a regular basis?
 - a. How much did the sessions at GRS contribute to your saving habits?

7. In your own words: What do you think was the most important factor from coach development?
 - a. What was the most important thing you learnt?
 - b. How has that skill changed you?
 - i. What do you do now that you did not do before?

8. If you were to change something about coach development at GRS – what would it be?



Appendix O: SROI staff questionnaire

Hi,

We are conducting an evaluation about our employability programme “coach development” and your input as a staff member is very important in this process. I would like to ask you a couple of questions about your personal experience of being involved in the coach development programme. All your answers will be confidential and not linked to you. The interview will last approximately 10-15 minutes. Are you able and willing to participate in this evaluation?

Questions?

If there are no questions we can begin with the first question.

Objective outcomes & indicators:



1. What are the main benefits and things you've learnt from being involved in the coach development programme?
 - a. If it were not for coach development, how would you have learned those skills or gained those benefits?
2. On average: how much of your time do you devote to coach development?
 - a. Would you like to devote more or less time?
3. How has being part of coach development shaped how you view your own future goals and ambitions?
 - a. In pursuing and attaining those goals, is there any important contributing factor from coach development helping and guiding you?
4. If you were to recommend something we could improve with coach development at GRS – what would it be?

Thank you very much for your participation!

Appendix P: SROI intern questionnaire

Hi,

Grassroot Soccer is conducting a social return on investment evaluation about our employability program “coach development” during 2013-2014 in Khayelitsha, Cape Town. Your input as a former intern during the relevant period is very important in this process as you are not only considered to have provided inputs to the coach development program, but as potential beneficiaries as well. We would like to ask you a couple of questions about your personal experience of being involved in the coach development program.

Relevant components related to coach development for this evaluation:

- SKILLZ Up sessions
- Coach Development sessions on Fridays
- One-on-ones
- Training of Coaches (initial training)
- Coach Support Visits
- Specific Coach Development tasks (job search, curriculum updates etc.)



Questions:

9. What are the main benefits and things you've learnt from being involved in the coach development program?
- a. If it were not for coach development, how would you have learned those skills or gained those benefits?

Answer:

10. How has being part of coach development shaped how you view your own future goals and ambitions?
- a. In pursuing and attaining those goals, is there any important contributing factor from coach development helping and guiding you?

Answer:

11. On average: how much of your time did you devote to coach development?
- a. Would you like to have devoted more or less time?

- b. In monetary terms (\$), what do you consider the time spent on coach development to be worth for yourself (provide brief explanation of how you made the valuation)?

Answer:

12. Having had time to process your experiences – if you were to recommend something we could improve with coach development at GRS, what would it be?

Answer:

Thank you very much for your participation!



Appendix Q: Focus Group Schedule for SDP Experts and Practitioners

Instructions to the facilitator: Complete the following information prior to the Focus Group Discussion (FGD). Read the introduction to the FGD participants. After collecting contact information and initials, detach the cover sheet. Start the recorder and state aloud the date, time, and location of the FGD.

Focus Group Discussion Information		
Date: ____ / ____ / ____ (dd) (mm) (yyyy)	Start Time: End Time:	<i>To be completed after the FGD:</i> Duration of FGD: ____ minutes
Venue:	Moderator:	Co-Moderator/Observer:

Introduction

“We greatly appreciate your agreeing to participate in this Focus Group Discussion. You have been selected as an expert or practitioner in the field of sport for development and peace (SDP) and your insights will prove valuable in determining the optimal role for various stakeholders in the SDP sector.

I am going to ask you some questions and there are no right or wrong answers and you may answer in any way. Your answers are completely confidential. Your name will never be used in connection with any of the information you tell me. You do not have to answer any questions that you do not want to answer, and you may end the discussion at any time if you want to. The discussion will take about 60 minutes or less. It will be recorded and transcribed for the sake of accuracy and for review by the team that will be working on this research project, and potentially by others, but only for research purposes.

Thank you for your cooperation.

First, let me introduce myself. I am..., and I will be asking you some questions to day. <Other researchers or observers now introduce themselves and state their roles. Remember there are no ‘right’ or ‘wrong’ answers-- please be honest and critical, as it will help us learn. We are here to learn from you.

To ensure that no one has pressured you to participate in this focus group, please initial (don’t sign) next to your name above.”

Turn on the voice recorder. Record the date, time, and location of the focus group and begin the discussion.

Topic	Main questions	Follow-up questions
1. Introductions; knowledge of Sport for Development and Peace.	Let's begin with introductions and discuss your understanding of Sport for Development and Peace. Please start by introducing yourself. How did you first become involved with SDP?	What do you think are the main challenges and opportunities facing the SDP sector?
2. Views on the governance of SDP	Let's talk about your views on the governance of SDP How would you describe the current state of governance related to SDP, locally in South Africa and globally?	Is there room for improvement related to governance of the sector? How? Why?
3. Views on the role of universities in SDP	Let's talk about the role of the academic sector in SDP, including universities and other tertiary institutions. How would describe the current role of the academic sector in SDP in South Africa?	What would be the ideal role for the public sector in SDP, locally and globally?
4. Strengths of universities in SDP	What are the strengths that universities can bring to SDP, locally and globally? What are the challenges that universities face in relation to SDP, locally and globally?	How can the SDP sector build on these strengths? How can these challenges be resolved?
5. Optimal future role for universities in SDP	What would be the ideal role for the academic sector in SDP, locally and globally?	What responsibilities do you think the academic sector can fulfil in SDP?
6. Overall thoughts	How do you feel the state, civil society and academic sector can best interact with one another in SDP?	What are the optimal institutional arrangements for these actors to work together?

Appendix R: Supporting Documents Article One

See below for permission from the journal to reproduce this article as part of the doctoral study.



AFRICAN JOURNAL FOR PHYSICAL ACTIVITY AND HEALTH SCIENCES (AJPHEs)

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2 November 2017

B. Sanders, Prof. C. De Coning and Prof. M. Keim
Interdisciplinary Centre of Sport Science and Development,
University of the Western Cape, Private Bag X 17, Bellville,
Cape Town, South Africa.

Dear Prof. Keim,

GOING TO SCALE? A CRITIQUE OF THE ROLE OF THE PUBLIC SECTOR IN SPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT AND PEACE IN SOUTH AFRICA

Permission is hereby granted for the lead author, Ben Sanders to reproduce the above- cited article as part of his doctoral study at University of the Western Cape.

Yours sincerely,

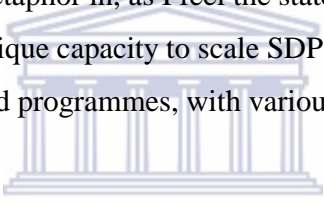
Prof. A.L. Toriola
Editor-In-Chief, AJPHEs

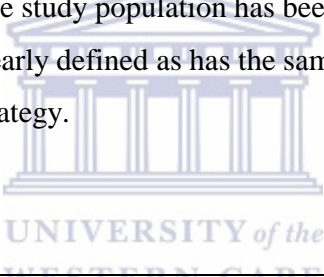
Reviewer Comments Article One

See below for the feedback from reviewers following the initial submission of *A Critique of the Role of the Public Sector in Sport for Development and Peace in South Africa* to the African Journal for Physical Activity and Health Sciences.

Please note that the reviewer comments were provided in a combined fashion by the editor. The table below shows the reviewer comments as well as the author's response. This was submitted to the journal as such and makes it easier for the reader to understand the individual responses.

Author response to specific comments and/or suggestions for revision from reviewers

Reviewer Comments	Author Response	Evidence
<p>Going to scale in what sense?</p> <p>The title should be modified appropriately. This is not a debate, it looks more to me like an analysis or critique.</p>	<p>Going to Scale in the sense of mainstreaming sport for development and peace. I kept the 'Going to Scale' metaphor in, as I feel the state has a unique capacity to scale SDP policies and programmes, with various partners.</p>  <p>I agree with the fact that this is more a critique than a debate and have modified the title to: Going to Scale? A Critique of the Role of the Public Sector in Sport for Development and Peace in South Africa.</p>	<p>See attached revised title page.</p>
<p>The introduction (6 pages) is extremely too long. This should be shortened to about three pages or less.</p>	<p>The introduction has been shortened considerably. It is now about three pages.</p> <p>The rise of the SDP movement has been shortened as has the critique of SDP.</p> <p>The section on the role of the state in SDP been trimmed, including removing the section on cooperative governance.</p> <p>The section on the role of the SA government in SDP has also been shortened with certain paragraphs being</p>	<p>See attached revised body – with tracked changes and also clean version.</p> <p>Introduction is now lines 13-101 in the clean version.</p>

	transferred to a discussion section where they are more appropriate as they relate to the findings.	
Line 109: Cooperative governance - How does this relate to the concept of interactive governance proposed by Kooiman (2008)? Is it relevant in this context? If not, why?	As mentioned above, the section on cooperative governance has been removed, though there does remain a section on governance and the different public management paradigms. The concept of interactive governance is relevant were we to explore this theme more broadly but it has not been specifically included as the cooperative governance section is now removed.	N/A
Lines 213-221: You need to define your study population. You also need to clarify how the sample was selected? This is vaguely described.	The study population has been more clearly defined as has the sampling strategy. 	Lines 119-144 in clean version.
Lines 225-226: What makes one an SDP expert? How were they identified specifically? What strategy was used?	The criteria used is described: Key SDP experts in South Africa (n=5) were identified based on their understanding of the SDP sector globally and nationally, their research outputs and academic profile, as well as their knowledge of the South African government and contribution to policy frameworks relating to SDP.	Lines 139-144 in clean version.
Lines 235-239: Was a questionnaire used? How was this developed and validated?	The nature of the questionnaire as well as its development are described in detail.	Lines 153-159 in clean version.
Lines 242-245: How were the schools selected? What	Two high schools and two primary schools in urban (n=4) and rural areas	Lines 134-136 in clean version.

<p>informed the selection of the schools? Were the interviews focus group interviews or individual interviews? How was it conducted and how was the instrument designed and validated? How was trustworthiness assured as a qualitative design was used? Your statement in lines 252 to 255 does not sufficiently address the issue of trustworthiness.</p>	<p>(n=4) were randomly selected.</p> <p>Individual interviews were conducted in person or where needed telephonically. An interview guide was designed to complement the survey questionnaire and validated internally by DCAS.</p> <p>Greater detail is provided on the process of ensuring trustworthiness, including the steps used to build credibility.</p>	<p>Lines 160-164 in clean version.</p> <p>Lines 167-175 in clean version.</p>
<p>Lines 245-247: How were these participants selected to participate in the study?</p>	<p>These are the SDP experts cited earlier and as such these lines have been removed, and the detail is covered earlier in the study population section.</p>	<p>Lines 139-144 in clean version.</p>
<p>Lines 258-271: This is a thesis format. Not necessary here. This should have been integrated with the introduction.</p>	<p>Agreed. The 'delimitation' section has been removed. The point about the private sector having a role to play but not being explicit in this article is covered in a discussion on intersectoral collaboration later on in the article.</p>	<p>Lines 418-421 cover the private sector point.</p>
<p>Lines 480-485: What about international comparisons? Do we have the state in charge of SDP programmes in other countries? How effective have these been and what are the common challenges they face?</p>	<p>A broader literature review has been conducted around the role of state (and non-state) actors in SDP, as well as the possible relationships and configurations. This includes literature from Lindsey, Bitugu, Hayhurst, Richards and other experts in the field. The insights have been merged throughout the article, including in the introduction and discussion and recommendations section.</p>	<p>Lines 66-71; Lines 310-315; Lines 391-394; Lines 407-412 now include greater literature on the role of the state in SDP.</p>

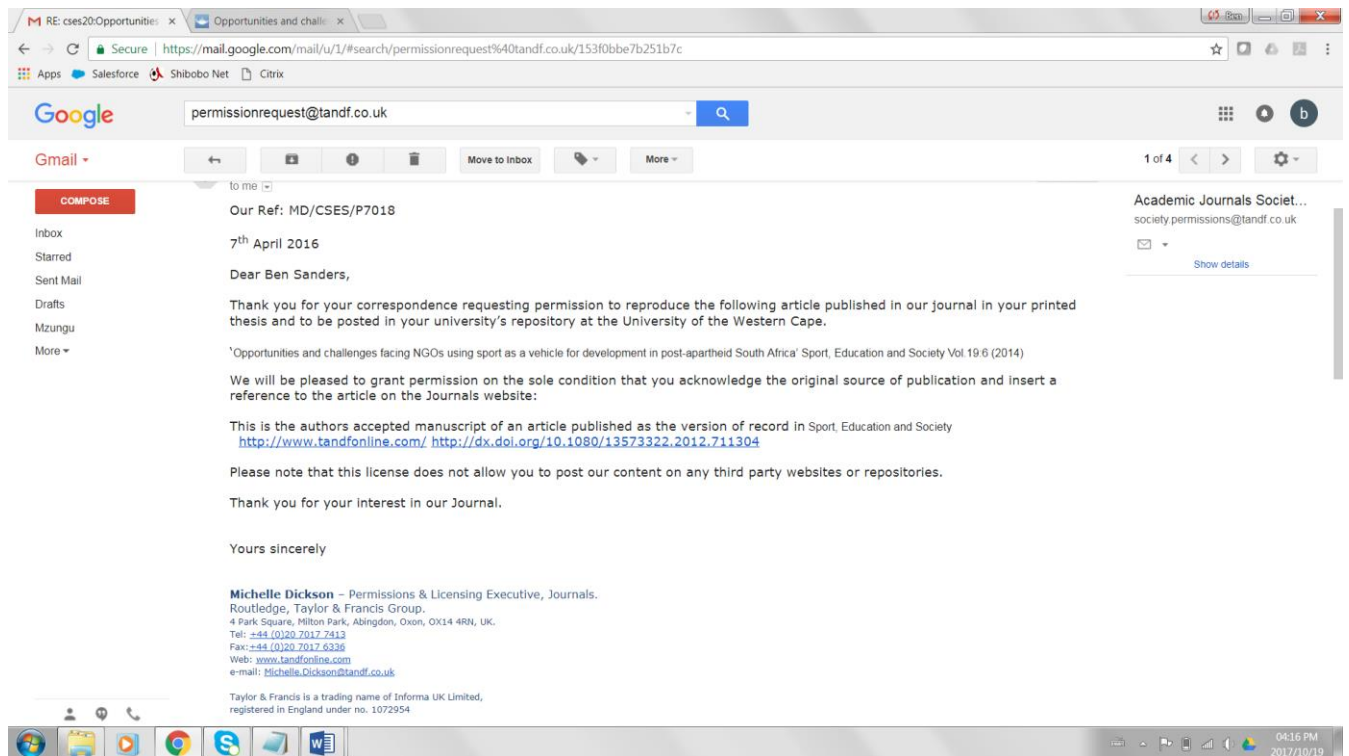
<p>Lines 505-523: Your conclusions have been mixed with recommendations. Separate them.</p>	<p>Agreed. The conclusion has been shortened to provide a summary of the article and its main arguments. The recommendations are now part of the 'Discussion and Recommendations' Section.</p>	<p>'Discussion and Recommendations' Section runs from lines 307-436.</p>
<p>Need to adapt the manuscript to AJPHEs style before resubmission.</p>	<p>The manuscript style has been adapted. All headings have been changed where needed. The reference list has been checked and verified by APA standards.</p>	<p>Throughout the article (see tracked changes for detail).</p>



Appendix S: Supporting Documents Article Two

- a) Permission to reproduce article for doctoral study.

See attached a screenshot of an email received from Taylor and Francis, providing permission to reproduce the article as part of the doctoral study. The original email can be provided if need be.



The candidate can supply a PDF version of the copyright agreement signed with Taylor & Francis, as well as a PDF version of a Proof Cover Sheet supplied by the Journal. The submission was made online, thus the majority of correspondence was on the online platform.

b) Reviewer Comments and feedback

See below for the feedback from reviewers following the initial submission of *Opportunities and challenges facing NGOs using sport as a vehicle for development in post-apartheid South Africa* to Sport, Education and Society.

Reviewer(s)' Comments to Author:

Reviewer: 1

Comments to the Author

This paper presents research that will prospectively be appealing to an international audience and that can connect with a growing body of literature that focuses on changing relations between education and sport, and new 'partnerships' in/for provision. As indicated in the comments that follow, to achieve this I see a need for further literature to be referred to and incorporated, specifically to strengthen the work conceptually and to better connect it with the international field. I have provided suggested texts/papers below and would anticipate these informing some re-development of the literature review and discussion sections.

In reviewing literature and particularly, considering contemporary work in sport policy, Houlihan's work seems a notable omission. In addition to producing texts on sport policy, he has engaged with education-sport policy relations. I think some extension to the opening sections is needed, to incorporate Houlihan's work - and other work internationally that has pointed to the need for a critical perspective in considering the educational and social role/function of sport. Engaging with this work should enable greater depth to be developed from a conceptual perspective.

Houlihan, B. (1997). *Sport, Policy and Politics: A comparative analysis*. London: Routledge.

Houlihan, B. (2000). Sporting excellence, schools and sports development: The politics of crowded policy spaces. *European Physical Education Review*, 6(2), 171-193.

Houlihan, B., & Green, M. (2006). The changing status of school sport and physical education: explaining policy change. *Sport, Education and Society*, 11(1), 73-92.

In addition, the research and paper relates well to contemporary international research and writing that has addressed (i) 'partnerships' between physical education and sport, involving new staffing and organizational arrangements (particularly work from the UK addressing School-Sport partnerships centring nationally on the Youth Sport Trust but at an institutional level, involving sport organisations and coaches working with/in schools; and (ii) the increased use of external providers in primary physical education particularly in Australasia.

- I thus think there are important connections to be made with further literature and that doing so will significantly enhance the international appeal of this paper.

Some suggested references are:

The recent special issue (issue 3 2011) of the *European Physical Education Review* – and particularly, papers in that issue by Fry et al, Petrie and Lisa Hunter, Thorburn and colleagues, and Flintoff.

Flintoff, A. (2003). The School Sport Co-ordinator Programme: Changing the role of the physical education teacher? *Sport Education and Society*, 8(2), 231-250.

Macdonald, D., Hay, P., & Williams, B. (2008). Should you buy? Neo-liberalism, neo-HPE, and your neo-job. *New Zealand Physical Educator*, 41(3), 6-13.

Whipp, P. R., Hutton, H., Grove, J. R., & Jackson, B. (2011). Outsourcing Physical Education in primary schools: Evaluating the impact of externally provided programmes on generalist teachers. *Asia Pacific Journal of Health, Sport and Physical Education*, 2(2), 67-78.

Other more minor observations are:
p.6 line 7 – It would be useful to clarify if this comment is being made in relation to Africa or South Africa specifically, or if it is intended as internationally applicable. If the latter I suggest there is a need for supporting references.

The sentence p.8 lines 41-48 needs splitting and the points within it would benefit from some further explanation.

p.9 line 26 – quotation - ?page number

p.9 line 32 – the term ‘civil society’ is used – the intended meaning should probably be clarified for readers

Reviewer: 2

Comments to the Author

This article addresses an important issue and provides useful insight into the use of sport as a vehicle for development. It could make an interesting addition to the Journal. However, I had a number of concerns. First, the title “Towards a Level Playing Field” did not seem to be

developed in the paper in a way that justified its naming – can this idea run through the paper more or be brought more strongly into the conclusion at least? A level playing field for whom? For NGOs?

Second, while there is a research component to the paper, its effect is more one of advocacy of a particular position, than demonstration of an argument. See for example p.16, line 27 declaring that the NGOs are “doing a fantastic job” and that “they must not assume the same role as government” (line 31). I assume they cannot, as stated later in the paragraph. Rather than asserting that NGOs must not take over the government’s service delivery role, I think the argument needs to be crafted, in detail, as to what the appropriate relationship is. What is the competition between government and NGOs and other organisations (line 50)? What is the capacity for coordination? The work of different policy models that comes near the end of the paper (see my comments below) might also be helpful. The author’s interest is not declared, but perhaps ought to be in making the case for the role of NGOs against “the backdrop of a stagnating education system”. The author is careful to point out that sport, like any other activity, is inherently neither good nor bad. This same insight does not seem to be applied to the reported work of the NGOs. Moreover, the author assumes that sport and physical exercise can and should be treated as equal to other school subjects. While most readers of this journal will concur, the position is not problematized in general, or in the specific context of South African education.

Third, although the paper is presented as a “case study” of opportunities and challenges, I did not feel there was enough detail to really make a case. For instance, when the presence or otherwise of teachers during LO sessions is discussed, I am left wondering about the clarity or blurring of roles, and about mechanisms for feedback from these (often young, inexperienced, untrained to handle such information?) coaches to teachers about potentially sensitive or harmful issues raised by children (p.19). Furthermore, it is not clear how formalising the relationship of NGOs with schools will reduce resistance from teachers. Also, the claim is made that “it has become clear” (p. 21, line 7) that partnering with government might limit independence, but I don’t believe this point has been demonstrated through the data provided.

The observation that NGOs operate within different policy models (intervention, arena, and partnership) is useful (p. 21) and might be developed further as a lens or framework for analysing existing arrangements and articulating a way forward, but I don’t believe it has been demonstrated that these different models have been clearly derived from the data presented. Referring back to the data in this section might help to strengthen the relationship between parts of the paper and hence the argument being made.

Some other minor points that should be addressed:

- What is MYSA (p.6, line 11)?
- The claim is that the findings will have broader relevance for Africa (p. 7, line 55). What about elsewhere?
- Tenses change in the reporting of the data section of the paper.
- Page reference needed for Coalter quote (p. 17, line 30).

Response to Reviewer Comments

Reviewer 1:

The recommended literature from Houlihan and Flintoff contributed important insights and has been incorporated into the article. It is hoped that this will add greater depth and relevance, especially to the policy debates and processes surrounding school sport and physical education.

I have responded to all minor observations, including the one in italics below:

p.6 line 7 – It would be useful to clarify if this comment is being made in relation to Africa/ South Africa specifically, or if it is intended as internationally applicable. If the latter I suggest there is a need for supporting references.

This comment was taken on board and the paragraph was expanded to show that the Beyond Sport Conference is not only for African projects. It was simply held in Cape Town but showcases sport for development programmes from all over the world, mainly NGOs.

In addition, McDonald's work was evaluated and included in the article especially with regard to the different ideologies and interests underpinning involvement in school sport and physical activity.

Whipp's contribution was also noted, especially with regard to the outsourcing of physical education as the study involved two external organisations that provide sport and physical education to schools. This work was central in the discussion section.

Reviewer 2:

The title 'Towards a Level Playing Field' is explained in some detail in the article. There is a coherent summary of the skewed legacy of apartheid and how this has resulted in sporting inequities. As such, NGOs and other organisations have an important role to play in reversing such inequities and this contribute to levelling the playing field. Exploring the opportunities and challenging facing NGOs in this field, and especially their relationship with the state, should help

these organisations optimise their work and once again work ‘Towards a Level Playing Field’. The field refers not to NGOs but to levelling sporting opportunities in South Africa – NGOs, government and others have a role to play.

However, it is understood that the title may be generalist and slightly clichéd or misleading for some. Thus I have removed the title and replaced it with a shortened version of the subtitle, namely: “Opportunities and challenges facing NGOs using sport as a vehicle for development in post-apartheid South Africa”. This is clearer and describes the research area better.

The comments regarding the nature of NGOs and an appropriate relationship with the state are well-founded and the author has attempted to provide greater depth to the ways in which NGOs and government can work together, and what their suggested roles and responsibilities should be. In addition, the state of sport in schools does need to be problematized more effectively, and the author has attempted to show why sport does often take a backseat in the education system, both worldwide and in South Africa.

The case study data is far more detailed than presented for the journal and has been simplified and shortened for the purposes of the journal. However, the presence of teachers and the reporting mechanisms of coaches (and the possible conflict between them) will be explored in more detail. Formalising the relationship with NGOs and schools should ensure that these organisations and their staff are seen as a more integral part of the school day, and thus more likely to be accepted by teachers, who should have been briefed as to the service agreement between said school and NGO.

The claim that partnering with government might limit independence of NGOs was explored in detail in the section called ‘**Relationship between NGOs, government and schools**’ and was a constant theme noted in interviews with staff from these organisations. It has been articulated better now.

The minor comments have been addressed.

Second Set of Reviewer Comments to Author, including Author’s Responses:

Below are the second set of reviewer comments with the author’s response in *italics*.

The paper title has been amended and in my view now more appropriately reflects paper content and orientation. *The amended title has been maintained.*

The commentary that has been added pages 7-8 provides an important point of connection to relevant literature and an international readership. *Great.*

I see the discussion as the area of the paper that now has most potential/ need for development:

- Several statements are made regarding the course of action or stance that ‘needs’ to be adopted. It is unclear at this point whether the statements reflect the data and/or author/s’ views. I would therefore suggest modifying the text at several points in the discussion to clarify the standing/ basis of the statements – with subtle additions such as ‘From the data gathered it is clear that’ etc.

This comment has been taken on board and the researcher has made an attempt to link the suggestions with the research findings, so it is clear that they emanated from the case study.

- A further point arises regarding terminology - p.23 – Line 9 – “Sport and physical exercise need to be taken seriously at schools...” – should this be physical education?

This has been changed accordingly.

- In the discussion and conclusion the author/s talk of ‘a partnership policy model’. Comments pages 24, 26 seem in danger of failing to acknowledge the complexity of partnerships and that talk of ‘a’ model is arguably inappropriate when set against the scope for variation in the negotiations and differences in power-relations amidst any partnership. I see a need therefore, for expansion here about the nature and/or key principles underpinning the sort of partnership model being advocated (particularly given e.g. insights p.23 that partnership can mean tensions between gain of resources and relative loss of control of development agendas for NGOs...). This could usefully be linking back to the ‘To partner or not to partner?’ section pp.9-10 in terms of focusing on the terms/arrangements/power-relations that need to be addressed in responding to that question.

This comment has been taken on board and the researcher has indicated that there is no such thing as a definitive model, nor does one model universally work for all organisations and potential partnerships. It has further been argued that partnerships must be fair and equitable, and that clear lines of communication and accountability are vital, as is a joint vision and shared strategic goals. It is suggested that a partnership must operate under the right conditions in order to be truly effective. Thus the discussion and conclusion have thus been linked back to the previous section, as suggested.

Appendix T: Supporting Documents Article Three

See below permission to Reproduce Article in Commonwealth Youth and Development

16 October 2017

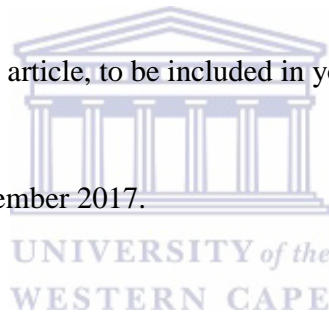
Dear Mr B Sanders

Reference: Article for publication

This serves to confirm that your article titled: *Changing The Game - Can A Sport-Based Youth Development Programme Generate A Positive Social Return On Investment* has been accepted and will be published in the next issue of Commonwealth Youth and Development, Vol 15 no 1 2017.

Consent for the published/accepted article, to be included in your PhD dissertation, has been granted.

The issue will be published in December 2017.



Regards

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Khan".

Professor KB Khan

Editor in Chief CYD

Reviewer comments were not publicly available for the submission of *Changing the Game – Can a Sport-Based Youth Development Programme Generate a Positive Social Return on Investment?* to Commonwealth Youth and Development.

Appendix U: Supporting Documents Article Four

a) Below is the permission from the journal to reproduce the article as part of the doctoral study.



Prof SJ (Hanlie) Moss
Editor: South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation
Physical Activity, Sport and Recreation Research Focus Area
Private Bag X6001, North-West University, Potchefstroom, South Africa, 2620
www.sajrsper.com • SAJRSPER@nwu.ac.za • +27182991821

20 September, 2017

Mr B Sanders
Interdisciplinary Centre of Sport Science and Development,
University of the Western Cape,
Bellville, Cape Town,
Rep. of South Africa

Dear Mr Sanders

RE: Acceptance of manuscript MS 1265 by SAJRSPER

This serves to confirm that your article titled: "HOW SHOULD UNIVERSITIES PLAY THE GAME? ROLE OF ACADEMIC SECTOR IN SPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT AND PEACE IN SOUTH AFRICA" have been accepted for publication by the *South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation*. The article will be published in Volume 39 (3), 2017 which is due to be available in December 2017.

Consent for the published/accepted article, to be included in your PhD dissertation, is hereby granted.

Kind regards

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'SJ Moss', is written over a light blue rectangular background.

Prof SJ Moss
Editor: SAJRSPER

b) Cover letter accompanying submission



UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa.

Tel: +27 21-959 3859, Fax: 27 21-959 1240

COVER LETTER RE: SUBMISSION OF MANUSCRIPT

This letter serves to confirm that the manuscript entitled *Should Universities Play the Game? A Critical Examination and Case Study of the Role of the Academic Sector in the Field of Sport for Development and Peace in South Africa*, submitted to the South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation, contains original research.

Furthermore, the manuscript, or parts of the manuscript, has not been published elsewhere previously. The manuscript is not currently being presented elsewhere for publication. All the authors have read and approved the manuscript.

Signed in Cape Town on 27 October 2016.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Ben Sanders', written over a horizontal line.

Ben Sanders, Corresponding Author

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Marion Keim', written over a horizontal line.

Professor Marion Keim, Co-Author

REFEREES

1) Professor Jay Coakley, Professor Emeritus of Sociology, University of Colorado.

Phone: [970-416-1325](tel:970-416-1325) (land); [970-231-6420](tel:970-231-6420) (cell) | Email: jcoakley@uccs.edu

2) Associate Professor Oscar Mwaanga, School of Sport, Health, and Social Sciences, Southampton Solent University; Email: oscar.mwaanga@solent.ac.uk

3) Professor Joseph Maguire, PhD, FAcSS

School of Sport, Exercise & Health Sciences, Loughborough University

Email: J.A.Maguire@lboro.ac.uk

c) Reviewer comments and author response

See below for the feedback from reviewers for the submission of *How Should Universities Play the Game? A Critical Examination of the Role of the Academic Sector in Sport for Development and Peace in South Africa* to the South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation.

Reviewer comments

Both reviewers agree that the manuscript is publishable but need to be revised as indicated in the texts and feedback on the form.

The reviews are as follow:

Reviewer A.

1. GENERAL COMMENTS

a) the standard of the scientific nature of the paper

The research methods and rigor are very thorough for this paper. The paper has a good balance of literature study, description of research conducted, discussion and conclusion, although the research methods section was a bit long.

b) the contribution made to research in its particular field.

This paper provides a good understanding of the current state of universities in relation to SDP in South Africa. There is a dearth of research in this field, which this papers seeks to address.

There are excellent arguments for the role of universities in the field of SDP and the practical application of this research study. Universities are not in competition with other civil organizations, but can complement government and NGO practices, providing expertise, critique, and legitimacy of programs.

2. SPECIFIC RECOMMENDATIONS FOR REVISION *(where applicable)*

There are a few small edits in the document, as well as some comments. Figure 1 needs to be incorporated in the text better. It needs a reference, and more description on the details of the figure.

There is a comment about "ensuring more academics are born". This is a good point, but requires a different wording.

The variations and differences between universities within South Africa are mentioned briefly in the delimitation section, however, it would make sense to mention this within the background section. Differences and the divide between universities in the "North and South" are mentioned, however, there is a wide variety of differences within South Africa (especially with the highest Gini Coefficient). Most research is conducted in Gauteng and the Western Cape, the provinces with the most access to resources, status and knowledge production. This is a further challenge and divide within South Africa.

The North/South divide is important, however, the divide within South Africa also needs to be made evident. South Africa has the highest Gini Coefficient in the world and this is reflected in the universities as well, with a concentration of research in Gauteng and the Western Cape. This challenge should be addressed within South Africa as well as internationally. It is a matter of where research is conducted, who is conducting it, as well as where it is being published. There is a lot of good research that is done in South Africa, and other places in the "South" that is not easily accessible in "Northern" universities and therefore unknown or less known and not acknowledged to the same degree as research from other "Northern" universities. This is another area that North-South collaborations between universities can address.

Here is a reference related to that discussion: Lindsey, I. and Zakariah, A.B.T. and Owusu-Ansah, E. and Ndee, H. and Jeanes, R. (2015) 'Researching 'sustainable development in African sport' : a case study of a North-South academic collaboration.', in *Beyond sport for development and peace : transnational perspectives on theory, policy and practice*. Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge, pp. 196-209. Routledge research in sport, culture and society.

Reviewer B

1. GENERAL COMMENTS

- a) The standard of the scientific nature of the paper
- This article needs extensive work to be publishable.
- b) The contribution made to research in its particular field.
- Once changes have been made, this research will make a noteworthy contribution to the field of Sport for Development.

2. SPECIFIC RECOMMENDATIONS FOR REVISION (where applicable)

- See recommendations and changes on document.

- Use the data that you have collected in the Results section - the presented data is inadequate to substantiate claims and identified themes.
- More insight is needed from the universities' side as this is the focus of the research.
- Ensure that you are familiar with the guidelines for authors - apply.

I trust this would be acceptable to request the author(s) to attend to the recommendations.

Author Response to Reviewer Comments:

All reviewer comments were addressed timeously and all changes were accepted by the journal. A formal rebuttal letter was sent to the editor as requested (see below) on a UWC letterhead.

11 March 2017

Attention: SJ (Hanlie) Moss (PhD, MBA)

Editor: South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation
Physical Activity, Sport and Recreation Research Focus Area
North-West University, Potchefstroom, South Africa

Dear Professor Moss,

This serves as a rebuttal letter regarding the submission of Manuscript MS1265 hereby titled: *How Should Universities Play the Game? A Critical Examination of the Role of the Academic Sector in Sport for Development and Peace in South Africa.*

The authors (Ben Sanders and Professor Marion Keim) have taken the reviewer comments into account and amended the article accordingly. We hope that it will now be considered ready for publication in the South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation.

Thanks again for the opportunity.

Regards,



Ben Sanders (corresponding author)

Doctoral candidate in Sport for Development at University of the Western Cape