

**KEY FACTORS IN PROJECT DESIGN AND PLANNING:
A CASE STUDY OF SPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT**

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**A dissertation submitted to the University of Manchester for the degree of
MSc Management and Implementation of Development Projects**

Dated 9 September 2011

**Institute for Development Policy and Management
School of Environment and Development**

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ABSTRACT

Sport is believed to play a valuable role in development by an increasing number of practitioners and agencies. Despite this, there remains great debate over the extent of sport's social benefits and its contribution to social change and development. Currently, a key issue in Sport for Development is the lack of evidence supporting its claims, which can be partially linked to the disconnection between initial programme and project outcomes and the ability to measure and achieve these outcomes. The dissertation focused on the design of Sport for Development projects to enhance their effectiveness in achieving social change objectives, through a case study of projects operating within Southern Africa. Specifically, significant project elements and categories were identified and compared to theoretical frameworks, and project design approaches were examined for compatibility with the identified elements.

Findings identified capacity building, sport, inclusivity, community engagement, youth leadership, structure, additional component, project specification and project management as thematic categories most important in achieving social change objectives. It was concluded that understanding dimensions of effectiveness is more important than identifying specific elements; the new Sport for Development Theory could provide a useful framework however, further investigation is necessary to determine its general applicability; and essential aspects of project design are stakeholder participation and community engagement. Nevertheless, selecting an appropriate development approach depends on the project context and stakeholder philosophies. Further investigation into balanced logical and participatory approaches and community-based development could strengthen the theoretical basis of Sport for Development interventions for increased effectiveness in future.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are many people I would like to acknowledge for their part in my latest endeavour within the wonderful world of development:

Mr. Paul Barry for his ongoing support as my supervisor, and for his energy, guidance, understanding and friendliness throughout the year as Programme Director for MIDP;

The lecturers and administrators of IDPM who offered a positive learning environment and promoted critical thinking and the application of theoretical learning to practical settings.

Melissa Palombi and Laura Banfield for their practical advice, stimulating conversations and difficult questions, and for putting up with my scattered ideas;

Orla Cronin for her insight into the world of sport for development research;

Clare Barrell for her assistance in piloting the interview, and for general discussions about development practice;

The people who gave up their time to participate in my interviews and contribute their valued opinions, and those who helped me gather information about the organisations and projects involved;

The people of SCORE and Kicking AIDS Out who continue to inspire me to learn from ‘the people’ and strive for cooperative actions to build healthier communities;

My friends near and far- the MIDP class of 2010-2011 for a great year in Manchester with continuous academic encouragement and social amusement, and those across the globe who continue to extend moral support, motivation and goodwill from afar, which I greatly appreciate;

And my family, especially my parents for their generous and eternal support in all my ventures, for which I am eternally grateful;

“Let us be loving, hopeful and optimistic. And we’ll change the world” - Jack Layton

Thank you very much.

DECLARATION

No portion of the work referred to in the dissertation has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification of this or any other university or other institute of learning.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AI – Appreciative Inquiry
AIDS – Auto Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CGC – Commonwealth Games Canada
CSF – Critical Success Factor
GDP – Gross Domestic Product
HIV – Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IDS – International Development Through Sport
IIED – International Institute for Environment and Development
LFA – Logical Framework Approach
LNOC – Lesotho National Olympic Committee
LTG – Leading the Games
MDGs – Millennium Development Goals
M&E – Monitoring & Evaluation
NAM-VIP – Namibia Volunteer Involvement Programme
NCDO – National Committee for International Cooperation and Sustainable Development
NIF – Norwegian Olympic & Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports
NORAD – Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation
NSD – Network for Sport and Development
OM – Outcome Mapping
OYAP – OlympAfrica Youth Ambassador Programme
PLA – Participatory Learning Approach
PRA – Participatory Rural Appraisal
RBM – Results Based Monitored
RISDP – Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan
SAD – Swiss Academy for Development
SADC – Southern Africa Development Community
SCSA – Supreme Council for Sport in Africa
SEDYEL – South East District Youth Empowerment League
SDP – Sport for Development and Peace
SDP IWG – Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group
SFD – Sport for Development
SFDT – Sport for Development Theory

SLA – Sustainable Livelihoods Approach

SOCS – Sports and Olympic Council of Swaziland

TOC – Theory of Change

UK – United Kingdom

UN – United Nations

UNICEF – United Nations Children’s Fund

UNOSDP – United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

1.1.1 *Sport and International Development*

Sport for Development is a relatively new field in the realm of social development; promoted throughout the 1990s by athletes and sport leaders, it led to various United Nations endorsements (Kidd, 2008) and the establishment of the Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group (SDP IWG) in 2004 (UNOSDP, 2009). During the past two decades hundreds of organisations have been using sport and physical activity to address social issues in countries across the globe as part of the ‘international movement of Sport for Development and Peace’ (SDP). The International Platform on Sport for Development was established to connect the members and promote the SDP movement (Kidd, 2008) and there are now over 300 organisations listed on the platform website (SAD, 2011a). According to the UN, “‘Sport for Development and Peace’ refers to the intentional use of sport, physical activity and play to attain specific development and peace objectives, including, most notably, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)” (SDP IWG, 2009: p1).

Sport for Development and Peace (SDP) can be further divided into ‘Sport for Development’, the use of sport to contribute in achieving development goals, and ‘Sport for Peace’, the use of sport in areas of conflict to promote intercultural reconciliation and communication (Kidd, 2008). Sport for Development (SFD), the topic of this dissertation, focuses on providing access to and involving all people in sport and physical activities for the benefit of individuals, communities and societies, and is different from ‘sport development’ which concentrates on developing athletes, coaches, officials, structures, institutions and facilities involved in organised sport (Kidd, 2008). SFD is founded on the premise that sport is a versatile, effective and low-cost tool for social and economic development, because it is popular and allows people to connect, communicate and build capacity (SDP IWG, 2009).

Increased use of sport by various institutions has been noted, as they strive to enhance development interventions and access areas beyond the reach of traditional interventions (Levermore, 2008a), especially when centring on youth, women and people with disabilities (Levermore & Beacom, 2009b). This increase reflects a shift in the development aid paradigm from top-down economic policies towards building civil society and social capital, taking into account cultural conditions, social relationships, human capital and community-based development within interventions (Coalter, 2010a).

The SDP IWG (2009) believes that well-designed SFD programmes are able to assist in achieving the MDGs, but that sport alone cannot achieve development goals and it needs to be integrated with other practices and interventions for optimal impact. The areas that benefit most from sport according to the UN Office on Sport for Development and Peace (UNOSDP, 2011) are:

- Individual development
- Health promotion and disease prevention
- Promotion of gender equality
- Social integration and the development of social capital
- Peace building and conflict prevention/resolution
- Post-disaster/trauma relief and normalisation of life
- Economic development
- Communication and social mobilisation

An increasing number of development practitioners and agencies believe sport has an important and valuable role to play in the development process, which continues to be supported by the latest UN General Assembly resolution on “Sports as a means to promote education, health, development and peace” from 2010. The resolution states that the UN “emphasises and encourages the use of sport as a vehicle to foster development” in the areas of education, health, female empowerment, inclusion of people with disabilities, and conflict prevention and peace building (UN, 2010). This promotion along with the increased emphasis on ‘value for money’ and ‘aid effectiveness’ from donor governments (Levermore, 2011) creates pressure on SDP programmes and projects to perform and deliver on their outcomes and impacts.

1.1.2 Sport and Social Change

Social change is broadly understood as a change in social relations that affects the social structure itself, or aspects within the structure, including symbols, rules, organisation and values (Form, 2011). The Laureus Foundation explains sport for social change as the use of sport as a tool to positively transform social problems in communities (Laureus, 2006), and it is believed that sport can produce a more equal, cohesive and peaceful society (Spaaj, 2009b). Hartmann (2003) points out that social interventions are complex and difficult even under ideal conditions of plentiful resources and comprehensive programmes. To disregard the often resource-limited conditions of SFD interventions overestimates the power of sport in tackling the challenges of significant social change (Hartmann, 2003).

There remains great debate over the extent of sport's social benefits and its contribution to social change and development. Based on literature reviews, Kidd and Donnelly (2007) concluded that although the research illustrates direct positive effects of physical activity on physical health, social benefits appear to be indirect outcomes of participating in sport, and further research was required (a) to determine the specific contexts resulting in positive outcomes from sport; (b) to determine how to adapt sport to attain positive outcomes in other contexts; and (c) to guide identification and planning of intervention outcomes and methods. Measuring and demonstrating evidence for social change is challenging, since it involves behaviour change, which is difficult to achieve (NCDO, 2010). Behaviour and social change require the consideration of social structures and context (NCDO, 2010), making it more difficult to evaluate and prove the effects resulting from sport (NSD, 2009). Therefore, sport cannot be considered a universal development solution due to a lack of evidence regarding its effectiveness (Levermore, 2008b), and further investigation is needed to determine how sport can contribute toward social change.

1.1.3 Lack of Evidence

Currently, a key issue in SFD is the lack of evidence supporting its claims to promote positive social change and to contribute towards social development. Gaps between theory and practice are depicted by the absence of scientific evidence or frameworks outlining mechanisms of social change through sport (Lyras 2007; 2009). In a climate of accountability and evidence-based practices, policy-makers are concerned with the creation and implementation of effective development programmes (Nicholls, Giles & Sethna, in press) and the ability to illustrate proven outcomes and impacts from SFD interventions (NSD, 2009). NCDO (2007: 46) defines effectiveness as “the extent to which an aid activity achieves the goals it has set, or the results of the project tally with the project's original purpose.”

Consequently, the desire for tangible results to satisfy tax payers of aid-giving countries has increased the pressure to design and report on projects using assumptions that all development issues are limited and enclosed (Eyben, 2011). In effect, sport cannot prove its worth in development programmes, or its effectiveness to those who provide funding, without demonstrating concrete results of the effects of SFD interventions. Meanwhile, Levermore and Beacom (2009) found the acknowledgement of sport's role in development within social science literature to be essentially absent, demonstrating that further evaluation is required to

decisively determine whether sport can deliver as a long term player in development (Levermore, 2008b).

Coalter (2010c) explained that a lack of evidence can result from the disconnection between initial programme and project outcomes and the ability to measure and achieve these outcomes, further describing the strategic issue as “... a lack of understanding of *programme processes* [pointing] to the need for programme providers and funders to develop *programme theories* and to articulate *how* programmes are meant to work” (Coalter, 2010c: xii). Programme theory (also known as a theory of change) summarises the series of cause and effect relationships within an intervention that lead to certain outcomes or results (Coalter, 2010c). An intervention aims to improve a situation by involving the people or things concerned (Soanes, 2010) and a project constitutes a planned intervention of related activities, conducted during a certain time and using specific resources, to achieve set objectives (Dale, 2004). Programmes involve multiple activities and longer time frames, often implemented by networks of institutions in various locations, to realise objectives and impacts originating from local policy (Brinkerhoff, 1992). Projects are thought of as building blocks of programmes, along with operations, and both share management functions required for achieving successful results (Brinkerhoff, 1992).

With the increased adoption of SFD programmes by larger development institutions, development organisations often manage multiple projects and report to different donors and partners who have varying requirements and expectations. Individual projects are implemented in a wide range of communities, countries and regional areas and all have unique situational contexts to contend with, while being expected to meet the overall objectives of national strategies and international development programmes. Project management is the process of controlling project delivery, using resources, tools and techniques, to achieve project objectives (Munns & Bjeirmi, 1996), making it an important factor in improving SFD project effectiveness.

In light of the various actors involved in SFD interventions, there is great opportunity for donors, academics and practitioners to learn from each other, discuss the practical application of theory, and provide direction for SFD in future (Levermore & Beacom, 2009b). This collaboration is important for the demonstration of impacts of sport and physical activity on the social development areas listed by UNOSDP. SFD is not yet integrated into national development plans, and can be perceived as an externally generated intervention without local contribution, which could potentially lead to negative evaluations by beneficiaries (Akindes & Kirwin, 2009). A suggestion has been made by Akindes and Kirwin

(2009) to find an alternative approach with stakeholder participation, partnership and ownership at the core to improve effectiveness. In order to measure impact and provide evidence of social change, the projects first need to be designed such that they can realistically achieve their outcomes and produce relevant evidence. Moreover, Levermore & Beacom (2009b) argue for the merit of studying SFD as a means of illustrating dynamics within broader development processes.

1.2. Research Question

Regarding the apparent lack of evidence within the field of SFD, it appears that a limited knowledge of programme theory among practitioners is a contributing factor. How can practitioners improve programme theory and project design to ensure their projects include outcomes, methods and components that are more likely to contribute to social change objectives? How can donors and partners better support practitioners in reflecting on project design approaches that balance the needs of various stakeholders?

The research question of this dissertation focuses on the design of SFD projects to enhance their effectiveness in achieving social change objectives. The definition of ‘effective’ according to the Oxford English Dictionary is “producing an intended result” (Soanes, 2010: 237), and success is defined as “the accomplishment of an aim or purpose” (Soanes, 2010: 757), indicating similar connotations between them. Project management theory, described in further detail in Chapter Two, outlines that the purpose of a project is to achieve its objectives, and proper project design and planning lead to the likelihood of achieving objectives, thus being successful. Therefore, incorporating appropriate approaches, methods and key elements into project design would improve project effectiveness in achieving objectives. This leads to the following hypothesis:

If project elements making significant contribution toward social change objectives are included within the project design,
then the likelihood of achieving the objectives would increase, making the project more effective.

1.3. Methodology

A case study of a small network of SFD organisations implementing projects in the Southern African region was explored through the perceptions of twelve donors and practitioners. Data was collected in relation to significant project elements, or basic features,

of SFD projects, as well as the management and implementation of these elements within the projects, to address the following aims:

- To identify some significant project elements contributing to objectives of social change within SFD projects and to group them into thematic categories
- To compare the identified elements and categories with the Sport for Development Theory framework and project management Critical Success Factor frameworks to determine their applicability to SFD projects
- To identify project design approaches and methods, that include the identified elements and categories, for application in SFD project design

The study included a sample of 3 donors and 9 practitioners from 10 organisations based in various countries. The projects represented share similar social objectives of increasing youth leadership and empowerment, HIV/AIDS awareness, and gender equity. Semi-structured interviews were conducted to obtain primary research data, while secondary data was gathered through organisational documentation and a literature review of SFD project effectiveness, development management approaches, and project management success factors. The research findings and literature were examined to identify important factors for consideration in the design phase of SFD projects.

1.4. Structure

The structure of the dissertation proceeds with a literature review of theoretical perspectives on SFD, project cycle management, development theory, and success factors presented in Chapter Two. Chapter Three explains the research design and methodology used, while Chapter Four describes the case study context. Chapter Five presents the findings from the primary research, followed by an evaluation of the research findings and theoretical perspectives in the discussion of Chapter Six. Finally, Chapter Seven provides concluding statements and suggestions informing future practice and investigation.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

In examining the research question a literature review was conducted to determine the current perspectives held regarding SFD impact on the social development areas related to the case study; those of youth development and empowerment, health promotion, gender equity and social and community development. Theoretical perspectives of project cycle management, development approaches and project success factors are presented in providing a foundation for development project design and management. Finally, a specific SFD theoretical framework is explained in the overview of the Sport for Development Theory.

2.2. Sport for Development

The UN SDP IWG promotes the use of sport and physical education by governments and communities in achieving development goals of personal development, education, public health, HIV and AIDS prevention, gender inequality, intercultural relations and peace, and social inclusion and development. (Beutler, 2008; Kidd, 2010; Nicholls, Giles & Sethna, in press). Literature reviews edited by Kidd and Donnelly (2007) indicate that engaging in regular sport and physical activity leads to benefits in physical health and prevention of chronic diseases, as well as reduction of unhealthy behaviours.

As for social benefits, sport participation has been linked to increased self-esteem, leadership skills, empowerment, and personal and professional development (Kidd and Donnelly, 2007; Levermore, 2008b) through indirect outcomes provided by the context and social interaction of sport (Kidd & Donnelly, 2007). Furthermore, education, gender relations, and social inclusion of marginalised populations, have been positively affected by sport and physical activity programmes in various countries (Kidd and Donnelly, 2007). Within a well designed framework, sport can act as a means for social change (Jarvie, 2011).

Sport provides opportunities for learning and personal development, (NCDO, 2007; Kidd & Donnelly, 2007) in the areas of confidence, leadership and social responsibility through training and volunteering (Eley & Kirk, 2002) which engage youth in a holistic approach (Kay & Bradbury, 2009). Individuals are enabled to interact socially, gaining self-esteem and life skills (Waring & Mason, 2010; SAD, 2010) in addition to social skills of cooperation, fair play and trust (UN Inter-Agency Task Force on SDP, 2003). The leadership

skills and behaviours of sport leaders have been identified as a significant factor in the positive development of children (Donnelly, Darnell, Wells & Coakley, 2007).

Many SFD experts believe that sport programmes should be joined with educational interventions to produce behaviour change (Donnelly et al., 2007; NCDO, 2010) and improve academic performance and adherence (Kidd & Donnelly, 2007; Kay, 2009). These programmes are able to increase knowledge and skills, provide opportunities for ongoing learning, and contribute to youth development through informal education (Jarvie, 2011). Moreover, according to theories and supporting evidence, sport can lead indirectly to building character and morals, whether in a positive or negative manner, although the mechanisms, methods and causal links are not clear (Ewing, Gano-Overway, Branta & Seefeldt, 2002 cited by Donnelly et al., 2007; Levermore, 2008a).

Furthermore, sport has the ability to attract people and bring them together, serving as a platform for disseminating information and increasing awareness on health issues, such as HIV and AIDS (NCDO, 2007; Kidd, 2010). Sport programmes create non-threatening, apolitical and age-appropriate forums (Zakus, Njelesani & Darnell, 2007; Levermore, 2008a) suitable for global HIV education strategies (Jarvie, 2011). SFD practitioners emphasise the importance of using sport to engage children in health education programmes, since it improves the likelihood of information retention, empowerment and attitude change necessary to embrace positive behaviours (Levermore, 2008b; Laureus, 2010; NCDO, 2010).

Gender equality can be addressed through sport activities (Beutler, 2008; Kidd, 2010; Nicholls et al., in press) by challenging gender stereotypes and norms (UN Inter-Agency Task Force on SDP, 2003). SFD projects generally focus on increasing female participation in sport, offering girls and women opportunities to build self-esteem and empowerment, and to act as role models for other girls, leading to changes in women's self-image and men's preconceptions of women (NCDO, 2007; Larkin, Razack & Moola, 2007). According to the UN Millennium Project (2005), women's empowerment and gender equality can produce economic growth, increased education of children and peace. However, gender equality requires changes in gender relations and community structures and systems, and not solely participation and empowerment (NCDO, 2007).

Diverse social benefits may also result from using sport in development work (Bailey, 2005; Coalter, 2007; Lyras, 2007; Waring & Mason, 2010), since it has a broad reach and, in theory, provides a platform for social interaction, networking and inclusion (Bailey, 2005; Jarvie, 2011). International development strategies regarding poverty reduction, economic development and social development are assisted significantly through the use of SFD

programmes as cross-cutting tools complementing existing interventions (Levermore, 2008a; Beutler, 2008). Studies show positive influences of sport activities on social skills development, which are further enhanced when facilitated and modelled by trained leaders, illustrating the significance of supportive learning contexts to effect large scale social change (Bailey, 2006; Kay, 2009). The popularity and attractiveness of sport makes it accessible to local populations and organisations (NCDO, 2007; Laureus, 2010) and furthermore, involvement in sport activities increases the likelihood of active community involvement (Coalter, 2007).

Sport participation can facilitate social inclusion and development through intangible benefits of community identity, unity and belonging (Vail, 2007; Collins & Kay, 2003 cited by Skinner, Zakus & Cowell, 2008). Community development and social capital gained through these benefits are of interest to researchers, as it seems that programmes focusing on sport as a vehicle for social development, rather than sport development itself, have greater success in remote communities (Skinner et al., 2008). This recognition emphasises the importance of incorporating non-sport components into programmes to optimise sport's role as a means for change (Hartmann, 2003; Spaaj, 2009a).

Social impacts vary according to the sport product offered, the attractiveness of sport to target groups, individual responses, and the project's structural aspects (Coalter, Allison & Taylor, 2002; Long, Welch, Bramham, Butterfield, Hylton & Lloyd, 2002 cited by Kay & Bradbury, 2009), suggesting that the various benefits gained through sport tend to depend on the context, mechanisms and structures of the SFD intervention. Although contextual factors can vary greatly, the benefits presented are all relevant to the project objectives included in the case study, thus providing theoretical support to complement the research context.

2.3. Theoretical Limitations of Sport for Development

Sport has been intuitively recognised for its role in creating the above mentioned social benefits and changes (Donnelly, 2010; Kay, 2009); however the theoretical underpinnings of SFD remain unclear (Hartmann, 2003; Donnelly, 2010; Kidd, 2010) and research evidence falls short of the claimed benefits (Kay, 2009; Jarvie, 2011). These factors point to the need for theory development to explain how sport could be used for social development (Donnelly, 2010; Jarvie, 2011).

Gaps between theory and practice are illustrated by limited evidence demonstrating the effectiveness of SFD, and lack of theoretical frameworks outlining mechanisms for change

(Hartmann, 2003; Spaaj, 2009b; Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011). Mounting research is now being conducted on SFD work, which is characterised by complex issues concerning sport's social impact (Kay, 2009), but Nicholls et al. (in press) further stress the need for collaboration among donors, practitioners and academics within SFD research, and for recognition of the validity of local knowledge within research (Levermore, 2008a).

Knowledge of SFD practices can be built through research that assists practitioners and donors with identification and planning of intervention objectives, processes and components (Kidd & Donnelly, 2007) encompassed within programme theory (Coalter, 2010c). In this light, monitoring and evaluation (M&E) of SFD programmes is increasingly being promoted in order to determine and share findings (Kidd, 2008; Laureus, 2010), and should be conducted through participatory and process-centred methods (Coalter, 2010a) to reduce the detracting of local development needs by the increased focus on accountability (Levermore, 2008b).

Green (2008) suggests identifying the features and conditions of successful SFD projects to determine their mechanisms for positive change (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011). To do this, researchers should focus on the contexts and outcomes of SFD programmes to explain the mechanisms (Kidd & Donnelly, 2007; Lyras, 2007; Levermore, 2008a; Kay, 2009), enable replication for similar projects, and develop theoretical foundations for the strategic use of sport interventions (Hartmann, 2003; Lyras, 2007; Levermore, 2008a; Laureus, 2010). Therefore, programme theory and design, evaluation methods, and contextual influences are key areas for further investigation into the theoretical foundations of SFD needed to increase the evidence base for effectiveness of sport in social development contexts.

2.4. Project Cycle

The planning and management of projects is the basis for design, implementation and evaluation of development interventions, and indicated as important to prove effectiveness. Project management is depicted as a cycle comprised of successive phases (Blackman, 2003) beginning with an idea that is planned and implemented through to completion (EuropeAid, 2002; Ngang, 2009). The number of phases differs slightly depending on project characteristics; however a general model is shown below in Figure 1 (Ngang, 2009).

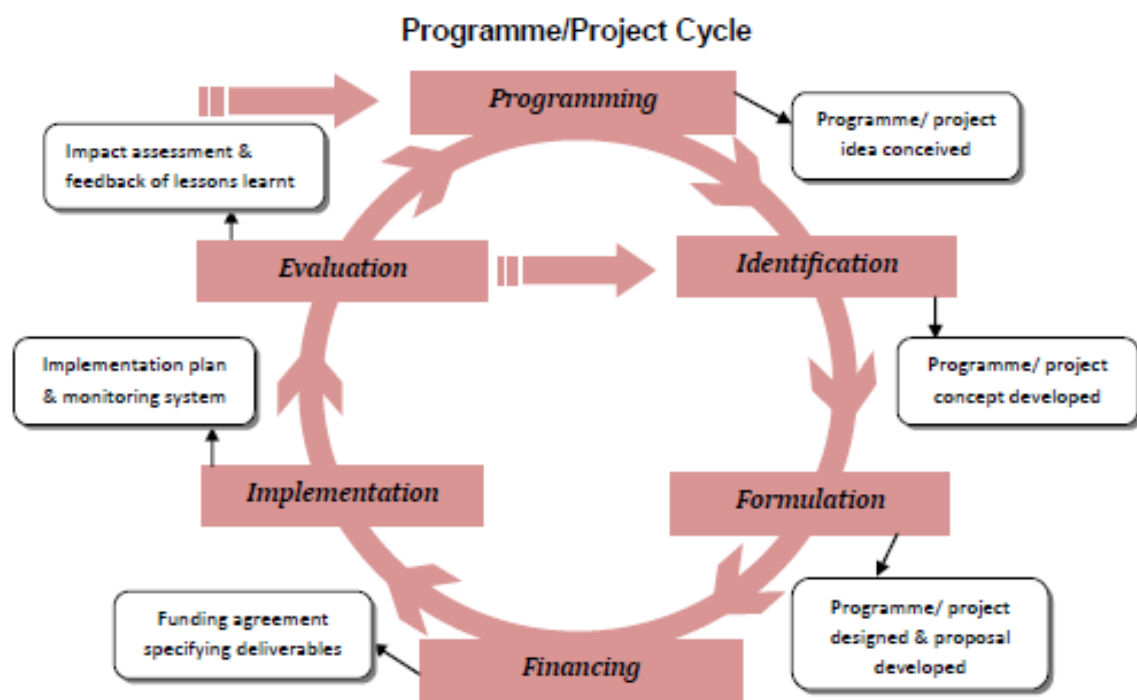


FIGURE 1: Structure of programme/project cycle showing six phases and the outcome of each of the phases (SASDA 2009: 14)

As described by Ngang (2009), the project cycle diagram illustrates the progression of the intervention process, starting with an idea leading to a strategic concept for action, which is designed in further detail, financed, and implemented. The project is monitored during implementation, and followed by evaluation after completion to make improvements in future. Further information about the processes involved in each phase is summarised in Table 1. The phases, as defined by the cycle, include processes of stakeholder involvement, decision making and management that are required in:

- Considering key steps of initiating and implementing a project
- Formulating ideas into a project
- Preparing and documenting a project for feasibility
- Ensuring sustainability
- Improving M&E and learning by experience

TABLE 1: Project Cycle Management phases summary
(taken from Ngang, 2009: 15-16 and Blackman, 2003: 10)

Phase	Key Issues	Actors
Programming	Analysis of problems, constraints and opportunities Establishment of principles, guidelines and focus Outline of project ideas Selection of partners	Implementing organisation Affected group (beneficiaries)
Identification	Analysis of needs and capacities of affected group Analysis of stakeholders interest Identification of options to address problem Understanding of context for relevancy and sustainability Comparison of objectives with funding criteria Production of feasible project concept	Implementing organisation
Formulation/ Design	Development of plan with principal actors Development of operations (activities, scheduling) Analysis of risk factors Consideration of performance measures and indicators Design of project and proposal	Implementing organisation Affected group (beneficiaries) Stakeholders
Financing	Conduction of financial appraisal Review of proposal by funders Decision of approval/ disapproval	Funders
Implementation	Delivery of planned activities Monitoring and evaluation of progress Measurement of results achieved Allowance for adjustments to changing circumstances	Implementing organisation Affected group (beneficiaries) Stakeholders Funders
Evaluation	Measurement of results achieved after completion Assessment of impact and sustainability Identification of valuable lessons for future decision making, actions and planning Determination of continuation of project	Implementing organisation Affected group (beneficiaries) External experts

As the name implies, the project cycle is not linear; it is a process involving feedback loops of learning, reflection and action, ensuring that lessons learned inform future analysis, decisions and planning (Blackman, 2003; Ngang, 2009). Since development work does not necessarily follow the model and involves ongoing learning and adaptation during the process, it is generally regarded as a spiral where past experience is constantly built upon into the future (Ngang, 2009). A framework for process learning and improvement is sustained through effective project cycle management (Ngang, 2009), which also ensures decisions are based on relevant information and supported by stakeholders (EuropeAid, 2002).

Many methods and tools are used within a project, and the project cycle supports their integration and coordination in achieving the development goals and objectives (Ngang,

2009). Project success is dependent on its management and external assumptions (NORAD, 1999), and while proper planning cannot guarantee success, it is regarded as a vital part of project management (Kumar, 1989; Shenhar, Tishler, Dvir, Lipovetsky & Lechler, 2002). The programming phase develops a programme framework used to identify and plan projects according to strategic priorities of national governments and donor agencies (EuropeAid, 2002). Within the project process, EuropeAid (2002) emphasises the involvement of key stakeholders and documents for improved decision making, and the incorporation of quality issues into project design from the beginning. Reaching consensus on the objectives then guides appropriate strategic planning to answer questions of why, how, who and what (NSD, 2009). The strategy will give direction to M&E processes and performance indicators necessary for accountability and improvement (NSD, 2009), and since the M&E system is linked to project objectives, it should also be included in the design phase (NCDO, 2007), as should lessons learned and recommendations compiled through evaluation of previous projects (NSD, 2009). As illustrated in Figure 1, the project cycle phases are interdependent, which indicates the inability to consider any one phase in isolation and emphasises the need to use holistic approaches, systems and processes throughout the cycle.

2.5. Development Theory

Various approaches to develop programme theory and manage the project cycle within development projects have been identified through the literature review, such as Logical Framework Approach (LFA), Results Based Management (RBM), Outcome Mapping (OM), Theory of Change (TOC), Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA), Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA) and Appreciative Inquiry (AI). Some of the approaches (LFA and RBM) have been associated with conventional top-down prescriptive or ‘blueprint’ characteristics, while others (PRA, SLA, and AI) are alternative bottom-up ‘process’ approaches (Jennings, 2000; Francis, 2002). A broad range of related process approaches are known as Participatory Learning and Action, of which PRA is most prominently known (IIED, 1998). Tables 2 and 3 present a summary of the characteristics and methods of these approaches.

2.5.1 Conventional Development Approach

The conventional top-down or ‘blueprint’ approach to development describes the use of a pre-designed programme implemented completely as planned in various contexts to produce certain benefits as ascribed by the designers (Korten, 1984a; Burnett, 2009). LFA is

often viewed as donor-led and defined, reducing analytic and reflective processes, using difficult language within its matrix format (Levermore, 2011), and neglecting inter-cultural understanding and needs-based interventions (Kidd, 2008).

As described by Coalter (2010c: xii), “programme theory details the components, mechanisms, relationships and sequences of causes and effects which are presumed to lead to desired outcomes...”. In this regard, theoretically realistic and precise outcomes relate to the processes and participants; identification of generic mechanisms contribute to best practices, and; foundations for process-led evaluation lead to intervention improvements (Coalter, 2010c). Programme theory can be developed by systematically outlining the project elements and mechanisms leading to objectives through cause and effect relationships. Alternatively, research and theory can be used to select elements and mechanisms known to contribute toward achieving specific objectives, such as behaviour change, and include them in the programme design (Coalter, 2010c).

Figure 2 depicts the stages within the linear pathway of conventional programme development, namely inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes (or purpose) and impact (or goal), with the stages becoming increasingly complex from left to right (Rogers, 2008; NSD, 2009). Inputs, activities and outputs are under the control of implementing organisations and partners, whereas outcomes and impacts are influenced by factors external to the project and organisation (NSD, 2009).

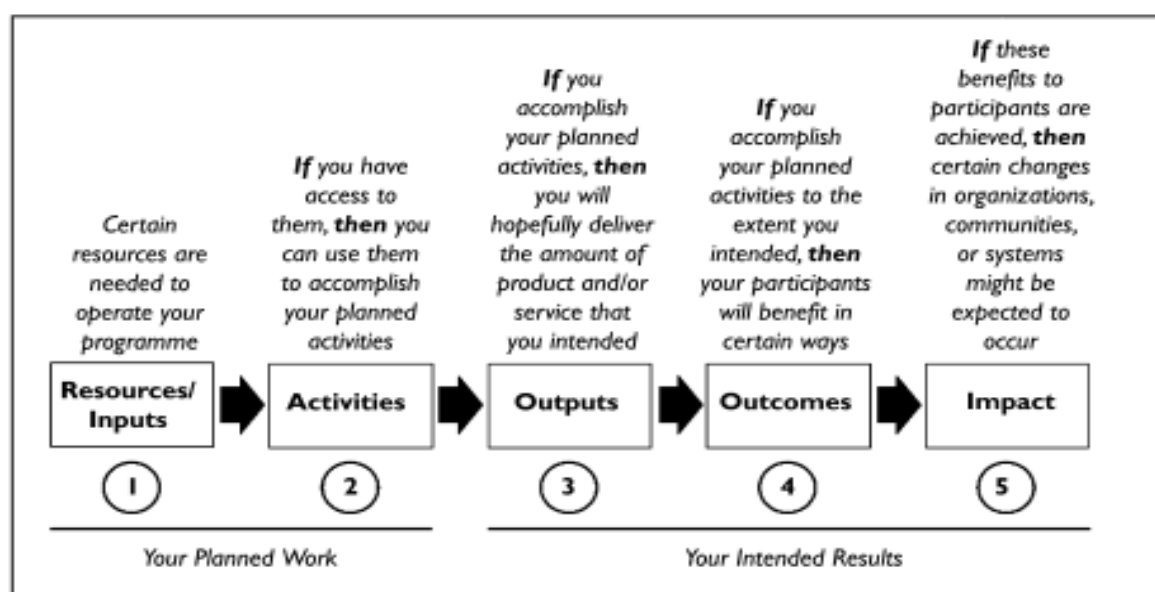


FIGURE 2: A Simple Logic Model (W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 2004)

Development projects are founded on the levels of resource inputs, activity implementation, and resulting outcomes, which are expected to contribute to overall objectives, and should be designed according to beneficiary needs (NORAD, 1999). It is assumed that adequate resources will enable activities to occur; occurrence of activities will produce outputs; outputs produced will achieve the purpose or outcomes; and the achieved outcomes will contribute to the long term goal or impact (NORAD, 1999). A model of change is needed in programming, to clarify the causal links between levels, predict outcomes and potential for change, expose assumptions regarding conditions for effectiveness, and provide a framework for identifying M&E indicators (Coalter, 2006; NCDO, 2010). This is a significant point considering the emphasis on achieving objectives and providing accountable results to donors and partners, which relies on effective project management and M&E practices (Coalter, 2002). Information collected regularly through M&E can be used in reflection and learning from experience, and provide accountable results, but only if the indicators are logically connected to project goals and delivery methods (Laureus, 2008).

Narrow perspectives of interventions focus primarily on the efficient and effective use of inputs to deliver outputs and achieve outcomes, meanwhile broader perspectives are concerned with project impact on beneficiaries and social attitudes (NSD, 2009). Korten (1989) argues, that in reality there is rarely a linear relationship between inputs and outputs as outlined in simple project models, and similar inputs do not necessarily produce similar results, even under similar conditions (Mosse, 1998). In order to measure social outcomes and impacts, participative and creative M&E methodologies must be employed, rather than conventional ones (NSD, 2009). Interpersonal skills, which are essential factors in community development, are not adequately represented in the quantitative nature of such logical frameworks, which is why participatory methods have been included into the approach to include beneficiaries (Levermore, 2011).

2.5.2 Alternative Development Approach

Addressing development needs through the alternative bottom-up ‘process’ approach describes what actions arise from inputs and how outputs are produced, rather than causal links between inputs and outputs (Mosse, 1998). Process approaches take contextual, relationship, dynamic and unpredictable aspects of development into account (Mosse, 1998). Local decision making and equity are promoted through participatory development to enable local people to address their needs in a self-reliant manner (Korten, 1984b; Jennings, 2000).

Community consultation is involved to design the structure and implementation of a community-driven programme (Burnett, 2009) to create needs-based initiatives (Nicholls et al., in press).

Bond & Hulme (1999) believed that development occurs within complex and diverse contexts, and process approaches were better suited to these contexts. They outlined five main elements of process approaches within a theoretical framework, seen in Figure 3: (1) Flexible and phased implementation; (2) Learning from experience; (3) Beneficiary participation; (4) Institutional support, and; (5) Programme management. According to the framework, relationships between beneficiaries and management are defined through activities and interventions of the process. Participation, learning and flexibility are three main elements connected through the intervention, characterised by beneficiary participation, management flexibility, and learning by both parties. Programme management is concerned with internal aspects of the process; meanwhile the environment surrounding the intervention, beneficiaries and management comprises institutional support.

PLA constitutes a group of participatory approaches that involve beneficiaries in a learning process about their needs, opportunities and the necessary actions to undertake them (IIED, 2005). The approaches, like PRA and Participatory Action Research, use a creative perspective to challenge biases and preconceptions, and promote interactive learning and analysis (IIED, 2005). Characteristics of PLA are included in Table 3 and fall under the general principles of process approaches.

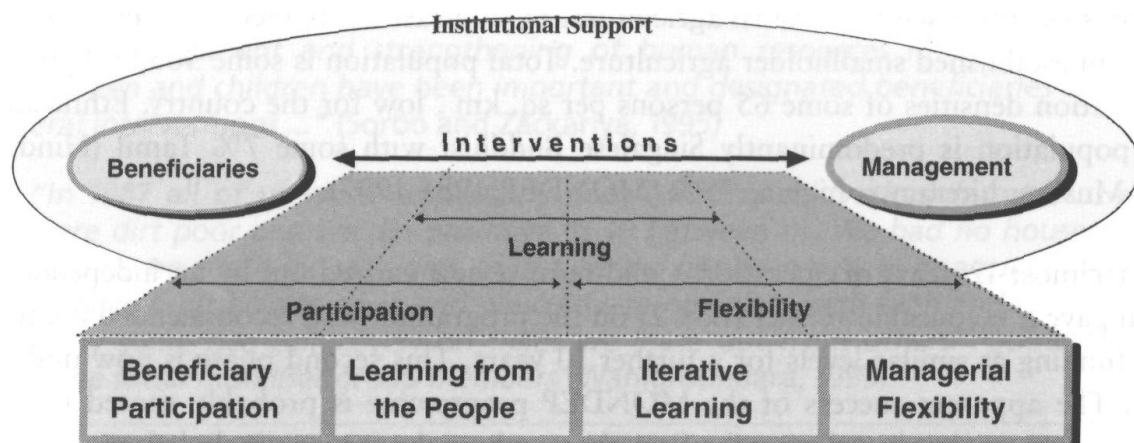


FIGURE 3: Interrelationship of the main characteristics of interventions in a process project (Bond & Hulme, 1999: 1341)

In addition to the approach itself, Bond (2002) explains the need to match techniques and approach with the overarching paradigm (or philosophy) of the development project context. Proper alignment will enhance effectiveness, while the mismatch of techniques and approach will produce poor or distorted results (Bond, 2002). Programme plans and strategies serve as a framework, and should clearly detail the concept, design, objectives and processes sufficiently, rather than mainly outcomes, for proper understanding by all people involved (Coalter, 2002; 2009). Clear understanding of the mechanisms by which participation contributes to objectives is vital for developing organisational capacity, improving programme effectiveness, and the advancement of SFD interventions (Coalter, 2009).

Active participation enhances ownership and contributes to project success (Coalter, 2002; Ngang, 2009); however understanding of project development and management is essential in enabling process learning through participation (Ngang, 2009). A report by NCDO (2010) concluded that local stakeholder involvement is crucial to create ownership and social change, but also recognised the lack of design and implementation knowledge and skills within SFD organisations. Participatory methods engaging stakeholders throughout the project cycle can enhance organisational development through capacity building, increasing understanding of aims and objectives, and reflecting on attitudes and behaviours (Coalter, 2006; NSD, 2009). Despite the prominence of participatory methods in development practice (Parpart, 2002 cited by Nicholls, 2009), the use of methods that favour local knowledge is not common within SFD practice (Nicholls, 2009). Spaaj (2009a) recommends that SFD projects include participation, empowerment and local knowledge, and concern themselves with both the means and ends of development.

TABLE 2: Summary of development approaches, characteristics and methods: LFA, RBM, OM, TOC¹

Logical Framework Approach (LFA)	Results Based Management (RBM)	Outcome Mapping (OM)	Theory of Change (TOC)
"An analytical tool for objectives-oriented project planning and management". (NORAD, 1999: 7)	"Integrates strategy, people, resources, processes and measurements to improve decision-making, transparency, and accountability". (CIDA, 2008: 1)	Provides a guide for learning, evaluation and increased effectiveness, and focuses on outcomes of behavioural change directly involved within the project. (Earl, Carden & Smutylo, 2001)	Explains how a group of accomplishments creates a foundation to produce long term results by outlining the assumptions and interventions of the change process. (Anderson, 2003)
Views project as sequence of causally linked events Establishes implementation strategies and guidelines Clarifies purpose of project Identifies required information Defines key project elements Analyses project context Facilitates communication between stakeholders Identifies methods of measuring success Tool for planning technical and operational aspects Tool for management	Focuses on achieving outcomes, implementation of performance measurement, learning, adapting and reporting Defines realistic results based on analysis Designs projects to meet identified beneficiary needs Identifies and manages risk Increases knowledge learned and integrated into decisions Reports resources used and results achieved	Focuses on changes in behaviours, relationships and actions of people and organisations Principles of participation, iterative learning and critical thinking Establishes vision of development goals and focuses on facilitation of change instead of causing change Focuses on contribution to results in behaviour change outcomes Framework for understanding and assessing contribution to changes Recognises context and complexity of development processes	Depicts process of complex change Explains how stakeholders will achieve long term goal Creates clear concept of detailed changes among stakeholders Specifies expectations of change mechanisms Develops 'pathway of change' showing relations between actions, outcomes and long term goal Interventions to produce required steps of pathway Challenge logic and connections of pathway steps and interventions
Identification Feasibility study/ Analysis: (Participation, Problem, Objectives & Alternative Options analyses) Design of Project Matrix: Detailed planning Monitoring & Review Evaluation	Logic Model Performance Measurement Framework Risk Register	Intentional Design (Vision & Mission, Boundary Partners, Outcome Challenges, Progress Markers, Strategy Maps, Organisational Practices) Outcome and Performance Monitoring (Monitoring Priorities, Outcome, Strategy & Performance Journals) Evaluation Planning	Identification of long term outcome Development of 'pathway of change' Operationalisation of outcomes Definition of interventions Articulation of assumptions

¹ LFA (NORAD, 1999); RBM (CIDA, 2008); OM (Earl et al., 2001); TOC (Anderson, 2003)

TABLE 3: Summary of development approaches, characteristics and methods: PLA, PRA, SLA, AI²

Participatory Learning Approach (PLA)	Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA)	Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA)	Appreciative Inquiry (AI)
An umbrella term for a group of similar approaches and methodologies that use full participation of people in interactive learning processes about their needs and opportunities and how to address them. (IIED, 2005)	A group of "approaches and methods to enable local (rural or urban) people to express, enhance, share and analyze their knowledge of life and conditions, to plan and to act". (Chambers, 1994: 1253)	Provides an analytical framework to determine the underlying processes, causes and factors contributing to poverty and focuses on people's own definitions of poverty. (DFID, 1999a)	Uses a facilitative process to effect positive change by focusing on what works well and building upon it. (Serrat, 2008)
Based on participation, action research and adult education Diversity and complexity of various approaches Defined methodology and systematic cumulative learning process Multiple perspectives to seek diversity Group learning processes recognising complexity through analysis and interaction Context specific and adaptable Facilitating experts and stakeholders to improve people's circumstances Leading to change through dialogue and action	Gains insight from local knowledge Follows adaptable and progressive learning process Optimises use of information Investigates using triangulation Seeks diversity for learning Facilitates local ownership and participation Encourages critical awareness of behaviour Promotes taking responsibility for actions Emphasises information sharing and exchange	Committed to poverty reduction and maximization of livelihood benefits Addresses livelihoods across sectoral boundaries Requires longer time commitment to develop realistic understanding of livelihoods Uses flexible and dynamic initiatives to meet people's needs Focuses on perspective of poor people in development objectives and priorities Includes people-centred, responsive and participatory, multi-level, partnership, sustainability, and dynamic principles	Studies positive attributes of a system Discovers what factors make system most effective and capable Uses questioning to anticipate and improve potential Believes positive change occurs through focus on best practices rather than problems Creates common vision of desired future and steps in attaining vision
Specific Approaches: Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) Participatory Action Research (PAR) Participatory Learning Methods (PALM) Farming Systems Research (FSR)	Participatory mapping and modelling Transect walks Matrix scoring Well-being grouping and ranking Seasonal calendars Institutional diagramming Trend and change analysis Analytical diagramming	Analysis of livelihoods and opportunities using Sustainable Livelihoods Framework: Stakeholder agreement of desired outcomes Determine feasibility through operational context and development factors Determine intervention strategy	Discover and appreciate the best of current situation Dream and envision future results Design and construct methods to attain dream Deliver design and sustain dream

² PLA (IIED, 1998; 2005); PRA (Chambers, 1994); SLA (DFID, 1999; Carney, 2002); AI (Serrat, 2008)

2.6. Project Success Factors

2.6.1 Sport for Development Success Factors

The investigation into success factors specific to SFD interventions have resulted in various conclusions. The research of Lyras (2007) found Olympic values and sport to be perceived as effective elements in producing intercultural relations change. Skinner et al. (2008) identified that to meet community needs, the development and retention of partners, capable of sustaining project implementation by providing funds, resources and expertise, are key success factors. Through cooperation with SFD organisations, NCDO (2007) was able to compile a list of lessons learned from practical experience to benefit and guide future projects. Within SFD interventions sport should be the basic component upon which to build structure, and responsible leadership is required at all levels of structure. It is important to remain realistic about implementation, community and partnership possibilities, and to complement local, national and international initiatives. Finally, an integrated M&E system should be a user-friendly and useful management tool in supporting project implementation (NCDO, 2007).

The findings of four studies focused on the contributions of sport towards social inclusion and cross-cultural relations (see Table 4). Sugden identified characteristics leading to positive cross-cultural impacts (Lyras, 2007), meanwhile action research by Lyras suggested specific components that influence effectiveness of cross-cultural sport interventions (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011). Bailey (2005) acknowledged criteria for enhancing social inclusion, to which Skinner et al. (2008) determined additional criteria for the effective use of sport for social development and inclusion in disadvantaged communities. The factors listed cover specific components, processes and methods of development interventions.

**TABLE 4: Success factors of Sport for Development interventions:
Cultural and social objectives**

Belfast United Project Sudgen 1989 (Lyras, 2007)	Doves Olympic Movement Lyras 2007	Research by Bailey 2005	Research by Skinner, Zakus & Cowell 2008
Cross-cultural relations	Cross-cultural relations	Social inclusion	Social development and inclusion
Utilisation of research and expertise to design well structured sport interventions Sport activities encouraging teamwork Physically and mentally challenging sport activities Integration of social activities with sport Inclusion of further activities following sport to maintain outcomes Documentation of all stages of the intervention	Inspirational moral values Educationally-based sport activities Inclusive teams Quality experiences Integration of sport, cultural and citizenship activities	Project design according to local assets and availability to the target community Addressing specific community needs and social inclusion programming through local SFD projects Integration of M&E throughout the project cycle to produce evidence Investigation of the potential for mainstreaming sport in development sectors and increasing sustainability through long-term funding	Access to sport participation opportunities Active involvement in decision-making Building of self- esteem and confidence Effective and local leadership

Key factors and elements of SFD interventions addressing other development objectives are illustrated in Table 5. NCDO (2007) conducted research to determine lessons learned through experience with SFD projects and compiled success factors for thematic areas of capacity building, M&E and gender, and essential pillars for effective HIV/AIDS focused interventions. Meanwhile, Laureus (2008) conducted a study involving the founders of seven SFD projects, which resulted in identifying key elements of interventions, and SAD (2010) research of four post-conflict and post-disaster SFD projects pinpointed key factors for project design.

**TABLE 5: Success factors for Sport for Development interventions:
Capacity building, gender, health and conflict objectives**

Lessons Learned research NCDO 2007	Lessons Learned research NCDO 2007	Lessons Learned research NCDO 2007	Project Founders study Laureus 2008	Good Practices research SAD 2010
Capacity building and M&E	Gender	HIV/AIDS	Personal & community social development	Post-conflict/ disaster
Inclusion of sport or community building into the organisational mission	Community involvement in planning and implementation	Knowledge Skills Safe and supportive environment	Creation of a culture of learning, participation, quality and belonging	Role of sport coaches and leaders as central figures within the project
Local responsibility of project development and M&E	Local project management including participants and community members	Access to social network	Work with local communities through networks, outreach and partners	Importance of practitioner and beneficiary participation in project design
Local ownership Beneficiary, stakeholder and community involved from the start of the project	Participant commitment Involvement of girls in all aspects of the project		Methods of using sport to attract, teach, include and influence participants Additional elements to address specific development issues, obtain commitment and compliance from leaders, and encourage participant engagement	Implementation and evaluation Application of an integrated M&E system for improved insight on project outcomes
Use of expertise from local organisations and donors				
Integration of M&E into project as learning tool				

Various factors and components have been reported to increase the effectiveness of SFD projects across different settings and contexts, nevertheless there are recurring themes of:

- educational sport activities
- additional components integrated with sport
- local leadership
- participation, involvement and ownership
- local context, needs and resources
- partnerships and networks
- integrated M&E components

2.6.2 Project Management Critical Success Factors

Extensive research has been done to determine Critical Success Factors (CSF) within the field of Project Management, of which a concise view is presented here. Belassi & Tukul (1996) argued that it is not necessary, or possible, to determine all possible CSFs; instead,

grouping the factors would better illustrate the broader aspects critical to project success and enable planning for improved performance. Their framework depicts four groups of factors related to (1) the project, (2) the project manager and team members, (3) the organisation, and (4) the external environment, as well as the interrelation of these groups. Among these factor groups, the organisational factors were found to be most critical to project success (Belassi & Tukel, 1996).

A multidimensional framework was produced by Shenhar, Dvir, Levy & Maltz (2001) for the assessment of project success based on the premise that projects contribute to organisational strategic objectives. They acknowledged that the definition of success differed depending on the person's perspective and role within the project, and that varying types of projects require project-specific approaches. The dimensions of success were identified as (1) project efficiency, (2) customer impact, (3) direct organisational impact, and (4) future preparation, each of which has differing levels of importance depending on the project and the point in time during the project. Shenhar et al. (2001) recommend using the framework to determine the importance of each dimension within projects, to focus management and implementation accordingly, and to ensure alignment of projects within strategic management.

In relation to planning, project success was seen to be most influenced by the initial programming, identification and design phases of the cycle when objectives and implementation plans are decided (Dvir, Raz, & Shenhar, 2003). Dvir et al. (2003) concluded that the customer perspective of success is most important, and therefore customers need to be involved in defining goals and outputs during design.

Conversely, the success dimensions of international development projects were examined by Diallo & Thuillier (2004) through the perceptions of project coordinators in Africa. They stressed the necessity to assess both the effectiveness of project managers to deliver outputs, and the effectiveness of the project to contribute to its objectives. The study examined three dimensions, namely management, impact and profile, which were constructed according to factors identified by literature, as listed below (Diallo & Thuillier, 2004: 21):

- Respect of the three traditional constraints [time, cost, quality]
- Satisfaction of the client
- Satisfaction of the objectives as outlined in the logical framework
- Project impacts
- Institutional or organisational capacity built in the organisation by the project

- Financial returns (in the case of productive projects) or the economic or social benefits (in the case of public sector projects)
- Project innovative features (outputs, management or design)

The results confirmed that different stakeholders evaluate project success according to their respective interests and agendas.

Considering the dimensions of success described above, clearly project, project management, organisation, customers and external factors are significant with respect to project success. However, the determination of success is subjective and dependent primarily on the view of each stakeholder and their definition of success, which implies that universal project success factors do not exist; a notion supported by the diverse factors listed within the SFD literature and the research findings of Shenhar et al. (2002).

2.7. Sport for Development Theory

Alexis Lyras has proposed a framework of components specifically for SFD projects. The Sport for Development Theory (SFDT) is “a foundation to more effectively design and assess initiatives that use sport to promote positive social change” (Lyras, 2009: 46). This framework draws from organisational change, social, educational and human psychology theories and was grounded by SFD field work evidence (Lyras, 2009). The combination of theories enables improved explanation and prediction of relations between sport programmes and the MDGs, and the scientific premise emphasised by SFDT reveals the “effectiveness and impact across time and space” (Lyras, 2009: 47). These two features provide valuable information for the progression of designing evidence-based policies and programmes (Lyras, 2009).

The Doves Olympic Movement project was designed using an interdisciplinary approach to provide assessment opportunities to determine the conditions of sport practices that promote social development and change (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011). The programme used the principles of Olympism³ to address the MDGs by engaging children, parents and instructors in character building and socially inclusive sport activities, with the

³ Olympism describes a philosophy of balance between body, will and mind, and of combining sport with education to instill lifestyle values of enjoying the effort given, exemplifying good example, and respecting principle of universal ethics (International Olympic Committee, 1994 cited by Lyras, 2007).

intention of producing personal development, collaboration, and peace amongst Turkish and Greek Cypriot youth (Lyras, 2007; Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011).

From this initiative, Lyras (2007) found that personal and social development can be effected by combining non-traditional sport practices with cultural and educational activities. The resulting SFDT framework (shown in Appendix 1) encompasses five components which can promote understanding of social change policy and programme development; “(a) impacts assessment, (b) organisational, (c) sport and physical activity, (d) educational, and (e) cultural enrichment” (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011: 3).

Lyras & Welty Peachey (2011) advocate the use of theory and impact evidence in SFD programmes, and the use of bottom-up, as well as top-down structures through SFDT to result in social change. Effects of sport on social change can be explained and predicted scientifically through the SFDT framework, which is applicable to community, national and international SFD interventions, although not as a ‘one size fits all’ approach (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011). On the contrary, the framework outlines potential elements that can facilitate change and empower stakeholders to address social issues, which should be selected and adapted according to the local context (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011). SFDT aims to increase understanding of how sport processes and conditions lead to development objectives, and although SFDT was based specifically on a sport intervention focusing on peace building, Lyras believes the framework can be applicable to all areas of SFD (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011).

2.8. Conclusion

The review of SFD, project management, development theory and Lyras’ SFDT provides the theoretical foundation for the research study undertaken, illustrating the limited production of explicit evidence for sport’s influence on social change, potentially caused by limited understanding of development theories and their relation to project management.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

Research design theory is described in this chapter, outlining the approach and methodology used in pursuing the research hypothesis and aims, which are presented in the following section.

3.2. Hypothesis and Aims

The focal point of this dissertation is the design of SFD projects to enhance their effectiveness in achieving social change objectives. As mentioned in Chapter Two, the initial design and planning phases of the project cycle are crucial to increasing the likelihood of being successful and effective (Kumar, 1989; Dvir et al., 2003); therefore improvements in project design could assist practitioners and donors in achieving objectives most relevant to the contribution of social change, and in so doing, increase the effectiveness of SFD projects. Drawing from the project management and programme theory outlined in Chapter Two, it can be stated that if the purpose of a project is to achieve its objectives, and proper project design and planning lead to the likelihood of achieving objectives, then incorporating appropriate approaches, methods and key elements into the project design would improve project effectiveness in achieving objectives. Based on this assumption, the following hypothesis was proposed, providing the foundation for the current research study:

If project elements making significant contribution toward social change objectives are included within the project design,
then the likelihood of achieving the established objectives would increase, making the project more effective.

Focusing on the first aspect of this hypothesis, the research investigated project elements of significance in SFD projects, aiming for the following:

- To identify some significant project elements contributing to objectives of social change within SFD projects and to group them into thematic categories.

- To compare the identified elements and categories with the Sport For Development Theory framework and project management Critical Success Factor frameworks to determine their applicability to SFD projects.
- To identify project design approaches and methods, that include the identified elements and categories, for application in SFD project design.

3.3. Research Approach

In social research, exploration, description and explanation are the three most common purposes found in research projects (Robson, 2011) looking to link research with practice (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). Blaikie (2007) relates each purpose to a basic question; description answers ‘what’, explanation provides understanding of ‘why’, meanwhile, ‘how’ questions are related to mechanisms of change (Robson, 2011). Regardless of the purpose, the research question must be connected to theory that will be tested or constructed by the research (Robson, 2011). Beginning with a theory and testing it using appropriate observations, moving from general to specific, is known as deduction (Babbie, 2011; de Haus, 2001; Bryman & Teevan, 2011). Propositions are developed from the theory and tested within the real world to determine whether they are correct, or whether the theory requires modification (de Haus, 2001). In contrast, induction moves from specific to general using observations to determine patterns and order (Babbie, 2001) to build theory (de Haus, 2001, Robson, 2011). Theory building aims to make sense of observations and determine whether the theory can be generalised to a broader context (de Haus, 2001; Bryman & Teevan, 2011).

Robson (2011) states that theory is fundamental for explaining reality, however, the nature of reality depends on the assumptions and perceptions of the paradigm being used to examine it (Babbie, 2001). The paradigm outlines the researcher’s approach and includes a certain ontology, epistemology and methodology for the research project (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Ontology concerns the nature and fundamental entities of reality, epistemology considers the relationship with knowledge and whether it is acceptable, and methodology outlines ways of gaining knowledge (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Bryman & Teevan, 2011). These three measures characterise the research process (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005) forming the structure of the design and methodology the researcher follows in testing the research question.

3.3.1 *Ontology*

There are two perspectives of ontology within social research, namely objectivism and constructivism. Objectivism states that social phenomena exist externally and independently to social actors, and are outside their influence (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). Meanwhile, constructivism states that social phenomena are built by the perceptions and actions of social actors and their interactions (Bryman & Teevan, 2005; Robson, 2011). As people interact they make meaning of their world through their experience in social circumstances (Robson, 2011).

3.3.2 *Epistemology*

Epistemological perspectives include positivism, realism and interpretivism (Bryman & Teevan, 2005) and describe the nature of acceptable knowledge (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). Positivism uses the methodology of natural science to study social reality by developing hypotheses to test and explain theories through objective fact (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). Meanwhile, realism shares similar beliefs in natural science methodology and separating reality from its descriptions, however, it also acknowledges the existence of underlying structures and mechanisms that create reality (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). On the other hand, interpretivism relates to constructivism, believing that reality is constructed and interpreted through the experience of people (Robson, 2011), and that, because social science research is focused on people, it should understand the interpretations of people regarding the context of their social world (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). Therefore, an individual's interpretation of reality is influenced by the context in which they are situated.

3.3.3 *Methodology*

Research methodology can include quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods to collect data, and according to Babbie (2001) both are useful. However, dependent on the situation and research question, one may be more appropriate than the other. Quantitative data include numerical measures that are gathered objectively to generalise the findings and test theories in a deductive manner (Babbie, 2001; Robson, 2011). Qualitative research, associated with induction and emerging theoretical concepts, focuses on meaning, context and perceptions of people involved (Bryman, 1988; Robson, 2011; Bryman & Lincoln, 2005). Although quantitative and qualitative methods have many opposing characteristics and philosophical values, there are benefits to including methods of both paradigms within the research approach (Robson, 2011).

3.4. Research Design

Considering the theoretical paradigms of social research, the research hypotheses outlined above were explored and described through the constructivist ontology and interpretivist epistemology positions. These positions are features of qualitative research, which tends to be descriptive in its effort to portray the context of social behaviour (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). Exploratory research focuses on questions of ‘what’, aiming to build hypotheses and propositions to be studied in the future, and can benefit from experiment, survey or case study methods (Yin, 2009).

Case study design was used to capture individual perceptions of SFD projects within a specific context. Case studies examine contemporary phenomena within their context allowing for the retention of meaningful characteristics (Yin, 2009). One rationale for using case study design is to present the typical characteristics and conditions of a common situation, producing findings potentially applicable to other typical cases (Yin, 2009). Case studies require a theoretical basis in order to provide generalised findings, by predicting the outcomes of the research based on the theoretical concept or framework, and determining whether the theory can be applied in practice or not (de Haus, 2001).

Practitioners well acquainted with the situation in question are able to provide valuable insight into the processes and context (Robson, 2011; de Haus 2001), which are relevant to exploratory research; however the research question must also be associated to theory (Robson, 2011). The dissertation examined perceptions of donors and practitioners based on their SFD experience, and compared these findings with the SFDT and project management CSF frameworks to identify important elements for consideration in the design phase of SFD projects with social change objectives. Using a deductive approach, the author began with the following propositions regarding the research outcomes:

- The perceptions of participants about significant project elements will be similar regardless of organisation or background.
- The thematic categories of project elements will correspond to SFDT and CSF framework dimensions found in literature.
- The identified significant project elements and theoretical frameworks will correspond to certain project design approaches and methods.

For the purpose of this study, a project element is defined as “a basic part of something” (Soanes, 2010: 240) with regards to a project; i.e. a component, activity, method, process, structure, person or group of people.

3.5. Methodology

A case study of a small network of SFD donors and organisations was described by collecting documentation about the organisations and projects, as well as qualitative data through semi-structured interviews in the aim of capturing current perspectives and perceptions of people working in the field. De Haus (2001) explains that a unit of analysis is understood according to the context in which it exists; however, the case may also involve sub-units resulting in an embedded case study design, which generally includes holistic data to understand the main case along with some quantitative methods to collect data regarding the sub-units (Yin, 2009). The unit of analysis studied was a project, while sub-units of the research included project objectives, project elements, and features of the management and implementation of project elements.

Primary data collected included a list and rankings of significant project elements in order to find common elements and prioritise them. The data also considered the management and implementation of the elements within the project. Secondary data regarding organisation and project objectives was gathered from organisational documents and online searches. A literature review of SFD project effectiveness, development management approaches and project management success factors was conducted through database searches using SPORTDiscus, Sociological Abstracts, Web of Knowledge; electronic journals, specifically, Sport in Society, Journal of Sport Management, International Review for the Sociology of Sport, International Journal of Project Management; and an examination of development agency publications and resources.

The semi-structured interviews consisted of ten questions set by the author, as seen in Appendix 2, although small modifications were made to facilitate flow, understanding and clarity of information. Questions focused on the participants' perceptions of which project elements contribute most to achieving project objectives and how they contribute, as well as aspects of their management and implementation. The interviews were recorded and coded to collect data concerning the projects and significant elements contributing to social change objectives. The list of significant project elements was compiled and ranked in order of importance based on the frequency of identification and the rankings given by the interviewees. Subsequently, the project elements were analysed thematically and clustered into categories. The elements and the categories were compared to existing project success dimensions and frameworks to determine whether the findings support or challenge the theoretical frameworks. Discussion of the findings and their application to project design and management within SFD interventions will be explored in Chapter Six.

3.6. Sample

Empirical data was collected from a sample of donors and practitioners of SFD projects in the Southern African region. This sample provides a snapshot of a regional network of donor and implementing organisations well established within the SFD field. Purposive sampling, using the researcher's judgement to select participants according to the needs of the research study (Robson, 2011), was used to target participants from organisations within the regional network and based in different countries. An initial contact list was used to establish contact with the organisations, followed by snowball sampling to include appropriate participants who are working directly in managing, coordinating or funding the projects. Participants from ten of the organisations (see Table 6), and representing seven projects in total, volunteered to be interviewed after being informed of the research project. The organisations and projects targeted for the research study include:

- Commonwealth Games Canada, International Development Through Sport (CGC)
- Norwegian Olympic & Paralympic Committee & Confederation of Sports (NIF)
- UK Sport International & International Development Through Sport (UK Sport)
- Kicking AIDS Out Secretariat
- Education Through Sport (EduSport) – Go Sisters project
- Lesotho National Olympic Committee (LNOC) – OlympAfrica Youth Ambassador Programme (OYAP) project
- Physically Active Youth (PAY) – PAY project
- SCORE Namibia – Namibia Volunteer Involvement Programme (NAM-VIP) project
- SCORE South Africa – Leading the Game (LTG) project
- South East District Youth Empowerment League (SEDYEL) – SEDYEL project
- Sport In Action – Youth Empowerment Through Sport project
- Sports & Olympic Council of Swaziland (SOCS) – Asidlale project

TABLE 6: Overview of case study organisations

Organisation	Country	Role
Commonwealth Games Canada (CGC)	Canada	Donor
Education Through Sport (EduSport)	Zambia	Implementer
Kicking AIDS Out Secretariat	Norway/ South Africa	Implementer
Lesotho National Olympic Committee (LNOC)	Lesotho	Implementer
Norwegian Olympic & Paralympic Committee & Confederation of Sports (NIF)	Norway	Donor
SCORE Namibia	Namibia	Implementer
SCORE South Africa	South Africa	Implementer
South East District Youth Empowerment League (SEDYEL)	Botswana	Implementer
Sports & Olympic Council of Swaziland (SOCS)	Swaziland	Implementer
UK Sport International & International Development Through Sport Foundation (UK Sport)	United Kingdom	Donor

Twelve interviews were conducted by way of phone, email and online chat service, depending on the preference of interviewees and their access to communication technology services. A broad range of perspectives is represented by the interviewee group of three donors and nine practitioners, which is depicted in the Table 7 below.

TABLE 7: Overview of research participants

Gender	Females	8
	Males	4
Nationality	Botswana	1
	Canada	2
	Kenya	1
	Lesotho	2
	Namibia	1
	South Africa	1
	Swaziland	1
	United Kingdom	1
	Zambia	2
Primary Role	Coordination	8
	Training/ Facilitation	1
	Management	3
Years of SFD Experience	0 to 4 years	3
	5 to 9 years	5
	Over 10 years	4

3.7. Conclusion

The research hypothesis was explored using a case study of seven projects, through the perceptions of twelve interviewees. The interviewees represent ten donor and implementing SFD organisations working toward social development objectives. Further contextual background of the case is described in the Chapter Four.

CHAPTER FOUR: CASE STUDY BACKGROUND

4.1. Introduction

The case study included seven SFD projects being implemented in the Southern African region and within the Kicking AIDS Out Network. An overview of the Southern African development context, the Kicking AIDS Out Network, and the projects and organisations involved in the research is given to provide contextual understanding of the conditions in which the projects operate.

4.2. Region of Southern Africa

The region of Southern Africa is demarcated by the Southern African Development Community (SADC) which includes the member states of Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe (SADC, 2004). SADC promotes “sustainable and equitable economic growth and socio-economic development through efficient productive systems, deeper co-operation and integration, good governance, and durable peace and security” in order to advance the region within international relations and the global economy (SADC, 2004: 4). The Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan (RISDP) acts as a guiding framework for regional economic and social policies and strategic objectives for the primarily underdeveloped SADC member states, and includes areas of social and human development (SADC, 2004). Moreover, civil society participation and inclusion of government structures at all levels are being promoted for community building within Southern Africa (SADC, 2004).

According to the RISDP (SADC, 2004) economic environments within several SADC countries remain unsatisfactory and have contributed to high poverty rates. The aggregate GDP for SADC in 2002 was US\$226.1 billion, with South Africa accounting for 65.7% of the total; meanwhile the regional population was approximately 210 million people. Low economic growth contributed to low income per capita, and HIV and AIDS prevalence has reduced life expectancy, both of which impacted human development of the region's nations. In addition, 2002 statistics indicated 40% of people living on less than US\$1 per day, with poverty being more extreme in Zambia and Mozambique. The RISDP identifies low economic growth, lack of capital assets by poor people, lack of access to and use of

technology, and environmental and social factors as causes of poverty in Southern Africa (SADC, 2004).

The projects examined in the case study are implemented in six countries within this region; Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, and Zambia. For each of these countries, a demographic and statistical overview based on data from 2009, taken from World Development Indicators (World Bank, 2011), is depicted in Table 8 below. As illustrated, even though the physical area and population size of the countries vary, HIV and AIDS, low life expectancy, unemployment and poverty rates remain cross-cutting development issues.

TABLE 8: Demographic and statistical overview of case study countries

Botswana		Capital : Gaborone	
Population	1.9 million	Area (sq km)	582,000
Population aged 15- 64 years	63%	GDP per capita (US\$)	12,840
Life Expectancy	55 years	GDP growth (2008-2009)	-3.7%
HIV Prevalence Rate	24.8%	Below Poverty Line	30.6%
Literacy Rate	84%	Employment rate	46%
Lesotho		Capital : Maseru	
Population	2.1 million	Area (sq km)	30,000
Population aged 15- 64 years	56%	GDP per capita (US\$)	1,800
Life Expectancy	45 years	GDP growth (2008-2009)	9%
HIV Prevalence Rate	23.6%	Below Poverty Line	56.6%
Literacy Rate	90%	Employment rate	54%
Namibia		Capital : Windhoek	
Population	2.2 million	Area (sq km)	824,000
Population aged 15- 64 years	60%	GDP per capita (US\$)	6,350
Life Expectancy	62 years	GDP growth (2008-2009)	-0.8%
HIV Prevalence Rate	13.1%	Below Poverty Line	38%
Literacy Rate	89%	Employment rate	43%
South Africa		Capital : Pretoria	
Population	49.3 million	Area (sq km)	1,219,000
Population aged 15- 64 years	65%	GDP per capita (US\$)	10,500
Life Expectancy	52 years	GDP growth (2008-2009)	-1.8%
HIV Prevalence Rate	17.8%	Below Poverty Line	23%
Literacy Rate	89%	Employment rate	41%
Swaziland		Capital : Mbabane	
Population	1.2 million	Area (sq km)	17,000
Population aged 15- 64 years	57%	GDP per capita (US\$)	4,790
Life Expectancy	46 years	GDP growth (2008-2009)	1.2%
HIV Prevalence Rate	25.9%	Below Poverty Line	69.2%
Literacy Rate	87%	Employment rate	50%
Zambia		Capital : Lusaka	
Population	12.9 million	Area (sq km)	753,000
Population aged 15- 64 years	51%	GDP per capita (US\$)	1,280
Life Expectancy	46 years	GDP growth (2008-2009)	6.4%
HIV Prevalence Rate	13.5%	Below Poverty Line	59.3%
Literacy Rate	71%	Employment rate	61%

According to SADC (2004), HIV/AIDS is considered the greatest development and health issue, adversely impacting the region's socio-economic development by affecting the educated and skilled workforce. Social and human development is being addressed through key priorities in education and training, health, employment and labour, and culture, information and sport (SADC, 2004). SADC protocols promote access, equity and quality education at all levels, acceptable standards of health care, and improved labour demand and income generation (SADC, 2004). As for culture and sport, priority areas are listed as training, capacity building, gender equity, and people with disabilities (SADC, 2004), with the sport objectives focusing on regional integration of ethical and fair competitive and recreational sport, and capacity building of sports personnel, especially for children, women and people with disabilities (SADC, 2010). The Supreme Council for Sport in Africa (SCSA) Zone VI is recognised as the delivery institution for sport programmes within SADC (SADC, 2010) and it aims to use sport as a means of bringing people together to achieve integration, peace and unity (SCSA Zone VI, 2010a).

Zone VI of the SCSA encompasses ten countries in the southern region of Africa (Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia, and Zimbabwe) and coordinates cooperation between member states to promote, support and monitor sport and recreation development (SCSA Zone VI, 2010a). SCSA Zone VI (2010a) has many aims for sport in the region, some of which pertain more specifically to SFD, including:

- Developing and coordinating all forms of sport
- Promoting physical education and sport in all schools
- Fostering Olympic and Commonwealth ideals
- Preventing disagreeable practices and discrimination
- Enhancing cooperation and community building through sport

The sporting bodies of member states in Southern Africa are governed by the strategic priorities of SCSA Zone VI, as are the organisations working within national sport priorities. Two of the organisations included in the case study (LNOC and SOCS) are themselves government sport bodies (Kicking AIDS Out, 2009a), meanwhile the NGOs (EduSport, SCORE, SEDYEL, and Sport In Action) all work in partnership with government bodies in their countries (EduSport, 2009; SCORE, 2010b; Emmanuel & Keown, 2009; Huffman, 2011), and the donor agencies collaborate directly with the SCSA Zone VI secretariat and national governments regarding SFD objectives (Kicking AIDS Out, 2011; UK Sport, 2011c;

SCSA Zone VI, 2010b). Furthermore, the SCSA Zone VI works with the Kicking AIDS Out Network as one of its member organisations (Kicking AIDS Out, 2009a).

4.3. The Kicking AIDS Out Network

The case study focuses on projects being implemented within a network of SFD donor and implementing organisations in Southern Africa. Many networks are listed in the International Platform on Sport for Development database (SAD, 2011b), all linking organisations for partnership and collaboration purposes. One such network is the Kicking AIDS Out Network, which includes member organisations promoting awareness of HIV and AIDS and other health issues, through the use of peer leadership, sport and physical activity (Kicking AIDS Out, 2008). The network's mission is "to empower youth to positively influence their lives and the lives of others, by actively enhancing life skills through sport" (Kicking AIDS Out, 2008: 2).

The Kicking AIDS Out initiative was developed by EduSport in Zambia in 2001, quickly becoming an international network promoting information sharing, policy development, local project support (Kidd & Donnelly, 2007), and sport as tool for development (Kicking AIDS Out, 2011). The Kicking AIDS Out Secretariat, managed by the NIF, assumes the responsibility of managing, coordinating and representing the Network and supporting its members (Kicking AIDS Out, 2008), which are found in Eastern and Southern Africa, the Caribbean, Asia Pacific, Canada, United Kingdom and Norway (Kicking AIDS Out, 2011; Nicholls et al., in press).

However, Kicking AIDS Out is also an approach, referred to as a concept that integrates sport and physical activity with life skills development and HIV/AIDS education to endorse behaviour change through action learning methods (Kicking AIDS Out, 2011). Central to the concept is the training of coaches and sport leaders in knowledge and skills to facilitate activities, while simultaneously building capacity at individual, organisational and community levels (Kidd & Donnelly, 2007; Kicking AIDS Out, 2011). The training pathway progresses leaders through four levels of knowledge and skills using the Kicking AIDS Out curriculum of HIV/AIDS education, leadership and facilitation, and sexual and reproductive health (Kicking AIDS Out, 2011).

Kicking AIDS Out is an international network; however the case study was limited to member organisations and partners responsible for projects currently being implemented in the Southern African region.

4.4. Overview of Organisations

Although the SFD projects selected for the case study are bound geographically, they also focus on similar development areas of youth empowerment and leadership, HIV/AIDS prevention, and gender equity, and the implementing organisations have been operating for over five years (see Table 9). The donor and implementing organisations responsible for these projects are interrelated through partnerships and collaboration (see Figure 4), with donors funding multiple projects in partnership with each other, and implementing organisations receiving funding from multiple donors for their projects, while also collaborating with other organisations within the network to implement activities and achieve broader objectives. This represents an example of the interconnections of projects and stakeholders, and their aims of making significant impact within their country and regional area.

The case study incorporated interviewees from ten of the targeted organisations; three donor agencies based in different countries, one network secretariat and six implementing organisations based in five different countries. The donors UK Sport, CGC, and NIF each provide funding to the Kicking AIDS Out Secretariat (Nicholls et al., in press) and various SFD projects in Southern Africa. All of the implementing organisations are members of the network, receiving funds from one or two of the above mentioned donors to implement projects in their country of operation, and include; EduSport (Zambia), LNOC (Lesotho), SCORE Namibia, SCORE South Africa, SEDYEL (Botswana), Sport in Action (Zambia) and SOCS (Swaziland).

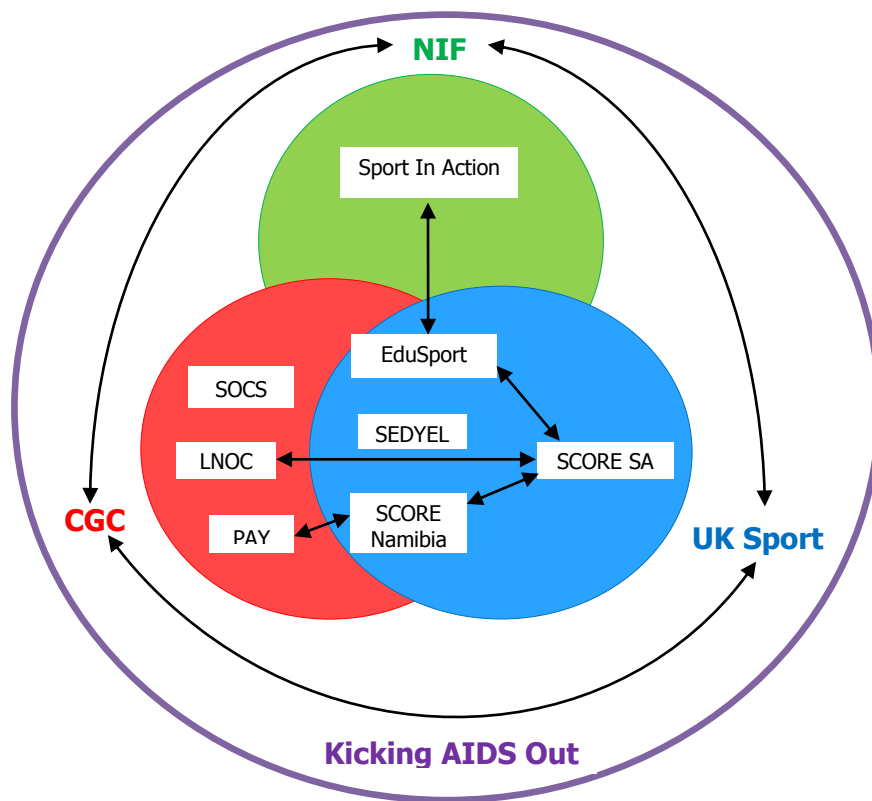


FIGURE 4: Connections between case study organisations within Kicking AIDS Out Network in Southern Africa

Between these organisations, seven projects of interest were included in the case study:

- Go Sisters - EduSport
- OlympAfrica Youth Ambassador Programme (OYAP) – LNOC
- Namibia Volunteer Involvement Programme (NAM-VIP) – SCORE Namibia
- Leading the Game (LTG) – SCORE South Africa
- South East District Youth Empowerment League (SEDYEL) – SEDYEL
- Youth Empowerment Through Sport – Sport In Action
- Asidlale – SOCS

Tables 9 and 10 outline the project objectives, and the partnerships and collaboration between the organisations and projects included in the case study.

TABLE 9: Summary of implementing organisations and projects

EduSport⁴	Country: Zambia	Established: 1999
Mission: EduSport is based on the community empowerment approach and uses sport to work towards the empowerment of the underprivileged youth groups and poor local communities by equipping them with resources and knowledge needed to develop their own developmental initiatives through sport.		
Project: Go Sisters Objectives: Go Sisters aims at empowering girls by training them to become youth peer coaches and leaders, involving them at all levels of planning, implementation and decision making, providing them with EduSport school and college scholarships etc. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To provide extra family social, supportive, networks, a safe social space and reduce the social isolation of females • To provide girls and young women with experience of decision making and perceptions of control and experience of empowerment • To develop self esteem and increase female expectations and ambitions • To reduce school drops outs by offering school scholarships, building community schools and organising motivation talks with celebrities • To provide sexual health information, especially relating to HIV/AIDS • To increase knowledge and skills in girls to pursue their dreams and ambitions 		
Donors: CGC, UK Sport, NIF	Collaborators: Sport in Action, SCORE South Africa	
Lesotho NOC⁵	Country: Lesotho	Established: 2003
Mission: N/A		
Project: OYAP Objectives: Promoting youth empowering youth through sport to create a positive change in their communities. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Train youth Ambassadors to organise sport events for people in their communities • Utilise sporting events to disseminate information on critical social issues affecting youth • Equip youth with appropriate skills to provide peer mentorship for other youth in their communities 		
Donors: CGC	Collaborators: SCORE South Africa	
SCORE Namibia⁶	Country: Namibia	Established: 2000
Mission: To use sport to provide children and youth with valuable skills and opportunities that they need to succeed in life and contribute to their communities.		
Project: NAM-VIP Objectives: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To establish a basic community youth sports volunteer training system for Namibia • To develop more entrenched leadership capacity and organisational development • To increase participation in sport at community level • To increase HIV/AIDS awareness through Kicking AIDS Out training and activities 		
Donors: CGC, UK Sport	Collaborators: SCORE South Arica	

⁴ Sources: (EduSport, 2009; Mweshi, 2011)

⁵ Sources: (Kicking AIDS Out, 2009b)

⁶ Sources: (SCORE Namibia, 2007; SCORE, 2010a; Interviewee L Appendix 13)

SCORE South Africa⁷	Country: South Africa	Established: 1991
Mission: To use sport to provide children and youth with valuable skills and opportunities that they need to succeed in life and contribute to their communities.		
Project: LTG Objectives: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To equip young leaders with the necessary leadership and life skills to make informed decisions impacting their health • To improve knowledge and awareness of health issues and in particular HIV/AIDS among young people, contributing to behaviour change and a reduction in stigma surrounding HIV/AIDS • To increase opportunities for girls/young women to actively participate in HIV prevention messages and life skills education activities within established community structures in order to improve self confidence • To increase awareness of gender issues in communities amongst both men and women leading to change in perceptions of gender identity 		
Donors: UK Sport	Collaborators: SCORE Namibia, LNOG	

SEDYEL⁸	Country: Botswana	Established: 2005
Mission: Through the use of sports, physical and participatory activities we will create a fully committed and informed nation that is capable of effectively dealing with HIV/AIDS and other socio-economical issues.		
Project: SEDYEL Objectives: Aims in channelling the energy and enthusiasm of young people away from risky behaviours which are the main factors in high incidence of HIV/AIDS in the country. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To facilitate youth HIV/AIDS prevention in South East District • To create opportunities for male and female youth to be involved in their own development towards change • To build individual resilience, self confidence, community connections and critical analysis • To increase youth understanding of social and political systems and structures • To develop facilitation and practical skills • To create safe spaces for young women to realise their potential 		
Donors: CGC, UK Sport	Collaborators:	

⁷ Sources: (SCORE South Africa, 2009; SCORE, 2010a)

⁸ Sources: (Barrell, 2011; Emmanuel & Keown, 2009)

Sport In Action⁹	Country: Zambia	Established: 1998
Mission: Sport In Action shall endeavour to use sport and recreation as a tool to improve the quality of children's lives by providing a program that will bring about motivation, self-development, child protection and self-reliance through social and economic empowerment.		
Project: Youth Empowerment Through Sport Objectives: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To promote mass participation in sport • To provide youth and children with meaningful leisure-time activity • To educate youth and children on HIV & AIDS, drug and alcohol abuse prevention and other life skills • To provide sport careers pathways to youth and children • To train young sport leaders in delivery of sports and life skills education • To encourage and develop community youth involvement in mobilising resources for their personal and common development goals • To give psychosocial support through support groups for orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs) and people living with HIV & AIDS 		
Donors: NIF	Collaborators: EduSport	
SOCS¹⁰	Country: Swaziland	Established: 2003
Mission: To develop and regulate all sport and recreation activities in the Kingdom, on behalf of the Government of Swaziland, through facilitating maximum access to resources and opportunities for Swazi citizens; promoting and exhibiting good governance.		
Project: Asidlale Objectives: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To empower youth to run grassroots sport development activities in their communities • To empower communities to implement recreational activities • To provide youth with the skills needed to run grassroots development through sport activities 		
Donors: CGC	Collaborators:	
Kicking AIDS Out Secretariat¹¹	Country: Norway/ South Africa	Established: 2002
Mission: To empower youth to positively influence their lives and the lives of others, by actively enhancing life skills through sport.		
Objectives: An international Network of organisations using sports and Physical Education to raise awareness and address issues around HIV/AIDS and other health related issues. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish and maintain an efficient, effective and influential network • Strengthen the capacity of the network's members to deliver Kicking AIDS Out programmes • Develop and maintain quality delivery methods, materials and standards for the network 		
Donors: CGC, UK Sport, NIF	Collaborators: EduSport, LNOC, SCORE, SEDYEL, Sport In Action, SOCS	

⁹ Sources: (Sport In Action, 2009a; 2009b)

¹⁰ Sources: (Swaziland National Sports Council, 2005; CGC, 2011d)

¹¹ Source: (Kicking AIDS Out, 2011)

TABLE 10: Summary of donor organisations

CGC¹² – International Development through Sport	Country: Canada	Established: 1993
Mission: To integrate the development of sport and development through sport activities in order to build national sport system capacity and promote community and social development throughout the Commonwealth.		
Objectives: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To increase collaboration and promote partnerships between local, national and international organisations to advance the development, delivery and financing of development of and through sport programmes • To increase HIV prevention- and harm (including stigma) reduction-related behaviours among participating children and youth • To increase the use of effective school retention messaging and quality life skills training by participating youth leaders and programme coordinators and managers • To increase opportunities for girl's equal participation and decision making by participating youth leaders and programme coordinators/managers • To increase the development of policies, plans and programmes that promotes use of sport for development among programme coordinators/managers 		
Projects Supported: Asidiale, OYAP, Go Sisters, NAM-VIP, SEDYEL, Kicking AIDS Out		Collaborators: UK Sport, NIF
UK Sport¹³ - International Development through Sport	Country: United Kingdom	Established: 1995
Mission: To work with partners overseas to harness the power of sport to change lives, build trust and engagement and contribute to the growth of knowledge, skills and capacity.		
Objectives: IDS works with local organisations in the developing world to support community-based projects that use sport as a means to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empower girls and children with disabilities • Develop young leaders and educators with sport and life skills • Deliver effective HIV/AIDS education and awareness • Offer disaster and trauma relief and rehabilitation • Assist with peace-building in communities affected by conflict 		
Projects Supported: Go Sisters, NAM-VIP, SEDYEL, LTG, Kicking AIDS Out		Collaborators: CGC, NIF

¹²Sources: (CGC, 2011a; CGC, 2011b; CGC, 2011c; Interviewee J Appendix 11)

¹³ Sources: (UK Sport, 2009; UK Sport, 2011a; UK Sport 2011b; UK Sport 2011c; Interviewee F Appendix 8)

NIF¹⁴ – International Cooperation	Country: Norway	Established: 1990
Mission: Collaborate with partners to develop capacity and structures to ensure opportunities for children and youth, regardless of gender, abilities, ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, social and economic standing, living in Africa and southeast Asia to participate and benefit from sport programmes/activities.		
Objectives: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengthening Governance: To promote, influence and contribute to the development of democratic, transparent and sustainable sports structures and organizations that offer open and inclusive sports programmes on a local, national and regional basis. • Building Capacity: Enhance the capacity of our southern partners and stakeholders to develop the leadership and social skills of youth, community sport leaders, coaches, officials and administrators to implement and evaluate safe and enjoyable sports and life skills development activities. • Building and strengthening networks: Encourage partnerships and collaboration between stakeholders of the sport community and the sport-for-development community as a means of strengthening 'sports for all' programmes. • Ensuring inclusion and accessibility are realized within the sport community: To promote and ensure our partners have the tools to develop and implement policies and practices relating to gender equity, and for persons with disabilities. • Learning and influence: Evaluate, document and share best practices and advocate for change locally, nationally and internationally. 		
Projects Supported: Empowerment through Sport, Go Sisters, Kicking AIDS Out		Collaborators: CGC, UK Sport

4.5. Conclusion

As illustrated in the previous sections, the development issues of HIV/AIDS, youth education and leadership, and gender equity are cross-cutting themes within the region of Southern Africa. Furthermore, they are the shared focal issues of the Kicking AIDS Out Network and the projects incorporated in the case study. Various organisations are collaborating to implement these projects within the network, however, each project and implementing organisation retains unique aims and local operating contexts. Nevertheless, this chapter depicts the general background for the results of interviewee perceptions presented in Chapter Five.

¹⁴ Sources: (NIF, 2009; Interviewee C Appendix 5)

CHAPTER FIVE: FINDINGS

5.1. Introduction

Information gathered through semi-structured interviews is presented in this chapter as quantitative and qualitative data. Confidentiality and anonymity of interviewees was guaranteed, due to the intimate nature of the SFD field, thus encouraging personal opinion, rather than organisational views. Interviewees are identified by letters from A to M, as seen in summarised transcripts of Appendices 3 to 14, and the excerpts of interview responses have been edited for Standard British English. The identified project elements of significance and their rankings are presented, followed by the categorisation of elements, and project management themes emerging from the interviews.

5.2. Significant Project Elements

Participants were asked to identify and rank four elements of their project(s) that contribute most towards achieving its objectives relating to social change. The elements were assigned points based on the rankings given by participants i.e. 1st ranking equals 4 points, 2nd is 3 points, 3rd is 2 points, and 4th is 1 point. The elements were recorded and compiled into a list of 21 items, with the ranking scores added for elements mentioned multiple times. Overall ranking of elements was based on their total points score, and in the case of equal scores, the number of mentions, then the position of ranking given by participants (1st, 2nd, 3rd or 4th), were considered in breaking the tie; however there were elements that remained equal in rank, as seen in Table 11.

TABLE 11: Rankings of important project elements

Elements	Times Mentioned	Ranking Points	Overall Ranking
Skills Training	6	19	1
Local Youth Leaders	4	12	2
Participation & Involvement	4	12	3
Programme Design	4	12	4
Sports Activities	4	11	5
Community Engagement	3	10	6
Knowledge	3	7	7
Sport Structures	2	5	8
Sport Leagues	2	5	8
Quality Sports Programme	2	5	8
Safe Environment	1	4	11
Environmental Activities	1	3	12
Partnerships	1	3	13
Funding	2	2	14
Programme Delivery	1	2	15
Trained Staff	1	2	15
Education Sponsorship	1	2	15
Reflection & Accountability for Learning	1	1	18
Resources	1	1	18
Exchange Programme	1	1	18
Cultural Activities	1	1	18

Elements ranked as most important were ‘skills training’ identified by four participants, followed by ‘local youth leaders’ highlighted twice, and followed thereafter by ‘safe environment’, ‘knowledge’, ‘sports activities’, ‘participation and involvement’, ‘community engagement’ and ‘programme design’.

5.3. Categorisation of Project Elements

The project elements listed above were grouped into thematic categories to produce a more manageable number of items for examination and analysis. The ranking scores of the elements included in each category were added, giving the categories a total score used in order to rank their importance. The rankings of the thematic categories are illustrated in Table 12, with the original elements listed under each category.

TABLE 12: Rankings of project element categories

Category and Elements	Ranking Points	Overall Ranking
Capacity Building Skills Training Knowledge Exchange Programme	27	1
Sport Sports Activities Quality Sports Programme	16	2
Inclusivity Participation & Involvement Safe Environment	16	3
Project Specification Programme Design Funding Resources	15	4
Community Community Engagement Partnerships	13	5
Youth Leadership Local Youth Leaders	12	6
Structure Sport Structures Sport Leagues	10	7
Additional Component Environmental Activities Education Sponsorship Cultural Activities	6	8
Project Management Programme Delivery Trained Staff Reflection & Accountability for Learning	5	9

The results indicate that ‘capacity building’ is quite an important aspect of SFD projects, as its elements were identified by 6 out of 12 interviewees, although all of these interviewees were practitioners. ‘Sport’ was also identified by 50% of the interviewees, including practitioners and donors, as an important aspect. The elements included in the other categories were identified by less than 50% of the participants, indicating a broad and varied view of which elements are significant in achieving social change objectives.

The donor interviewees all identified elements of ‘inclusivity’; meanwhile 2 of 3 identified ‘community’ and ‘sport’ elements, and none mentioned ‘capacity building’, ‘project specification’ or ‘additional component’. Elements identified by practitioner interviewees were spread across the categories, with more emphasis on ‘capacity building’

and ‘sport’ than other categories, and ‘inclusivity’ and ‘community’ elements each identified only once.

5.4. Important Themes Identified

5.4.1 Project Element Categories

Many of the ‘inclusivity’ and ‘community’ elements were identified by donors addressing aspects of community engagement and beneficiary participation as approaches of building local ownership and sustainability of project interventions. Interviewee J explained that “[b]uilding strong partnerships with local communities and organisations [is] a way of increasing/encouraging local ownership” and went on to say;

“...ideas on how to go about with these initiatives must be from the local context, derived at and through the involvement of the target populations and the communities that they are going to be implemented in. In this way, there is much mileage in terms of the sustainability and effectiveness of the programmes operated. Even more necessary, is the involvement of those closest to social problems in determining their solutions; in this case ‘youth’.” – Interviewee J

The comments of Interviewee F agreed with the above, stating that programmes inclusive of beneficiaries and stakeholders get more buy-in, are more sustainable, and increase ownership for social objectives. Meanwhile, Interviewee J emphasised the need for communities to progress according to their norms and values, and shift programmes from being donor-centred to community oriented.

All practitioners, but one, included ‘sport’, and ‘youth leadership’ elements in their ranking lists; both of which relate to delivery methods of their projects. Interviewee E described the nature of sport as participative, inclusive and citizen- focused, and the basis for the other project elements. Other examples of why sport is used were described as:

“Providing young people with fun activities has proved to be a way to lessen boredom, which can sometimes lead to anti-social behaviour and activity.”

–Interviewee G

“[D]istrict sport days help in bringing the communities in the vicinity of our centres together” –Interviewee H

Meanwhile, practitioners also illustrated the importance of local youth leadership in project implementation:

“Firstly I feel that the community volunteers are the most important. We are dealing with community development and I feel that to be successful in any community development project the main implementers of the programme should be from the community.” –Interviewee L

Both Interviewees L and A stressed that the local leaders are primary implementers of programme activities; organising and running activities that lead to the desired objectives. Likewise, perspectives of donors also indicate that sport is important, because it defines SFD (Interviewee F), and quality sport programmes will keep children involved in the programme (Interviewee C). In addition, Interviewee C identified the “[d]evelopment and recognition of the community youth leadership (coach, officials, community leaders) as the main delivery approach” by which implementing organisations achieve project objectives.

All ‘capacity building’ and ‘additional component’ elements, and three of four ‘structure’ elements were identified by practitioners, showing a different general trend in opinion from donors; however one donor also advocated for the need for structure, described as: *“Good sport structures/systems within the community (from club to district systems in place with policies, practices, etc. that are democratic and rights-based)”* (Interviewee C). Interviewee E explained that creating leagues and tournaments provides structures into which the Kicking AIDS Out concept can be integrated and capacity building can be supported. Furthermore, trained leaders are given opportunities to use their knowledge within the structure and give back to their community.

“This in return makes these young people to take responsibilities and act as role models for others and thus in regard to life skills education and development, result into behaviour change which is key in addressing the underlying issues around health problems affecting sub-Saharan Africa.” –Interviewee E

Examples given of training topics are life skills, crime prevention, substance abuse, health, HIV/AIDS (Interviewee B), organising sports events (Interviewee H) and Kicking AIDS Out (Interviewee M). The ‘added component’ is thus integrated into the sport programme, as Interviewee B exemplified through including formal health and life skills education to prepare children to be independent, and develop them into leaders. Environmental awareness is another ‘additional component’ addressed by SFD projects, with *“the main aim [being]... to emphasise the importance of cleanness in our environment, especially for athletes”*, according to Interviewee H. Furthermore, Interviewee M described an exchange programme in which *“the peer leaders will visit each other’s schools or communities... to share their experiences in how the activities are going on”*, thereby

increasing knowledge and capacity within the structure of the organisation. Structure, added components and capacity are seen to be significant mechanisms that complement each other.

Consequently, three practitioners were more focused on project related elements than other interviewees. Interviewee K identified specific objectives as important in achieving their goals, such as *“increasing active participation of girls in organised sport as well as the number of sport codes available to them, [and] increasing the number of female sports leaders/coaches through different training workshops...”*. Programme design was identified and described as the foundation, by giving direction and guidance to leaders in achieving the objectives, while proper execution of, and leader accountability to, the design occurs through programme delivery (Interviewee A). Funding was identified twice, by Interviewees A and L, as a significant means of facilitating the process of training and supporting youth leaders effectively to achieve the project objectives.

5.4.2 Project Management and Implementation

Additional questions regarding the importance of the identified elements, and how they are implemented and monitored in the projects were asked during the interviews. The responses were examined, with themes emerging from the participants' perceptions. The thematic areas are; Why Sport, How Sport is Used, Leadership, Capacity, Organisation and Governance, Community Engagement and Ownership, Programme Theory, Resources, and M&E. The most prominent theme was Organisation and Governance, referred to by nine interviewees, followed by seven interviewees' comments on How Sport is Used, and Leadership and Capacity themes each cited by six of twelve interviewees. Statements about M&E were drawn out by the specific question about monitoring. Compared to the significant elements, there were more referrals to structured and inclusive governance than capacity building, while sport remained a prominent theme. Only practitioners mentioned youth leadership outside of an organisational or governance context, whereas donors focused on community involvement more than practitioners.

Why Sport

Sport is perceived as significant because of its ability to reach vast populations (Interviewee G) and provide an entry point in addressing social issues (Interviewee E). Interviewee C stated that sport activities within safe environments can engage more children, however, Interviewee F argued that sport is 'self-selecting' only attracts people who want to participate.

How Sport is Used

Sport is used in various ways depending on the project. Often sport activities “*provide a forum where young people can openly talk about issues that concern them in an informal set up and still have fun*” (Interviewee B), and “*build self confidence, self awareness... and assertiveness in girls*” (Interviewee K). Interviewee B also states that games include health talks and relate to real life situations, for instance, sport activities combining HIV messaging and life skills (Interviewee F). Interviewee G explains that organised teams and leagues can “*promote HIV/AIDS awareness and social responsibility within communities*”, and female sport increases community health, because when all people participate in sport, it builds unity and respect for each other (Interviewee D). Interviewee K believes that sport interventions “*create awareness on the importance of obtaining higher education for their own sustainability which will help them become responsible citizens and reduce poverty levels.*”

Leadership

A common theme revolving around the youth leaders is their role in implementing project activities, as cited by interviewees:

“Each of the teams has a sports leader who works with the team on an ongoing basis, and teaches the participants sport skills... who incorporate life skills into warm up drills” –Interviewee G

“The volunteers are the ones that will organise the activities... they are implementing the programme to achieve the desired objectives.” –Interviewee L

Furthermore, Interviewee L indicated that local leaders “*are more aware of their own challenges and they are able to represent the community*”. In addition, Interviewee A believed youth leaders can extend their contribution to communities, stating “*...the longer the volunteers stay with the organisation... they have greater knowledge, skills and ability to contribute to the programme and their peers and implementation of the programme within the communities...*” thereby increasing project success.

Capacity

Building the capacity of youth to fulfil their roles and responsibilities within projects emerged as a significant management issue for many interviewees. “*The Kicking AIDS Out training is structured in a way that the trained young people get a firsthand experience of utilising their knowledge in an organised structure in the community*” Interviewee E explained. Interviewee H indicated that “*...after every training there is an implementation*

period whereby [leaders] are tasked to run our programmes which run on scheduled days..." a notion reiterated by Interviewee M; "...leaders are trained and depending on the levels of training, these peer leaders also train their fellow peers." Interviewee C pointed out the importance of developing youth skills to provide opportunities for them while simultaneously giving back to their community, which is further explained by Interviewee L; *"If we are able to train, support and mentor these volunteers to be good role models, to be good citizens, to be good leaders, then they are able to contribute to the general community development"*.

Organisation and Governance

Social issues affecting communities are due to lack of structures and services, and organisations are bridging the gap (Interviewee E). Three quarters of the interviewees referred to structure, whether in project activities, organisations or governing bodies. Interviewee A alluded to the need for *"having a general governing body who initiate, manage, oversee and design the process... [and] conduct the trainings which then 'trains' the local volunteers to implement the programme"*. However, governance alone is insufficient, and good systems, as Interviewee C explained, are also required to *"ensure that the coaches, officials and community leaders are aware of issues, and will continue to work towards ensuring a safe environment (free of abuse, violence, is friendly and open to all)"*. As for the style of governance, the opinion of Interviewee J was *"that when organisations' policies and systems reflect the values of inclusion, either by fairness, diversity and opportunity, the path towards changes in community perceptions and belief towards certain issues, e.g. HIV/AIDS, the role of women/girls and people with disabilities in leadership ...are much [more] likely to shift towards the desired outcomes."* This view was supported by the aim of Interviewee D to have balanced gender representation in sport and leadership, and is exemplified by Interviewee G's project, which is currently *"owned by the community, entirely by the youth."*

Community Engagement and Ownership

Community engagement and ownership approaches used within SFD projects were illustrated by several interviewees. *"If you are doing activities within a community it is very important that the broader community are aware of the objectives"* reported Interviewee L, *"if there is no ownership by the community the project is more likely to fail."* Most SFD interventions use the empowerment of youth to bring social change to communities (Interviewee J), moreover, Interviewee C recognised that an intervention *"seeks support from*

the community – building the structures and relationships for local ownership and is therefore able to move to more communities.”

Programme Theory

Within programme theory, programme design is considered by Interviewee A as the foundation, direction, and guidance for achieving objectives, and Interviewee M viewed project related elements as implementation tools contributing to project objectives. “[O]ne size does not fit all and one approach cannot be replicated everywhere”, stated Interviewee E, and as Interviewee F explained, behaviour change includes more than sport, and in the bigger picture of life SFD needs to determine its role and where to fit in.

Resources

The importance of resources and funding stems from the reliance of various activities and processes on resources in meeting targets and objectives (Interviewees A & K). Interviewees F and J indicated that partnerships are important for sharing effort and resources in working towards social objectives.

Monitoring & Evaluation

Concerning M&E of SFD projects, interviewees mentioned the use of data collection tools, surveys, databases, site visits and meetings, participatory tools, and internal reporting systems, in the process of reviewing results against indicators (Interviewees A, B, C, D & L). All of the donors interviewed stressed the importance of reflecting and learning from data to ensure the intervention meets community needs, make necessary changes, improve effectiveness, and then share the results with stakeholders (Interviewees C, F & J).

5.4.3 Uniqueness of Sport for Development Elements

Interviewees were asked whether they regarded the significant project elements they listed as unique to SFD interventions. The results indicated an equal split between interviewees believing the elements are unique to SFD, and those believing they are general to development projects. Sport is regarded as unique, because it attracts and involves more people (Interviewee F), develops confidence, empowerment and core life skills, and provides more opportunities for youth leadership development than other sectors (Interviewees A, F & G). Meanwhile, Interviewee K argued that elements are unique to each individual project, which itself has a specific approach and design. Other interviewees disagreed, indicating that

the elements identified are aspects of broader developmental processes, and could be adapted to other development projects (Interviewees A, C, E & L).

5.5. Conclusion

The significant project elements, and subsequent categories, identified by the interviewees indicated an overall perception that capacity building, youth leadership, sport and community participation are most important to achieving social change objectives. Besides these elements, findings drawn from project management data also indicate structure and organisation as key features of SFD projects. Further discussion of the findings follows in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION

6.1. Introduction

This chapter presents an evaluation of the research findings with regards to the theoretical perspectives outlined in Chapter Two. The significant project elements are considered in relation to SFDT, previous SFD research and CSF frameworks. Implications for project management are discussed along with the applications for project design in SFD.

6.2. Comparison of Elements with Frameworks

6.2.1 *Sport for Development Theory (SFDT) Framework*

An overview of SFDT was presented in Chapter Two, explaining the interdisciplinary framework that combines impact assessment, organisational, sport, educational and cultural enrichment components within sport interventions to better contribute to personal and social development (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011). Significant project elements identified by the research interviewees were listed in the results of Chapter Five, and have been inputted into the SFDT framework in Table 13, according to the descriptions indicated in Appendix 1. All of the elements fit into the components of the framework; however, some elements fell under the descriptions of two components and, therefore, were repeated within the framework.

There is a clear emphasis on the importance of organisational components when examining the significant project elements according to SFDT, with sport aspects also illustrated as significant. The elements included in the organisational component are related mostly to ‘capacity building’, ‘inclusivity’, ‘project specification’ and ‘community’ categories outlined in the findings, which were all ranked at the high end of the category list in Table 12. ‘Sport’ was the other category of significance from the findings, the elements of which are included in the SFDT sport component, along with those of ‘youth leadership’ and ‘structure’ categories.

As indicated in Chapter Two, Belassi & Tukul (1996) found organisational factors to be most critical to project success. Furthermore, the majority of organisational factors related to project managers and environment (Belassi & Tukul, 1996). In Table 13, the organisational elements of trained staff, programme design, funding and resources are linked to project managers’ abilities and competence, while participation and involvement, safe environment, community engagement and partnerships are influenced by the external environment of the

project. Lessons Learned by NCDO (2007) indicate that SFD organisations require expertise and skills to operate effectively, however there is a lack of attention to whether these organisations also possess the necessary capacity to train others. These arguments are supported by the case study findings with respect to a dominance of significant elements identified within the organisational component of the SFDT framework.

TABLE 13: Significant project elements in Sport for Development Theory framework

Impacts Assessment	Organisational	Sport	Educational	Cultural Enrichment
Reflection & Accountability for Learning	Skills Training Knowledge Trained Staff Participation & Involvement Safe Environment Programme Design Funding Resources Sport Structure Community Engagement Partnerships	Sports Activities Sport Leagues Sport Structure Safe Environment Programme Delivery Local Youth Leaders Quality Sports Programme	Education Sponsorship Exchange Programme Safe Environment Quality Sports Programme	Cultural Activities Environmental Activities Community Engagement

The management themes resulting from the research reveal additional support for the SFDT framework. The impacts assessment component relates to comments about M&E made by interviewees, such as Interviewee A who listed data collection, site visits and creative M&E tools as methods to gather information from different sources; data which can then be “*recorded and reviewed against specific indicators*” (Interviewee C). Most organisations conduct evaluations before, during and after projects (Interviewee E), however, Interviewee F added that data collection and pre and post project evaluations are not sufficient; organisations also need to think about the results and learn from them to improve effectiveness, which is described in the SFDT framework.

With regards to the educational component description, creating a safe environment for quality sport experiences were mentioned by Interviewees C and F, meanwhile facilitating games that link to real life situations (Interviewee B) and hosting community events illustrate the value of cultural enrichment components, as in the example from Interviewee E:

“...the unity that the [community World Cup] event brought between communities making them have one common goal and objective could not have been achieved within a short space in time as it happened.”

Lyras & Welty Peachey (2011) have proposed that SFDT components may provide guidance in selecting appropriate factors to effect and assess social change; an argument supported by the work of Belassi & Tukul (1996: 142) which explains that “the identification of the groups to which the critical factors belong would be sufficient for better evaluation of projects.” The important components leading to project success could then be understood and utilised by project managers (Belassi & Tukul, 1996). The significant project elements identified by the interviewees fit the descriptions of SFDT components, even though the case study projects are based on different objectives and implemented within different contexts than Lyras’ Doves Olympic Movement, on which SFDT was based. This finding provides support for the framework, although it is based upon a limited analysis of the organisations and further studies are necessary to determine whether it could be applied within the broader context of SDP projects.

6.2.2 Sport For Development Research

Previous research on SFD project success was described in Chapter Two, resulting in a list of common factors and components believed to contribute to improved effectiveness:

- educational sport activities
- additional components integrated with sport
- local leadership
- participation, involvement and ownership
- local context, needs and resources
- partnerships and networks
- integrated M&E components

Each of these items was mentioned within the findings of significant project elements in Chapter Five, albeit not explicitly in all cases. Educational sport activities are exemplified by the Kicking AIDS Out activities integrating life skills development and HIV awareness into games and sport training (Kicking AIDS Out, 2011). Additional components were illustrated by environmental and cultural activities mentioned by Interviewees B and H.

Resources, including funding, were identified specifically by Interviewees A, K and L. Meanwhile local context and needs were addressed in the explanations of ‘participation and involvement’ and ‘community engagement’ elements given by Interviewees F and J in the findings, which echoed Skinner et al. (2008) in emphasising that social inclusion programmes should be community-based to address to the specific needs of each community.

Moreover, integrated M&E tools were not referred to explicitly, although Interviewee J recommended that organisations “*view accountability and reflection as the means to learn from their own experiences and utilise the same information to strengthen their intervention.*” With respect to M&E specifically, Interviewees C, D, E and F acknowledged the need for capturing information from various people involved, continuously during the projects, and to learn and make changes according to the results and the set objectives. These views support the need to integrate M&E into project activities and processes, rather than regard it as a separate, additional component. Overall, the cases study findings are in line with previous SFD research.

In addition, the common factors and components from SFD research also fit the SFDT framework. Educational sport activities fall under the educational component, and additional components under cultural enrichment. Local leadership, partnership, involvement and ownership, and local context, needs and resources are included in the organisational component, while integrated M&E is part of impacts assessment. Aspects of partnerships and networks are included in both organisational and cultural enrichment components. The SFD research studies explored success factors within various projects covering a broad spectrum of social development objectives and the rapport with SFDT components suggests further support for the applicability of the framework within the diverse field of SDP.

6.2.3 Critical Success Factor Frameworks

Frameworks for project management CSFs and dimensions have been developed by Belassi and Tukel (1996) and Shenhar et al. (2001) (see Chapter 2). Belassi and Tukel (1996) outlined four CSF dimensions relating to the project, project manager and team, organisation and external environment. On the other hand, Shenhar et al. (2001) found that a multidimensional concept was needed to consider the dimensions (project efficiency, customer impact, organisational success and future preparation) in relation to timeframe for enhanced project management. In examining the significant project elements from the research findings in relation to these frameworks, the dimensions of Shenhar et al. (2001) are

more applicable to the context of SFD (shown in Table 14), since they make provision for the customers, or stakeholders, involved in the project.

According to Shenhar et al. (2001) and Diallo and Thuillier (2004), the definition of success is dependent on the perspectives of various stakeholders, and Dvir et al. (2003) acknowledged the customer's view to be most important for project success. For development organisations, the customer can include various stakeholders, such as the beneficiaries, the donor agency, the local or national government and the organisation itself (Lewis, 2002). Interviewees also agree that varying perspectives are important and need to be considered, as depicted in the 'inclusivity' and 'community' elements of Chapter Five. Interviewees C, D, F and J specifically state that beneficiaries, students, volunteers, teachers, church leaders, community clubs, local NGOs, political leaders and government departments should be included into projects to improve sustainability.

TABLE 14: Significant project elements in project success multidimensional framework

Project Efficiency	Impact on the Customer	Business and Direct Success	Preparing for the Future
Programme design Resources Funding Programme delivery Trained staff Reflection & accountability for learning	Quality sports programme Skills training Knowledge Exchange programme Sports activities Sport leagues Environmental activities Educational sponsorship Cultural activities Participation & involvement Safe environment	Sport structure Local youth leaders Trained staff Participation & involvement	Community engagement Partnerships Participation & involvement

Within the framework of Shenhar et al. (2001), project efficiency refers to the management of the project and its resources, and impact on the customer concerns meeting their requirements and needs. While the significant project elements listed under the customer impact dimension all create impact on beneficiaries and stakeholders, the author cannot confirm that these elements meet the needs as specified by the stakeholders of each project. Significant project elements contributing directly to impacts on the organisation are listed under business and direct success (Shenhar et al., 2001). Sport structure, youth leaders, trained staff and participatory approaches are products of the project that also give returns back into the organisation by increasing and strengthening capacity and resources, as referred

to by Interviewees A, C and H. Similarly, the community engagement, partnership development and participatory strategies used by the organisation and project help progress towards long term future opportunities (Skinner et al., 2008), defined by the dimension of preparing for the future (Shenhar et al., 2001).

The significant project elements identified in the findings fall under the dimensions of the multidimensional framework, but as with the SFDT framework, some elements fit into more than one dimension. In addition, many elements are listed under customer impact indicating greater attention on the outcomes for beneficiaries and communities; nevertheless, there is no distinction between the nature or roles of the diverse list of elements. In this framework, Shenhar et al. (2001) focus on meeting performance objectives to ensure the product is serving the needs of customers. In relation to SFD, the elements related to 'sport', 'additional component', and 'capacity building' categories can be thought of as products or services for the community, however, in considering the promotion of a 'safe environment' and stakeholder 'participation and involvement', these elements are not as clearly defined and could be thought of as services, as well as mechanisms by which to better serve the communities. In contrast, the SFDT framework addresses development mechanisms and approaches more specifically within its dimensions, and appears to be more applicable to the emphasis on participatory approaches and methods mentioned by the interviewees.

The comparison of frameworks has helped to highlight the different views between conventional project management principles and participatory process planning methods, which are associated with social and human development contexts (Bond, 2002). As noted above, targeting customer needs are vital to project success, nevertheless, in social development projects the 'customer' encompasses a broad group of stakeholders, all of whom have different needs and expectations to be satisfied by the outcomes. Development project success or effectiveness frameworks should acknowledge the importance of stakeholder participation, as well as the mechanisms and processes involved in achieving and sustaining participation for long term development impact, rather than short term project results. Emphasis on community participation leans towards the need for specific SFD and development frameworks that encompass process approaches and methods.

6.3. Implications for Project Management in Sport for Development

6.3.1 *Unique Strategy*

It was concluded above that, in contrast with conventional projects, development projects should incorporate participatory and process approaches in order to address the diverse views and expectations of stakeholders. As a development strategy, SFD would then benefit from using participatory processes to meet its objectives regarding community needs. But what about the aspect of sport itself?

As pointed out by Interviewee F, sport is important because it defines SFD. The premise of SFD is that it uses sport specifically as a vehicle or tool for development and that sport possesses certain values and characteristics that need to be taken into account if being used (Laureus, 2008). Within the findings presented in Chapter Five, the management theme of How Sport is Used was prominent among the responses of interviewees, indicating the importance of using sport activities in the appropriate manner to attain certain objectives. Eight of twelve interviewees specifically mentioned sport's ability to build confidence, bring people together, promote cohesion and unity, and provide a platform for learning, participation, and social responsibility. However, if used in the wrong manner, sport can also lead to negative effects or undesirable behaviours (Eley & Kirk, 2002; Gibbons, Ebbeck & Weiss, 1995 cited by Lyras, 2007). Lyras developed the SFDT framework with the power of sport in mind; the framework explicitly outlines positive characteristics and uses of sport to consider within a SFD intervention (Lyras & Welty Peachey, in press). Generic development approaches and frameworks do not include such details with regards to sport, which suggests the SFDT could be a useful guide to SFD organisations and larger development agencies designing and instituting SFD projects and programmes. In addition, the case study findings and literature highlight the benefit of sport, but whether it is sport itself, or how sport is used, has yet to be determined (Donnelly, 2010; Jarvie, 2011).

6.3.2 *Development Approaches*

In the examination of the project elements and categories in the findings, similarities emerged in relation to development approaches and theory (shown in Table 15). The 'project specification' and 'project management' categories are directly related to project cycle management, as described in Chapter Two. Meanwhile, 'capacity building', 'structure' and 'additional component' can be considered as components or outputs of the project. 'Sport' and 'youth leadership' are the primary delivery methods of knowledge, skills, sport structures, and the additional educational, environmental and cultural components. Elements

of ‘inclusivity’ and ‘community’ emphasised the use of participatory and community engagement approaches in providing foundation for the design and implementation of activities, and the building of structure and capacity components.

TABLE 15: Project elements and categories in development programme areas

Approach	Delivery Method	Component	Project
Inclusivity Participation & Involvement Safe Environment	Sport Sports Activities Quality Sports Programme	Capacity Building Skills Training Knowledge Exchange Programme Structure Sport Structures Sport Leagues Additional Component Environmental Activities Education Sponsorship Cultural Activities	Project Specification Programme Design Funding Resources Project Management Programme Delivery Trained Staff Reflection & Accountability for Learning
Community Community Engagement Partnerships	Youth Leadership Local Youth Leaders		

According to the findings in Chapter Five, the donors generally focused on approach related project elements, while practitioners mentioned most of the project elements related to delivery methods, component and project management. The donors’ descriptions of their roles (see Appendices 3 to 14) encompass providing programme and project support to implementing organisations in meeting overarching development goals of their agency and the government bodies involved. On the other hand, the practitioners described their roles as facilitators, coordinators and administrators of SFD projects being implemented in communities. As with the research of Shenhar et al. (2001), the perspectives of the interviewees influenced their view of significant project elements in contribution to social change objectives. Within this case study, interviewees involved in strategic programming and management roles, were more concerned with the approach to development projects, the values and underlying principles involved, than the specific activities. Meanwhile, interviewees responsible for coordinating and implementing activities and processes to create valuable outputs have viewed the components, delivery methods and project management to be of greater significance.

This apparent difference in viewpoint could be taken to illustrate a divide between donors and practitioners; albeit, looking deeper into the management and implementation

themes challenges that assumption. All of the interviewees, regardless of their role or nationality, highlighted community-based involvement, participation and inclusion, whether in their activities, methods or approaches, in building capacity and organised structures to support social change initiatives and benefit more people. The underlying commonality of these views, and the belief of Belassi and Tukel (1996) in focusing on critical dimensions or aspects for project success, suggests that identifying specific elements or factors for project effectiveness is not vital, but that perhaps it is the methods and approaches that are more important.

The interviewees' preferences for community-based participatory approaches are supported by the SFD and social development literature outlined in Chapter Two. Bottom-up development approaches, being community-driven, address the community's needs and build local ownership through participation (Burnett, 2009; Coalter, 2002; NCDO, 2010). Francis (2002) explains that participation can improve efficiency and effectiveness of outcomes, and ownership of decisions. To do this, participatory programmes require flexible, action-oriented and capacity building efforts to ensure organisations "are responsive to local needs *and* build the local problem-solving capacity on which sustained development depends" (Korten, 1984a: 177). Capacity building within SFD organisations is primarily accomplished through investing in people (NCDO, 2007). Nevertheless, while the need for long term sustainability and community development has been recognised, there is minimal consideration for the investments in participation, engagement, trust and time necessary to reach these objectives (Soal, 2011).

The issue of time is critical, with the desire to see immediate results from on ongoing process of change. Eyben (2011) argues that since social change is complex and unpredictable, donor agencies should build relationships with implementing organisations who share similar values and development goals to support those organisations' efforts over time. Communities consist of people, and to build community participation, involvement and ownership into the management of development interventions, a suitable approach that involves members of the community should be selected. The selection of appropriate approaches and methods will be further explored in the following section.

6.4. Applications for Project Design in Sport For Development

Significant project elements and development management approaches were studied with the aim of exploring and enhancing project design within the SFD field. The design and

planning phases of projects greatly affect their ability to make an impact as intended and, with the varying factors and complex environments of SFD interventions, cannot be completed hastily. As pointed out by Belassi and Tukel (1996) and Lyras and Welty Peachey (in press), in relation to identifying specific factors to improve project effectiveness, it is more important to know and understand the groups of factors, or dimensions, of the project that can influence effectiveness. All projects are unique in time and context (Dvir et al., 2003), making it rather impossible to determine specific factors or elements to include in each different project to produce similar results. Rather, theoretical frameworks and models, such as SFDT, can guide project planners in ensuring that elements from each of the critical dimensions are included to create a comprehensive programme.

Nevertheless, an understanding of the frameworks and their use as tools for guidance and direction is necessary. Project managers need to understand the factors contributing towards effectiveness to enhance the quality of projects (Belassi & Tukel, 1996). Understanding the overall approach of the project is fundamental in solidifying the connections between elements of different dimensions, and applying them to project systems, processes and activities. This programme structure also assists in developing indicators for evaluation and improvement (Coalter, 2006). Furthermore, any development project framework used should incorporate the involvement of, and impact on, the various stakeholders, since their perspectives often determine whether the intervention is in fact effective or not. In meeting all expectations and requirements of various stakeholders, the intervention must be participatory and accountable, while also including effective elements and mechanisms, identified through research and practice, which contribute positively to social change.

Of the development management approaches summarised in Chapter Two, several were participatory and people-centred, while others were built upon conventional results-based approaches with participatory methods added. These approaches were examined with respect to the significant project elements and categories identified through the case study to determine which are most suitable to the SFD context, based on the theoretical information found through the literature review. LFA and RBM both emphasise project specification and management elements, but do consider stakeholders and beneficiaries in the design process (NORAD, 1999; CIDA, 2008). RBM also addresses iterative learning and adaptation (CIDA, 2008), which is important in capacity building, however participatory methods are required for both to address all elements of ‘community’ and ‘inclusivity’.

Moreover, OM outlines an outcome-based framework focusing on behaviour change, supplemented by participatory and learning processes within specific contexts (Earl et al., 2001). Meanwhile, TOC also depicts a clear logical pathway to change that includes stakeholder participation, processes and implementation steps (Anderson, 2003). Both OM and TOC provide a logical programme theory structure in addition to participatory approaches relating to ‘community’ and ‘inclusivity’; however, OM also includes iterative learning principles. Lessons Learned (NCDO, 2007) highlighted that organisations often have difficulty dealing with logical frameworks, in which case a framework that accommodates for local context is needed (Rogers, 2008).

In contrast, PLA, PRA, SLA and AI are known as participatory approaches, therefore providing the community-based perspectives stipulated by the practitioners and donors within the case study. For community development, Kidd (2008) believes that approaches based on local needs and assets are best. PLA and PRA include characteristics similar to ‘community’, ‘inclusivity’ and ‘capacity building’ elements, however do not mention programme theory specifically (IIED, 1998; Chambers, 1994). AI is participative, inclusive, people-centred, and involves learning processes, nonetheless it has generally been applied to organisational settings (Serrat, 2008).

On the other hand, SLA was created specifically for development interventions involving participatory, inclusive and community-based practices for sustainable poverty reduction (Carney, 2002). The framework outlines causes of poverty, as well as the outcomes of interventions on livelihood assets and broader structures and processes within the context, thus illustrating potential change pathways (DFID, 1999). Hence, elements of ‘community’, ‘inclusivity’, ‘structure’, ‘project management’, and ‘project specification’ are included within the SLA framework. Therefore, according to framework theories, OM, TOC and SLA provide both a programme theory pathway and a participatory community-based foundation; however, further review of the practical applications of these frameworks is required to confirm whether they are indeed best-suited to SFD contexts.

Bond (2002) explains that development paradigms, approaches and techniques should fit together harmoniously within interventions, but that the approach does not strictly have to be ‘blueprint’ or ‘process’; it can combine both approaches in various ways to provide further options for programme design, as described in Table 16 (Bond, 1998 cited by Bond, 2002: 428). For instance, logical frameworks and process methods can be used at different times, or for different aspects of a project, such as planning, M&E system, partnership building and stakeholder involvement. Additionally, OM and TOC approaches blend programme theory

with participation and learning processes while focusing on achieving long term change objectives, as do the evaluation programme approaches used by SAD (Levermore, 2011). In fact, many methods and tools specific to SFD are available from the online Toolkit Sport for Development (NCDO, 2008) and other organisations as listed in Comic Relief’s recent research mapping study (Cronin, 2011). Methods can supplement an approach to ensure logical and participatory aspects are balanced. Therefore, the approach selected depends on the specific project context, although using a blended approach may increase the ability to meet various stakeholder expectations while pursuing objectives.

TABLE 16: Combinations of programme design approaches

Combination	Description
Blueprint THEN process	Quick, efficient pre-planned improvement of key services followed by longer-term participatory programme to improve livelihoods.
Process THEN blueprint	Participatory analysis and experimentation to establish local needs and effectiveness responses followed by conventional series of projects to expand impact.
Blueprint/process CONTINUUM	A selection of from both approaches blended to fit the situation.
Blueprint IN process	A process approach to a programme made up of smaller blueprint projects.
Process IN blueprint	A clear, pre-determined programme structure with considerable flexibility as to the means of operationalisation at field level.

Bond (2002) further explains that development professionals need to be aware of stakeholders’ philosophies to determine where interventions can have positive influence, and to fit programme approaches into the organisational culture and objectives. The SFD organisations included in this case study are using participatory, learning and process approaches in their projects, focusing on building personal, social and organisational capacity (Table 9), while also using LFA and RBM tools and techniques as stipulated by their donors’ governments (Knight, 2011; Thachuk, 2010). Dale (2003) explains that development planning should be flexible and focus on stakeholders to avoid limitations or biases of a single approach, especially for participatory and capacity building interventions.

Referring to the project cycle from Chapter Two (Figure 1), the programming and identification phases encompass the selection and definition of approach, techniques, methods and components, with specific planning of activities, output targets and finances being completed within the formulation phase. These phases provide the direction for financing, implementation and evaluation of the project. Furthermore, the project management systems and processes maintain the connections between the project cycle phases, and the progression towards development goals according to the approach adopted.

These connections and interrelations are illustrated in Figure 5. It is fundamental for development project planners to understand the theoretical and practical aspects of programme theory, process approach and project cycle management to ensure SFD interventions are designed with these in alignment for greater efficiency and effectiveness during management and implementation.

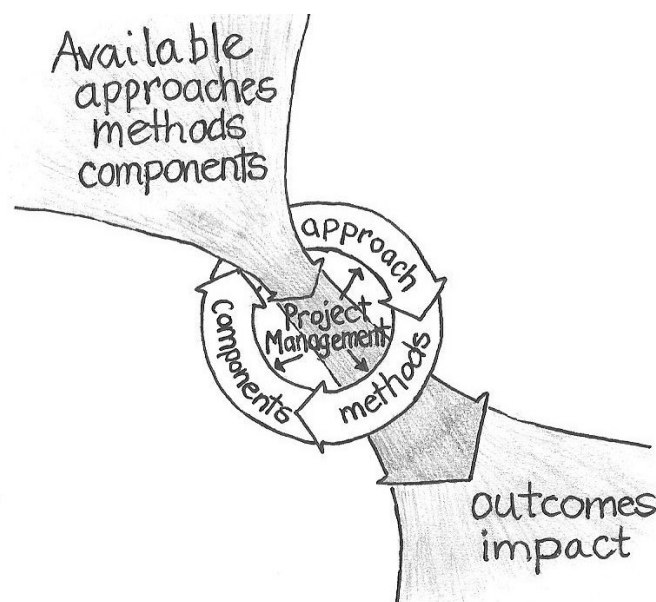


FIGURE 5: Connections between project management and development approach, methods and components

A process approach can enhance active learning, but the logistics of participation, learning mechanisms, and attaining consensus of multiple interests actually require intensive management (Bond, 2002). Additional organisational capacity is needed to implement community-based participatory programmes within decentralised and empowered local structures (Jennings, 2000), again emphasising the importance of organisational components within SFD interventions. With donors and governments holding organisations to account for results, the organisations must develop sound project plans that clearly define their objectives and success indicators (Anderson, 2003). It is important use programme theory to explain the links between the project resources, activities, outputs and objectives for all stakeholders to understand, however, based on the underlying community-based philosophy of SFD interventions, participatory approach and methods are also required to account for the people and relationships involved in the project.

6.5. Conclusion

The discussion determined that dimensions or categories of project elements are more useful in providing guidelines to enhance development effectiveness, and any frameworks used need to incorporate stakeholder views to determine all perspectives of project success. Case study findings indicated that the SFD projects are predominantly based on participatory, inclusive and capacity building philosophies; nonetheless, they also need to include solid programme theories to outline links between approach, methods, components, systems and processes of interventions. Participatory processes and logical frameworks can be combined to better serve the design of individual projects according to contextual conditions. Consequently, organisational capacity becomes vital to balance these multiple factors effectively within project design.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION

7.1. Summary of Findings

The case study explored significant project elements contributing to the effectiveness of SFD projects within the Kicking AIDS Out Network in Southern Africa through the perceptions of practitioners and donors. Between the research findings and the literature presented, it was concluded that the identification of dimensions of effectiveness or success are more important than specific elements or factors. The interviewees identified capacity building, sport, inclusivity, community engagement, youth leadership, structure, additional component, project specification and project management as thematic categories most important in achieving project objectives leading to social change. These categories are similar to success factors identified in SFD literature, and fit into the SFDT, developed by Lyras (2009), thus suggesting that this new framework could provide useful guidance to development workers as they plan and manage SFD interventions.

Additionally, the element categories represent significant factors in achieving social change, according to interviewees, and could provide a starting point for future research into effective mechanisms of SFD. However, further investigation is necessary to determine the applicability of SFDT and across the fields of SFD and SDP, since this research study was limited to projects targeting certain development objectives, implemented within a specific network of organisations, in a set geographical region. Regardless, any framework used should incorporate stakeholders' participation and input to understand their expectations and increase the perception of project effectiveness.

As for project design of SFD interventions, it can be concluded from the findings and literature that stakeholder participation and community engagement are essential aspects in identifying suitable methods and components for the project, and in building ownership and sustainability within the community. The design should ensure proper fit between the programme theory, project objectives, and development approach, methods and components included in the management and implementation of projects. The alignment of these aspects assists in providing foundation for M&E systems and components, and in evaluating relevant indicators to furnish evidence of effectiveness and mechanisms of SFD projects. Further investigation into approaches blending logical and participatory frameworks could provide insight into optimising a balanced approach. Nevertheless, selecting an appropriate

development approach, or combination of approaches, depends on the project context and stakeholder philosophies.

According to the case study, community-based SFD projects should include participatory learning approaches, with methods and components that emphasise inclusivity, capacity building and governing structures, and involve stakeholders throughout the project management cycle. Sport, as a delivery method, should align with these principles to promote inclusivity, participation, leadership and structure. Accomplishing proper project design requires significant organisational capacity to understand development programme theory and processes; to give direction and guidance in employing programmatic and project approaches and methods; and to subsequently support project management and capacity development of all staff and youth leaders involved to implement the project effectively.

7.2. Recommendations for Future Application and Research

The findings highlighted a strong trend towards the essential incorporation of participatory and community-based development approaches and methods within the SFD interventions. Such approaches are also advocated in the literature and by SADC development policies, which raises the question of the generalisation of these approaches on a global scale within the context of SFD. Sport has become a popular development method due to its perceived ability to attract diverse groups of people, to encourage participation, and to foster social cohesion and unity within communities. Perhaps community-based development research, theory and practice should be explored to uplift the theoretical basis of SFD interventions, and to provide development workers with further knowledge and tools to enhance participatory and inclusive development practices in communities, or as Eyben (2011: 30) states: “...to switch from thinking about the world as a *noun* to understanding it as a *verb*.”

Consequently, how does the emphasis on participatory and community-based approaches by implementing organisations factor into government aid requirements for effective projects and concrete results? With the increasing promotion of using sport within national and international development programmes, it seems important for SFD practitioners, donors and researchers to cooperate in ensuring larger development organisations and institutions comprehend the underpinnings of SFD approaches and methods, and the essential functions of participation and community involvement in all stages of project management.

The ability to ensure optimal fit between approaches, methods and components when designing SFD projects will depend on the flexibility of the development planning and reporting frameworks used by governments, institutions, and donor organisations, and on the capacity of the project planners to find an effective balance between achieving and accounting for tangible results, and involving all stakeholders in the development process.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Sport for Development Theory Framework

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APPENDIX 1: Sport for Development Theory Framework (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011:4)

Sport-for-development theory's components of effective sport-for-development (SFD) policy, programme development and implementation (Lyras, 2007).

Impacts assessment	Organisational	Sport	Educational	Cultural enrichment
Apply scientific monitoring and evaluation methodology (validated instruments, detached data analysis and objective interpretation)	Increase social capital through ongoing training of all engaged stakeholders	Apply sport practices based on moral values and principles (existence of vision and philosophy)	Create child-oriented conditions for positive learning experiences	Enrich sport intervention curricula with cultural activities (e.g., arts, music, dance, theatre, poetry, short movie making)
Assess the impact of SFD programmes and policy across time and space	Build the capacity of and empower local stakeholders based on their needs and unique potential	Create inclusive mixed teams (ethnicity, gender, competence level)	Create reward system to reinforce positive attitudes, thoughts and behaviours (Social Cognitive Theory, role playing, cognitive and behavioural approaches, positive role models)	Apply multidisciplinary framework with global and local issues (e.g., human rights, global environment, international relations, peace and cross-cultural understanding, technological literacy)
Utilise mixed methods approach and collect data from multiple sources of information (triangulation, reports, pre-post questionnaires, audiovisual data, journals, focus groups)	Foster an inclusive, collaborative environment (e.g., inter-group contact principles: equal status, potential friendship, common goals, institutional support, intergroup corporation)	Merge traditional with non-traditional sports and physical activities (e.g., soccer, treasure hunt, martial arts)	Facilitate conditions for optimal engagement in every sport and non-sport activity (flow and peak experiences)	Make mental and practical associations between sports and real life experiences (e.g., human rights, environmental issues, community-based initiatives, life skills, spirituality)
Assess organisational components and identify attributes that leverage positive outcomes	Promote the development of innovative SFD programmes, products, and services (changes within)	Provide a variety of sport and physical activities to attract and sustain a more representative population	Use real life sport and non-sport challenges to achieve educational objectives (Constructivist Pedagogy and Problem-Based Learning)	Create clusters to initiate community based creative engagement and participation (e.g., community-based sport and non-sport initiatives)
Identify organisational components that hinder positive change and development	Facilitate transformational leadership	Utilise the principles of the educational component (Sport-for-Development Theory)	Create groups with similar interests	Utilise Olympism as a framework of inclusion, inspiration and engagement
Identify and assess SFD related social, psychological and societal indicators	Ensure sustainable resources and institutionalise innovative organisational culture	Encourage coaches and instructors to serve as educators, positive role models and agents of positive change	Empower individuals by assigning preference and interest based roles	Create positive entertaining experiences and facilitate innovation and outreach
Apply research ethics at all stages and respect local sensitivities (conflict, political complexity and implications)	Build local and global platforms to establish synergies with local and international SFD stakeholders (e.g., universities, NGOs, policymakers, practitioners) Utilise inclusive decision making to promote individual and collective actions	Facilitate conditions for optimal engagement (flow and peak experiences) by keeping a balance between skills and challenge	Promote empathy, care, and creative thoughts and actions in every sport and non-sport activity	Embrace local culture and promote global perspective and appreciation

APPENDIX 2: Case Study Interview Questions

Semi-Structured Interview Questions

1. What is your role within your organisation?
2. When was your organisation established?
3. How long have you been involved in Sport for Development projects?
4. Focusing on your current project(s), what are the overall objectives that are related to social change?
5. What 4 elements of the project(s) are most important in achieving the objectives related to social change? (These can include: What components are included in the project? How is the project run? Who is involved in the project?)
6. Please rank the elements in order of importance.
7. Why are these elements important? How do they contribute to the objectives?
8. Are these elements unique to Sport for Development projects? Which ones?
9. How are these elements used or implemented in the project(s)? (i.e. when and how often, which people involved or responsible, in relation to other elements)
10. How are the elements monitored or measured during the project?

APPENDIX 3: Project Elements Table (per interviewee)

Total number elements 47

Ranking	1	2	3	4
Points	4	3	2	1

Categories

Project Specifications	Sports	Inclusive approach
Project Management	Youth Leaders	Community approach
Capacity Building	Added components	
Structures		

d/p =donor/ practitioner

	p	p	d	p	p	d	p	p	d	p	p	p
Ranking	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	J	K	L	M
1	local vols	life skills training	safe enviro	HIV/AIDS awareness	sports	youth involvement	skills	ambassador training	community-based response	specific objectives	community vols	training workshops
2	programme design	sports	quality sports programmes	female participation	sport structures, tourn, leagues	integration into community	behaviour (leaders, participation)	sports days	strong partnerships-local ownership	scope	community engagement	tourns, league games
3	programme delivery	clean up campaigns	sport structure/ systems	gender balancing in sport & leadership	KAO concept	quality sports experience	knowledge	mini-leagues	inclusive strategies	time frame	trained programme staff	school sponsorship
4	funding	traditional dance/ drama	youth leadership devt & recognition	football training for girls	training & capacity building		attitudes	community/enviro awareness days	reflection & accountability	resources	funding	exchange programmes

APPENDIX 4: Project Elements and Categories Rankings Sheet

Category	Elements	Ranking Points	Combined Points	Element Ranking	Category Points	Category Ranking		
Project Specifications	programme design	3	12	2	15	4		
	specific objectives	4						
	scope	3						
	time frame	2						
	resources	1	1	18				
	funding	1	2	14				
	funding	1						
Project Management	programme delivery & accountability	2	2	14	5	9		
	trained programme staff	2	2	14				
	reflection & accountability for learning	1	1	18				
Capacity Building	life skills training	4	19	1	27	1		
	training & capacity building	1						
	ambassador training	4						
	training workshops	4						
	skills	4						
	KAO concept	2						
	knowledge	2	7	7				
	attitudes	1						
	HIV/AIDS awareness	4						
	exchange programmes	1					1	18
Structure	sport structures/ systems	2	5	8	10	7		
	sport structures, tours, leagues	3						
	mini leagues	2	5	8				
	tourn and league games	3						
Sport	sports	4	11	5	16	2		
	sports	3						
	sports days	3						
	football training for girls	1	5	8				
	quality sports programmes	3						
	quality sports experience	2						
Youth Leadership	local volunteers	4	12	2	12	6		
	community volunteers	4						
	behaviour- participation, leaders	3						
	youth leadership devt & recognition	1						
Additional component	school sponsorship	2	2	14	6	8		
	clean up campaign	2	3	12				
	comm/ enviro awareness days	1						
	traditional dance/ drama	1	1	18				
Inclusive Approach	provide safe environment	4	4	11	16	2		
	youth involvement	4	12	2				
	female participation	3						
	gender balancing in sport & leadership	3						
	inclusive strategies	2						
Community Approach	community-based response	4	10	6	13	5		
	integration into community	3						
	community engagement	3						
	strong partnerships- local ownership	3	3	12				