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Evaluation protocol: Netball to promote physical and mental health in Samoa and Tonga

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BACKGROUND

Evaluation Rationale

It is widely accepted that physical activity has health benefits and that it is a critical component of addressing the global emergence of non-communicable diseases.¹ This may be particularly pertinent in Samoa and Tonga where almost 50% of adults are insufficiently active,² the prevalence of overweight is among the highest in the world (i.e. >80%)³,⁴ and the costs of related non-communicable diseases are escalating.⁵ However, the promotion of physical activity may also have broader implications in Samoa and Tonga. Specifically, there is growing evidence that physical activity participation can prevent mental illness (e.g. depression) and is associated with mental well-being (e.g. happiness).⁶,⁷ It is also evident that mental health may be an important mediating factor for preventing early mortality due to non-communicable diseases.⁸ Despite a paucity of data on the mental health needs of Pacific Island Countries, suicide rates are higher than the global average, suggesting that mental illnesses may be prevalent.⁹,¹⁰ Consequently, addressing this apparent mental health need through physical activity interventions may also play an important role in reducing the burden of non-communicable diseases in Samoa and Tonga.

Increasing physical activity and preventing non-communicable diseases are stated objectives of the One Netball Pacific program in Samoa and Tonga.¹¹ These programs commenced in 2009 in Samoa and 2011 in Tonga and have received ongoing strategic and resource support from Netball Australia, enabled through Pacific Sports Partnership funding.¹¹ Despite concurrent qualitative evaluation of program delivery, there has been limited quantitative evaluation of intervention processes or its impact on netball participation, physical activity levels and other health-related indicators.¹¹ Furthermore, we are not aware of any published evaluations assessing the impact of netball participation on body composition, mental well-being or the subsequent reduced risk of other non-communicable diseases.

The purpose of this evaluation is to address a gap between current practice and existing evidence in the sport-for-development sector. Despite pervasive positive rhetoric about the health implications of sport programs that continues to attract ongoing international investment, the evidence base remains limited.¹²

Keywords: Physical activity, Sport, Health, Well-being, Pacific Islands
Therefore, we aim to conduct a process and impact evaluation of the One Netball Pacific program in Samoa and Tonga. Specifically, we aim to assess the organisational objectives of “creating more opportunities for women and girls to take part in physical activity through netball” to “improve health-related behaviours” and “reduce the impact of non-communicable diseases in these communities”.

Evaluation Objectives

To assess the delivery and reach of One Netball Pacific programs and its impact on program registrant: netball access; netball participation; recreational physical activity; body composition; mental well-being.

METHODS

Intervention

The overall objectives of the netball programs in Samoa and Tonga are to build local governance capacity, provide leadership opportunities for women and sustainably increase recreational physical activity to improve health across all age-groups. We propose to focus on the health-related objectives and evaluate two components of the programs being delivered for adults:

Social Mixed Netball

The Social Mixed Netball League is known as “Business House” in Samoa and the “Corporate Cup” or “Fiefa” in Tonga. Despite minor differences between countries, it typically comprises two or three playing “seasons” each year that go for six to ten weeks and are conducted in the major towns of Samoa (Apia) and Tonga (Nuku’alofa). Groups of individuals representing local organisations self-select 12 team members and then voluntarily register to participate in a netball league that welcomes all genders. Previous iterations have often been over-subscribed with approximately twice as many teams registering as places available in the competition. Selection of the participating teams in each “season” is decided on a “first-come, first-served” basis and the number of teams included is determined by locally available infrastructure and resources. Participation in the Social Mixed Netball League typically involves:

- Separating the selected teams into two equal-sized pools;
- One or two games of organised netball per week for each team at a central location (30minutes/game);
- Additional voluntary training sessions that are self-organised.

(Note: Social Mixed teams typically comprise people with mixed abilities representing local workplaces).

Grassroots Netball Development

The local netball federations have adopted a multi-faceted program approach for promoting netball participation by adults throughout Samoa and Tonga. Grassroots Netball Development typically includes:

- Providing equipment that enables communities to participate in recreational netball;
- Delivering coach, player and administrator development workshops designed to build capacity and encourage local autonomy for promoting sustained netball participation;
- Organising mass participation short tournaments/carnivals (e.g. one-day competition) that attract participants from multiple villages to a central location for playing and promoting netball;
- Facilitating a home & away netball series where teams from several neighbouring villages play one game against each other at home and one game away;
- Supporting club netball series where registered clubs are graded and compete against each other.

(Note: The tournaments / carnivals, home & away series and club netball series typically cater for all genders and include both open and senior age categories. In Tonga, the senior category is known as “Over 35” and only includes participants whose age or body mass index are higher than 35).

The proposed actions, outputs, impacts and outcomes of the Social Mixed Netball League and the Grassroots Netball Development program are consistent with a published theoretical framework for sport-for-development programs. Although there is some overlap with the stated objectives of governance and empowerment, we have developed a logic model that focuses on the health-related outcomes (Figure 1).
Evaluation Design

Social Mixed Netball League (Figure 2)

The oversubscription of registered teams provides an opportunity to conduct a natural experiment. The first teams to register will be allocated to the intervention group until local infrastructure and resource capacity is reached. All subsequent teams that register will be wait-listed and given priority entry to the subsequent “season”. All adults in the registered teams will have their netball access, netball participation, recreational physical activity, body composition and mental well-being assessed before and after the program. Further follow-up assessment will occur after a six-week “wash-out” period. We will also conduct a parallel process evaluation for intervention delivery and reach in the participating teams.

Figure 2 - Evaluation design for the Social Mixed Netball League in each country
Grassroots Netball Development (Figure 3)

We will conduct periodic monitoring in an evaluation of multiple intervention communities. Six communities targeted by the Grassroots Netball Development program in each of Samoa and Tonga will be identified. People from each of these communities will have their netball access, netball participation, recreational physical activity, body composition and mental well-being assessed at 12-month intervals. We will also conduct a parallel process evaluation of intervention delivery and reach in each of the communities. Small focus group discussions with community representatives and semi-structured interviews with program personnel will be conducted in parallel at 12 monthly intervals to further substantiate these process indicators and triangulate the quantitative data.

Target Population

Despite different intervention recruitment procedures the target population is consistent for both the Social Mixed Netball League and the Grassroots Netball Development program.

Inclusion criteria:
- Adults (aged older than 18 years);
- Eligible to participate in the netball programs;
- (NOTE: Participation in the “Over 35” programs requires an age or body mass index higher than 35).

Exclusion criteria:
- Professional advice against vigorous-intensity physical activity due to health contraindications;
- Diagnosed severe mental illness.

Sample Size and Selection

All sample size and selection procedures will be determined by pragmatic considerations of program structure and capacity. The following calculations provide guidance and a recruitment target.

Social Mixed Netball League

The required sample size (n=392 per country) was calculated using relevant physical activity data from a previous validation study of the selected metric and by applying a standard formula based on: a normal distribution (z); probability of type I error (α=0.05); probability of type II error (β=0.20); estimated standard deviation (σ=52.96 mins/day)15; expected effect size (δ=15.00 mins/day). To allow for approximately 15% attrition, all members of first 20 teams in the intervention group (n=240 per country) and all members of the first 20 wait-listed teams (n=240 per country) will be included in the evaluation.

Grassroots Netball Development

The required sample size (n=146 per country) was calculated using relevant physical activity data from a previous validation study of the selected metric and applying a standard formula based on the following factors: a normal distribution (z); probability of type I error (α=0.05); probability of type II error (β=0.20); estimated standard deviation of within-group change (σ=64.60 mins/day)16; expected effect size (δ=15.00 mins/day). To allow for approximately 15% attrition, a convenience sample of 30 people will be selected from

![Figure 3 - Evaluation design for the Grassroots Netball Development program in each country](https://example.com/figure3.png)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Baseline</th>
<th>Program Delivery (12 months)</th>
<th>Follow-up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assessment 1 (Netball Access)</td>
<td><strong>Intervention</strong></td>
<td><strong>Intervention</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Netball Participation)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Physical Activity)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Body Composition)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mental Well-Being)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment 2 (Netball Access)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Netball Participation)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Physical Activity)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Body Composition)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mental Well-Being)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Qualitative Data)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Netball Access)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Netball Participation)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Physical Activity)</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Body Composition)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mental Well-Being)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Qualitative Data)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Denotes community included in the evaluation
Each of the six participating communities (n=180 per country) for quantitative data collection. Study participants will be the same people at each assessment period. The participating communities will be selected based on previous engagement with the national netball federations and agreement from village elders and leaders to participate in the evaluation. Additionally, qualitative assessment of a purposeful sample of program participants, coaches, umpires, staff and other stakeholders from the national netball federations will be conducted until data saturation is reached.

Outcomes

The primary and secondary outcomes are consistent for both the Social Mixed Netball League and the Grassroots Netball Development program. The primary outcomes are netball access and netball participation. The secondary outcomes are recreational physical activity, body composition and mental well-being.

Data Collection Procedures (Quantitative)

Researchers from the University of Sydney will collaborate with health workers and train a local evaluation team in both Samoa and Tonga to collect the necessary quantitative data. These results will be recorded using iPads in the order outlined below and automatically uploaded to a central database. The survey items will be translated into the local language to facilitate communication and delivered in the form of an interview. Prior to commencing data collection, the interviewer will explain the purpose of the evaluation to the participant and then answer any questions before obtaining their informed consent to proceed.

The local evaluation team will use the same measurement tools to collect demographic data and results for the primary and secondary outcomes at all time points for both the Social Mixed Netball League and the Grassroots Netball Development program.

Data will be collected individually and commence with the following identification and demographic information:
- Full name (anonymised to program implementers and data analysts);
- Gender (male / female / other Samoa: fa’afafine, Tonga: leitis);
- Age (years);
- Village of residence (including postcode if available);
- Highest completed education level (none / primary school / secondary school / university degree);
- Main work status in past 12 months (government / private sector / non-government organisation / self-employed / non-paid volunteer / student / homemaker / retired / unemployed).

The survey items used to collect data on each of the outcome measures have been derived from various sources (Table 1).

### Table 1 – Survey items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey items to assess netball access</th>
<th>Please indicate your access to netball over the last two weeks.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Is there space to play netball in your local area?</td>
<td>YES NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 What netball activities have you participated in during the last year?</td>
<td>BUSINESS HOUSE NETBALL LEAGUE (Samoa) /CORPORATE CUP or FIEFIA (Tonga) SHORT NETBALL TOURNAMENT / CARNIVAL HOME &amp; AWAY NETBALL SERIES CLUB NETBALL SERIES NETBALL TRAINING SOCIAL PLAY COACHING / UMPIRE / ADMINISTRATOR WORKSHOPS OTHER (Describe: _________) NONE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 How do you usually get to where you play netball?</td>
<td>WALK / RUN BICYCLE PERSONAL VEHICLE (SCOOTER / CAR / TRUCK) BUS OTHER (Describe: _________) NOT APPLICABLE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 – Survey items (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1.4</th>
<th>How long does it take you to get to where you play netball?</th>
<th>&lt; 5 MINUTES 5-9 MINUTES 10-14 MINUTES 15-19 MINUTES 20-24 MINUTES 25-29 MINUTES ≥ 30 MINUTES NOT APPLICABLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>How supportive are the following people of you playing netball?</td>
<td>Very unsupportive Unsupportive Neutral Supportive Very supportive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Village elders</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Local community</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Family (people who live with you)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Friends</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>School</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Church</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>How confident are you that members of your community can independently organise netball activities?</td>
<td>VERY CONFIDENT CONFIDENT NEUTRAL DOUBTFUL VERY DOUBTFUL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Survey items to assess netball participation

Please indicate your netball participation over the last two weeks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2.1</th>
<th>How many times per week do you usually play netball (including competition, practice and social play)?</th>
<th>LESS THAN ONCE PER WEEK (go to 2.1A) 1 (go to 2.1A) 2 (go to 2.1A) 3 (go to 2.1A) 4 (go to 2.1A) 5 (go to 2.1A) 6 (go to 2.1A) 7 (go to 2.1A) MORE THAN DAILY (go to 2.1A)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1 A</td>
<td>Is this a baseline or follow-up assessment? <em>(NOTE: Question answered by interviewer)</em></td>
<td>BASELINE (go to 2.3) FOLLOW-UP (go to 2.1B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 B</td>
<td>Is this evaluation for the Business House Netball League (Samoa) / Corporate Cup or Fiefia (Tonga)? <em>(NOTE: Question answered by interviewer)</em></td>
<td>YES (go to 2.2A) NO (go to 2.2B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 A</td>
<td>Compared to 3 months ago are you playing netball...</td>
<td>MUCH MORE (go to 2.3) MORE (go to 2.3) ABOUT THE SAME (go to 2.3) LESS (go to 2.3) MUCH LESS (go to 2.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 B</td>
<td>Compared to this time last year are you playing netball...</td>
<td>MUCH MORE (go to 2.3) MORE (go to 2.3) ABOUT THE SAME (go to 2.3) LESS (go to 2.3) MUCH LESS (go to 2.3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 1 – Survey items (continued)

| 2.3 | Overall, how much do you like netball activities in your community? | DISLIKE A LOT  (go to 2.4) |
|     |                                                            | DISLIKE   (go to 2.4) |
|     |                                                            | NEUTRAL   (go to 2.4) |
|     |                                                            | LIKE       (go to 2.4) |
|     |                                                            | LIKE A LOT  (go to 2.4) |

| 2.4 | Is there anything else about the netball in your community we should know? Please include things you particularly enjoy AND any suggestions for improvement... | (go to 3.1) |

### Survey items to assess mental well-being (WHO-5 Well-Being Index)

*Please indicate how you have been feeling over the last two weeks.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>All of the time</th>
<th>Most of the time</th>
<th>More than half the time</th>
<th>Less than half the time</th>
<th>Some of the time</th>
<th>At no time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1 I have felt cheerful and in good spirits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 I have felt calm and relaxed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 I have felt active and vigorous</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4 I woke up feeling fresh and rested</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5 My daily life has been filled with things that interest me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Single-item happiness measure

*Mark the line at the point that best shows how you have felt in the last two weeks.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4.1 How happy do you feel in general?</th>
<th>Extremely unhappy</th>
<th>Extremely happy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### Survey items to assess recreational physical activity levels (GPAQ)

*Please answer these questions about your physical activity over the last two weeks. Think about sports, fitness and recreational activities (i.e. leisure).*

| 5.1 Do you do any vigorous-intensity sports, fitness or recreational (leisure) activities that cause large increases in breathing or heart rate like running, strenuous sports or weight lifting for at least 10 minutes continuously? | YES  (go to 5.1A) |
|                                                               | NO   (go to 5.2) |
| 5.1A In a typical week, on how many days do you do vigorous-intensity sports, fitness or recreational (leisure) activities? | DAYS: ___  (go to 5.1B) |
| 5.1B How much time do you spend doing vigorous-intensity sports, fitness or recreational activities on a typical day? | HOURS : MINS - ___ : ___  (go to 5.2) |
| 5.2 Do you do any moderate-intensity sports, fitness or recreational (leisure) activities that cause small increases in breathing or heart rate like brisk walking or swimming for at least 10 minutes continuously? | YES  (go to 5.2A) |
|                                                               | NO   (go to body measures) |
| 5.2A In a typical week, on how many days do you do moderate-intensity sports, fitness or recreational (leisure) activities? | DAYS: ___  (go to 5.2B) |
| 5.2B How much time do you spend doing moderate-intensity sports, fitness or recreational activities on a typical day? | HOURS : MINS - ___ : ___  (go to body measures) |
Netball access will be assessed using a series of novel survey items about local capacity to engage in ongoing netball activities. All questions have been developed and piloted in the local communities and are required to be answered (Table 1: survey items 1.1-1.6).

Netball participation will be assessed using a series of novel survey items about playing frequency and comparisons to pre-intervention. The questions have been developed and piloted in the local communities and will vary according to the assessment timing and program component (Table 1: survey items 2.1-2.4).

Mental well-being will be evaluated using the WHO-5 Well-Being Index, which is a globally validated self-report measure. All questions are required to be answered (Table 1: survey items 3.1-3.5).

We will also apply a globally validated one-item happiness measure, which has been modified to include a visual analogue scale to improve discriminating power and reduce gender distortion (Table 1: survey item 4.1). This will subsequently be converted to a score on a linear 100 point scale for analysis.

Recreational physical activity will be assessed using the relevant section of the Global Physical Activity Questionnaire (GPAQ), which is a globally validated self-report measure that has been adapted to the local context in Samoa and Tonga. The questions asked will vary according to the responses provided and minutes of moderate and vigorous intensity recreational physical activity will be calculated for analysis (Table 1: survey items 5.1-5.2).

Body height and weight will be assessed objectively and used to calculate Body Mass Index (BMI) by applying standardised methods previously used in low- and middle-income settings. All measures will be performed by locally trained assessors using consistent apparatus for all participants (i.e. electronic scales, telescopic ruler).

The timing / location of data collection and process indicators will vary according to program component:

**Social Mixed Netball League**

All data will be collected face-to-face by a member of the evaluation team at a location that is convenient for the registered participants (e.g. workplace, training venue, village hall). Arrangements to complete baseline measurements will be made immediately after a team registers for the program. Follow-up measurements can commence immediately after the “season” is complete and will take place at the same location as the baseline assessments.

Process indicators for program delivery and reach will include a weekly record of player participation in games and training. Each team captain will be provided with a weekly template to complete and submit to a member of the local evaluation team who will collate these in a previously established excel spreadsheet.

**Grassroots Netball Development**

All data will be collected face-to-face by a member of the evaluation team at a convenient time and location for the participating members from each community. Arrangements to complete baseline measurements will be made as soon as the evaluation team has been trained. Follow-up measurements will be scheduled at a time that is convenient for the participants and will take place at the same location as the baseline assessments.

Process indicators for program delivery will be recorded throughout the year using previously established excel spreadsheets and collated annually by a member of the local evaluation team. It will include the collection of the following data for each participating community across all age groups:
- Equipment provision (number of netballs and other equipment provided);
- Training workshops (number of participants and types of netball workshops);
- Mass participation tournaments / carnivals (number of participants and tournaments / carnivals);
- Home and away series (number of participants, games and training sessions);
- Club Netball Series (number of registered clubs / players and series / games played).

**Data Collection Procedures (Qualitative)**

A researcher from La Trobe University will lead the semi-structured interviews and small focus group discussions for the Grassroots Netball Development program. All data will be collected face-to-face at a convenient time and location for the participants. Prior to commencing data collection, the interviewer will explain the purpose of the evaluation to the participant and then answer any questions before obtaining their informed consent to proceed. The question framework
addresses issues related to program format, the participating population, delivery successes and implementation challenges.

**Data Analysis and Presentation**

All quantitative data will be scored and cleaned using the same procedures as outlined in relevant previous studies.\(^1\)\(^5\)\(^9\) The unit of analysis will be the individual. Due to contextual differences and anticipated heterogeneity in program implementation, we will initially conduct separate analyses for each country.

(NOTE: If our process indicators indicate that program implementation is consistent in both Samoa and Tonga we will consider conducting subsequent between-country comparisons and pooled analyses that are not described in this protocol).

**Descriptive Statistics**

Descriptive statistics for the Social Mixed Netball League will be grouped according to intervention and wait-list at each time point. For the Grassroots Netball Development program, descriptive statistics will be presented for each community and also pooled at each time point. The sample proportions for gender, village of residence, education level and work status will be calculated and tabulated. The means and 95% confidence intervals for age and each outcome variable will also be calculated and tabulated.

**Baseline Data Analyses**

The means and 95% confidence intervals for each outcome variable at baseline will be used to assess if there are any differences between groups in the Social Mixed Netball League and between communities in the Grassroots Netball Development program. We will also assess if there are any differences at baseline between study completers and those lost to follow-up. Finally, the baseline GPAQ data will be compared to the most recent WHO STEPAQ survey data collected in Samoa (2013) and Tonga (2012) to assess who the netball program is reaching (i.e. recreational physical activity: evaluation sample vs. country norms).

**Impact assessment analyses**

All participants who complete baseline measurements will be included in an intention-to-treat analysis for each outcome. For participants lost to follow-up, we will assume no change from their most recent measurement. All results for the within-group and between-group analyses will be tabulated and the threshold for statistical significance will be \( p < 0.05 \).

The within-group and between-group analyses for the Social Mixed Netball League will be conducted according to intervention vs. control group. We will also conduct further stratified analyses if the process indicators suggest heterogeneity in program delivery and reach for different teams. Stratified analyses may also be conducted according to differences in baseline characteristics (e.g. BMI). The analyses for the Grassroots Netball Development program will be completed for each separate community. We will also pool the results into high and low uptake communities according to the distribution of the collected process indicators and qualitative data for program delivery and reach. Provided the relevant statistical assumptions are met, all within-group changes will be assessed using a paired \( t \)-test and between-group analyses will apply a univariate ANOVA. Crude and standardised effect sizes will also be calculated using a pooled standard deviation. Analyses will be completed for the crude data initially and subsequently adjusted for baseline measures, gender, age, education and/or work status. The adjusted analyses will also allow for clustering according to team and/or community.

The qualitative data will be analysed using a hybrid model of inductive and deductive thematic analysis. Theory from sport-for-development, specifically focussing on the key concepts within a program logic framework will provide the deductive framework for interpreting the collected data and identifying pre-established themes.\(^20\) Themes identified through the inductive qualitative data analysis will be undertaken through a systematic open coding process, including an initial broad read through each interview transcript, a search for new recurring concepts and patterns not previously identified via the deductive coding underpinned by a program logic framework, and then grouping together these new recurring concepts and themes. Data will be organised in NVivo 10 for both inductive and deductive systematic coding.

**Ethical Approval**

This evaluation has been approved by the La Trobe University Human Research Ethics Committee (13-073). Approval to evaluate the One Netball Pacific programs has also been granted by Netball Australia, the national netball federations of Tonga and Samoa, as well as village elders and community leaders of villages/towns included in this evaluation.
DISCUSSION

The proposed evaluation has several strengths and will introduce a new level of rigour to assessing sport-for-development programs that use netball to promote health-related outcomes.12 It is guided by a clearly developed logic model that is consistent with an existing theoretical framework for intervention implementation.13 The proposed methods minimally disrupt program development and are designed to capture quantitative and qualitative data that explains delivery, reach and impact. This mixed methods approach and the use of previously validated measures will improve the external validity of the results.15-19 The proposed analyses will identify the critical program components for promoting netball and recreational physical activity participation in Samoa and Tonga. Consequently, the results of this evaluation will inform best practice for future investment of netball resources locally, but may also have more global implications in the sport-for-development sector.

However, the practical reality of building evaluation into an already existing program introduces methodological limitations. Firstly, training a local data collection team means that the interviewers will not always be blinded to group allocation. Although this builds local capacity and improves feasibility, it may also introduce a reporting bias. Secondly, there is a risk of group contamination as people move between local communities and workplaces. This may dilute the potential program response and compromise participant tracking. Thirdly, the recreational physical activity section of GPAQ has not been validated in isolation from the transport and vocational domains that are part of the complete measurement tool. Although our approach focusses on the survey components relevant to the netball intervention and improves evaluation feasibility by reducing participant burden, it is not known how this will affect comparisons with existing WHO STEPS data. Fourthly, there are several limitations in the sampling procedures. The “first-come, first-served” allocation process for the intervention and wait-list groups in the Social Mixed Netball League may introduce a selection bias that we will attempt to adjust for in the analyses. Furthermore, the absence of a control group for the Grassroots Netball Development program compromises the attribution of causation and this is only partially addressed by our proposed triangulated and stratified analyses. Finally, the self-selection of participants in both program components and the convenience sampling methods utilised for the grassroots netball development evaluation limit the applicability of the evaluation findings to the broader community, but may also be critical for retaining an adequate sample size. Despite these limitations, we have attempted to maintain the most rigorous methods possible within the pragmatic constraints of a real-world program and contribute to the evidence base for evaluation methodology in the sport-for-development sector.

COMPETING INTERESTS

JR, ES, NS, LK and AB declare no financial, personal or professional competing interests. OP currently works for Netball Australia and has provided critical insight into the delivery of One Netball Pacific programs in Samoa and Tonga, but will be excluded from the proposed data collection and analyses.

ORGANISATION CONTRIBUTIONS

The organisational stakeholders in this evaluation and their primary roles are listed below:
1) Netball Australia
   - Secure resources and provide strategic guidance for One Netball Pacific programs with the support of Pacific Sports Partnership funding.
2) Netball Samoa
   - Deliver the One Netball Pacific programs in Samoa.
3) Tonga Netball Association
   - Deliver the One Netball Pacific programs in Tonga.
4) La Trobe University / University of Sydney / University of Technology Sydney
   - Complete an independent evaluation of program delivery and impact.

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www.jsfd.org
Called to serve: Exploring servant leadership in the context of sport-for-development

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ABSTRACT

Servant leaders emphasise the ideal of service and focus on the well-being of followers. To determine how, if at all, the founder and regional coordinators of a non-profit, sport-for-development (SFD) organisation exhibited servant leadership behaviours, 14 semi-structured interviews were conducted. The context for this study was Street Soccer USA (SSUSA), an innovative SFD organisation utilising soccer to help youth and adults overcome homelessness in 22 cities across the U.S. Findings revealed that the founder and regional coordinators of SSUSA, to varying degrees, displayed servant leadership behaviours as perceived by their followers, which align with van Dierendonck’s¹ six dimensions of servant leadership: authenticity, empowering and developing people, humility, interpersonal acceptance, providing direction, and stewardship. Additionally, to undergird SSUSA, the founder and regional coordinators gave primacy to followers’ needs, building and developing relationships with their volunteers and players, demonstrating an attitude of genuine care and concern. Servant leadership might be useful leadership behaviour to implement and guide SFD initiatives.

INTRODUCTION

Non-profit, sport-for-development (SFD) organisations use sport in an attempt to achieve positive impacts on society through assisting marginalised populations, improving public health, and creating intercultural exchange, conflict resolution and peace building.² Most research in SFD has examined impacts of such programmes on various stakeholders.³,⁴,⁵ What has not been examined, however, is leadership in a SFD context. Originally espoused by Greenleaf⁶ in 1977, a servant leader’s primary motive is to serve first as opposed to lead first. Historically, influence has been considered a central component of leadership, but van Dierendonck suggests “servant leadership changes the focus of this influence by emphasising the ideal of service in the leader-follower relationship.”¹ Since SFD is fundamentally about serving others, it could be a context where servant leadership is being practiced. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to explore servant leadership in the context of one SFD organisation called Street Soccer USA (SSUSA). SSUSA is an innovative intervention utilising soccer to help youth and adults overcome homelessness in the United States.

SSUSA initially began in Charlotte, North Carolina and has since expanded to 22 cities, where it collaborates with local social service providers to administer its programming. Soccer is used as the hook to draw individuals to the programme and as trust is built between volunteer coaches and players, players are gradually connected to social service providers for assistance in housing, job attainment, health care, and career and education enhancement. Each city has a regional SSUSA coordinator tasked with developing and administering the SSUSA programme. Volunteer regional coordinators and coaches lead practices and play in matches with the programme’s participants, facilitate de-briefing sessions to discuss issues of importance in the lives of participants, and engage in social activities. We used SSUSA as the backdrop for this exploratory study on servant leadership in SFD, and developed two central research questions:
1) How, if at all, does the founder of SSUSA exhibit servant leadership behaviours?

2) How, if at all, do the regional coordinators of SSUSA exhibit servant leadership behaviours?

Understanding the manifestation of servant leadership in SFD organisations is important from both a theoretical and practical perspective. Servant leadership could be a leadership paradigm useful for understanding leadership within a SFD context, which would have important implications for organisational effectiveness. Practically, servant leadership may be a leadership style that, when employed, helps SFD organisations best achieve positive outcomes for those they aim to serve. For many SFD organisations, including SSUSA, followers would include staff, volunteers, as well as programme participants. In the current study, we focused the investigation on the SSUSA leaders and immediate followers of the founder and regional coordinators – the volunteer regional coordinators and regional site volunteers respectively – who essentially form the volunteer staff of SSUSA.

**Sport-for-Development**

The past two decades have seen a proliferation of SFD organisations across the globe and increased academic interest in the field. SFD initiatives are beginning to demonstrate that if the programmes are designed and managed well, there can be a positive impact on its stakeholders. For instance, research has shown that soccer can help individuals suffering from homelessness increase social capital and reduce social exclusion; and that sport can play a vital role in peace-building efforts and help reduce prejudice. The experience of volunteering in SFD can also increase bonding and bridging social capital for volunteers. The structures and processes that can facilitate positive impact have not been investigated yet to any great extent. In this vein, leadership could be an important process component to examine. Scholars have begun to theorise about structural and process components of SFD initiatives, calling for the bottom-up involvement of participants in programme design and an emphasis on relationship-building, but no studies have investigated leadership in SFD. Leadership could be central in helping to address issues revolving around power, control, and programme implementation as SFD leaders would benefit from being sensitive to global and political forces that shape inequality and how sport contributes to this.

**Servant Leadership**

To help frame the investigation, we drew from the servant leadership paradigm, where leaders are motivated primarily by the purpose of serving others. Servant leadership has been conceptually linked to followers’ autonomy, learning, health and personal growth; it is a form of leadership that focuses on fulfilling followers’ needs to develop, grow, and prosper. Specifically, Greenleaf posits that servant leaders put other individuals’ interests and aspirations above their own. The emphasis on authenticity, humility, interpersonal acceptance and unconditional love is unique to servant leadership.

The majority of servant leadership studies to date have adopted van Dierendonck’s six main dimensions, and we follow suit for this investigation. These dimensions are: authenticity, providing direction, empowering and developing people, humility, interpersonal acceptance and stewardship. Authenticity is expressed when an individual is true to oneself in all facets of life. When servant leaders provide direction to develop and empower people they encourage followers to share, support and coach one another. This then generates a sense of personal power and self-confidence. Servant leaders demonstrate humility through their ability to seek contributions of followers. Together these characteristics build interpersonal acceptance and foster followers’ trust and potential through time and commitment. Stewardship refers to a leader’s desire to act as a care taker and role model, and to support the organisation’s well-being through development and service. As such, servant leaders exhibit this behaviour by putting followers’ needs and interests before their own. Van Dierendonck suggests servant leaders are likely known as role models because the example they set stimulates followers to act in a common interest. Thus, followers of the leader may subsequently display servant behaviours to their followers, which may positively influence the health and success of the organisation. In terms of SSUSA, servant leadership may support and promote the development of regional coordinators and volunteers to serve and achieve organisational objectives.

Although servant leadership research in sport has been sparse, it has become an emerging line of inquiry. Most of this work has applied servant leadership in the coaching context. In general, studies have found that athletes coached by servant leaders experienced higher mental acuity, increased motivation, performed better, and were more satisfied with the leader than athletes coached by non-servant leaders. More recently in the non-profit sport context, researchers found volunteers are initially motivated
to volunteer based on their passion for sport, but servant leaders cultivate long-term volunteer motivation. However, servant leadership has not been investigated in the context of SFD.

**Contrasting Servant, Transformational, and Transactional Leadership**

As servant leadership is an emerging leadership paradigm in academic circles, it may prove useful to differentiate it from Bass’ transactional and transformational leadership theory. Prior to differentiating the three paradigms of leadership, we will first introduce the main tenants of transformational and transactional leadership. Transformational leadership is the process of influencing change in organisational members’ attitudes and assumptions to accomplish organisational objectives. Transformational leaders use commitment and optimism to inspire and motivate followers to solve problems. Four behaviour classifications have been used to describe transformational leaders: (a) idealised influence or charisma, (b) individual consideration, (c) inspirational motivation, and (d) intellectual stimulation. Using these traits, transformational leaders have the ability to connect organisational goals to employee morals.

Transactional leadership is the exchange-based process a leader uses to provide valued rewards for accomplished tasks. Avolio, Bass, and Jung suggest three behavioural characteristics of transactional leaders: contingent reward, and active and passive management-by-exception. Contingent reward initiatives consist of using instructions and incentives to motivate followers. While active management-by-exception behaviours attempt to avoid errors with policy enforcement, passive management-by-exception involves only intervening once standards are not being reached.

Where transactional leaders emphasise exchange of rewards for accomplishments, servant and transformational leaders strive to meet the higher order needs of followers. Even though Farling, Stone and Winston assert servant leaders and transformational leaders similarly raise motivation and morality levels, Sendjaya counters servant leaders increase motivation by satisfying followers’ needs while transformational leaders increase motivation by supporting followers’ self-esteem. Furthermore, Barbuto and Wheeler highlight that servant leaders consider followers’ goals, whereas transformational leaders inspire followers and transactional leaders entice followers with rewards to achieve organisational goals. Although the primary concern of transactional and transformational leadership is on the well-being of the organisation, servant leadership is focused on the well-being of followers within an organisation. Another distinguishing factor between servant, transformational, and transactional leadership is the use of humility and spirituality to drive servanthood. While transformational leaders use individualism and transactional leaders use exchange-based processes to show appreciation and create a sense of pride in the organisation, servant leadership is not merely an act of service; it includes being a servant. Consequently, followers support servant leaders because of their reliability and commitment.

**METHOD**

Qualitative methods are well-suited to exploratory studies, and as such were appropriate for the present study. Semi-structured interviews were chosen as the data collection method in order to gather rich data and allow for both the researchers and study participants to interact in a conversational, nonthreatening format.

**Participants**

The fourteen (N = 14) interview subjects (see Table 1) were the SSUSA founder, regional SSUSA coordinators and volunteer assistants from five cities (two East Coast cities, two Midwest cities, and one West Coast city). Ranging from the first established programme with male and female adult teams (East Coast) to one of the newest programmes with a youth team (Midwest), the SSUSA teams in these cities were purposively selected as they provided a representative sample of the diversity in the SSUSA programme. Once these leaders and coordinators agreed to participate, other followers (e.g., volunteers) reporting to them were sent an invitation to participate. Overall, eight men and six women participated in phone or in-person, semi-structured interviews. Their length of involvement with SSUSA ranged from six months to eight years. Outside of the founder, Lawrence Cann, all other participants were assigned a pseudonym.
Table 1: Interview participants’ demographics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pseudonym Name</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Ethnicity/Race</th>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Experience</th>
<th>Region</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carter</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>Volunteer</td>
<td>7 years</td>
<td>West Coast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nina</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>Volunteer*</td>
<td>1 year</td>
<td>West Coast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erin</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>Volunteer*</td>
<td>6 months</td>
<td>East Coast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jason</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>Volunteer</td>
<td>4 years</td>
<td>East Coast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patrick</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>Regional Coordinator</td>
<td>4 years</td>
<td>East Coast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heather</td>
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<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>Volunteer</td>
<td>1 year</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Val</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>Volunteer</td>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>East Coast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oscar</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>Regional Coordinator</td>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>Midwest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martin</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>Volunteer</td>
<td>6 months</td>
<td>Midwest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samantha</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>Regional Coordinator</td>
<td>6 years</td>
<td>Midwest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ron</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>Regional Coordinator</td>
<td>8 years</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cann+</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>Founder</td>
<td>8 years</td>
<td>East Coast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justin</td>
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<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>Volunteer</td>
<td>6 years</td>
<td>Midwest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lisa</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>Volunteer</td>
<td>6 years</td>
<td>Midwest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: *Supported through a fellowship or grant. +Not a pseudonym

Procedures

Beginning in 2010, the second author became engaged in a partnership with SSUSA. Thus, this study was part of a multi-phased long-term collaboration with SSUSA, so trust between the researchers and SSUSA leaders had been built over time. Having built personal relationships with the SSUSA leaders may have assisted with the mitigation of social desirability bias from the participants. Seven in-person interviews were conducted at the 2013 SSUSA National Cup in New York City (a tournament for SSUSA teams from around the U.S.), while the remaining seven interviews were conducted by phone with participants from teams that did not attend the SSUSA National Cup. Interviews ranged from 25 to 55 minutes in length. The interview protocol included primary questions derived from the leadership and servant leadership literature. For example, questions included “how do you describe [the founder’s] approach to cultivating relationships,” and, “how has [the founder] motivated you to facilitate goal achievement?” In addition, probing questions were asked to gain insight into SSUSA leaders’ experiences. For example, “can you expand on [the founder’s] approach to tasks and rewards?” Followers (volunteers at the regional sites) were asked questions pertaining to the leadership style of the founder or regional coordinators, and the founder and regional coordinators were probed about their own leadership style.

Data Analysis

Each interview was audio recorded, transcribed verbatim, and coded into a priori themes and patterns based on van Dierendonck’s six dimensions. However, the researchers also acknowledged that other themes could be arrived at through a more inductive process allowing for the experiences or processes that became evident in the raw data to inform the analysis. As a result, an open coding process was also performed by the authors.

Data were coded independently by the second author. Following, the first and second authors met three times to review the coding and organise the codes into axial themes. For example, the stewardship theme was formed with the collapsing of the following three codes: example, modelling and offering (see Table 2 for a depiction of the
coding scheme). The open codes generated through the inductive coding process were particularly salient in constructing the additional axial theme of building relationships and caring for followers. This analysis tactic served to increase credibility and dependability as the themes were affirmed, challenged and then confirmed.33 To ensure theoretical saturation or information redundancy,19 the authors confirmed interpretations through an audit of the raw data and made notes while the data were gathered and analysed.19 Data saturation occurred when themes drawn from the personal interviews began to reinforce each other and no new themes emerged.34 Then, selective coding was conducted where the authors identified quotations that best represented the themes.18 Member checks16 were utilised where participants reviewed their transcripts and the authors’ interpretations; in general, the participants agreed with the interpretations.

**FINDINGS**

Findings reveal that the founder and regional coordinators, to varying degrees, exhibited servant leadership behaviours although certainly not in all cases. An additional theme that emerged was that the founder and regional coordinators laid the foundation for servant leadership by focusing concerted effort on building relationships with followers. While the findings are very positive on the whole, we offer a discussion on why this may be the case later in the paper.

**Empowering and Developing People**

The founder and regional coordinators empowered and developed their volunteers and players and all interviewees were deemed by their followers to excel at doing so. In regards to the founder, all study participants spoke about how they perceived him to empower followers. For example, Justin, a volunteer with a Midwest team, shared insight into Cann’s philosophy in developing players: “The whole concept of organising a league around a philosophy of improving folks . . . He wants them to learn they can be effective, have control, and have success.” In addition to players, Cann also empowered volunteers. Erin, a volunteer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2: Coding scheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Example First Order and Open Codes</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develops personal power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develops decision making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourages personal development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeks followers’ contributions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Followers’ interests first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stays in background</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honesty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genuineness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fulfills commitments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safe environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accepting all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeks to understand others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sets expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicates vision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sets goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurture</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
with an East Coast programme, mentioned how Cann worked with SSUSA regional coordinators in developing their teams: “He put the responsibilities on individuals to plant the organisations in the communities, then bring it to life . . . so empowering them in a lot of different ways.” When speaking about his leadership approach, Cann stressed that “I think we do a really good job of helping people stay involved, giving ownership, and not micromanaging . . . There is a lot of empowerment.”

Not only was Cann perceived as empowering and developing people, but the regional coordinators were perceived to do the same by their followers. For instance, Justin spoke about how he perceived his regional coordinator, Samantha, to be focused on developing and empowering players: “She creates opportunities for them to choose and then go on to experience themselves and others in different ways. . . She wants to expand their horizons.” Lisa, a co-worker of Justin’s and a volunteer with the SSUSA team, also commented on how Samantha encouraged and supported players: “She is just very encouraging and consistent with that encouragement to help them develop as people.” Nina, a volunteer with a West Coast team, discussed how her regional coordinator, Ron, empowered her to make decisions: “He tells me what he’d like me to do, but he lets me form my own ideas and we discuss it a lot.” Oscar, a coordinator for a Midwest team, talked about his approach to helping to develop his players: “. . . just trying to be more involved with them like mentoring them and focusing on them. . . I try to empower them to set up the fields for games and give them jobs to do, see how that works.” Martin, who worked for Oscar, spoke about the encouragement Oscar provided to players:

He never puts anyone down. That’s why I think players always return . . . he is always encouraging them to do better. A lot of these kids have never played before, so he compliments them. And I think that is the reason why everyone returns and feels excited and encouraged to play.

With regards to volunteers, Patrick, an East Coast team regional coordinator, discussed his approach to empowerment, “I try to give them freedom to have their own input . . . I like it when people take the initiative, and it is just making sure I am there for support.” Patrick’s approach resonated with Erin, who worked for him: Knowing [Patrick] believes I can do it and gives me the autonomy to have creativity to do it, has been great.” Jason agreed with Erin: “When [Patrick] believes in you it’s empowering and he is empowering in what he says . . . make it happen and if you want to do it, then do it.”

Humility

Study participants spoke about how they perceived Cann to be humble in founding SSUSA and in working with volunteers and players, valuing feedback from others as well as expressing gratitude for everyone’s contributions. Lisa commented on Cann’s receptivity to feedback: “He is constantly open to feedback and ideas and learning from his coaches who did a great thing. . . . He respects everybody’s input and is open to other people having ideas of doing things differently or doing things better.” Others expressed how much gratitude Cann displayed to his volunteer staff, which was a factor in keeping them involved with the programme. Carter, a volunteer with a West Coast team, commented: “He is so thankful for all of the volunteers . . . that sense of gratitude will continue to get volunteers back.” Heather, a SSUSA volunteer with an East Coast team, agreed: “He has the ability to make you feel his passion . . . you just feel his compassion and gratitude for others.”

Interestingly, only one regional coordinator, Samantha, was perceived by her followers as displaying humility. Study participants did not comment on the humility aspect of the three other regional coordinators, who were all men. Lisa described Samantha this way: “She is not loud or boisterous. Just kind of laid back and soft, and she has that quiet charisma. People like her easily and feel comfortable with her.” Justin provided a similar description of Samantha: “She’s very quietly involved with the directing and the coaching . . . she does it in a manner where everyone gets a chance and no one is spotlighted.” Samantha reinforced these comments by saying “I don’t see myself as a big leader. I just give people direction to help themselves out.”

Authenticity

All study participants emphasised how Cann was perceived to be authentic and honest in his leadership and interactions with players and volunteers. Heather thought Cann provided leadership by “just being himself. Taking that time to hear our story, the players’ story, it makes you feel like you matter and it keeps you involved and engaged.” Lisa concurred, explaining Cann’s genuineness: “You can see that he genuinely respects [the players affected by homelessness]. . . . The ability to be genuine . . . has made him successful.” Additionally, Cann emphasised the importance of commitment, another aspect of authenticity: “We’re trying to commit through our commitments . . . people have to trust us and believe we will go the extra mile when needed.” Other SSUSA regional coordinators were perceived as also being authentic. Lisa
commented on the genuineness she perceived that helped Samantha be effective as a leader: “She’s very natural and genuinely likes people . . . They just sense her genuineness, sense themselves as being an equal. . . . She really lives that philosophy in the way she works with people.” Additionally, Carter thought that his regional coordinator, Ron, “was a soldier, with his feet on the ground. He would be at every practice and he was really involved with all of the players and he knew them personally.” Ron also shared that “what feedback I have gotten is that I come across as very genuine . . . I am really authentic and genuine, and I’ve taken that as a compliment.”

**Interpersonal Acceptance**

Study participants perceived Cann to be very strong in interpersonal acceptance. Lisa explained how Cann addressed the players at the National Cup, and his acceptance of them as athletes rather than calling them homeless:

Cann says, ‘You guys are here as athletes, and we’re going to treat you as athletes, as this tournament is about you’. . . . They’re homeless, but he just makes it very clear that he respects and accepts them and that we’re all in this together.

Patrick also perceived Cann as someone who attempts to “provide a safe atmosphere where [the players] feel safe, welcomed, accepted, and comfortable . . . so they can work towards their goals.” Cann reflected that when he first began SSUSA, he was “less interested in band aids and materials things, and more interested in [the persons affected by homelessness] stories and understanding and accepting them without trying to look at them as problems.”

All of the regional coordinators were also perceived as demonstrating high interpersonal acceptance. Martin, who worked for Oscar, talked about how Oscar “shows unconditional love and acceptance to the players. . . . He’ll take them out and do this and that. He makes them feel good.” To reiterate this point, Oscar reflected that “I will walk with them to practice, talk with them for these three blocks one at a time, show acceptance, so they learn to know me and I learn to know them.” Erin thought that Patrick was “able to empathise with them, their situations. You have to have the right heart and build from there.” For his part, Patrick mentioned that “when someone makes a mistake, it’s not about getting bogged down with that. It’s about accepting them and using those great moments and being able to focus on those.”

**Providing Direction**

All study participants perceived that Cann provided direction for SSUSA and the regional coordinators. The regional coordinators and volunteers emphasised that Cann was extraordinary at setting, maintaining, and communicating a vision for SSUSA, as typified by Oscar: “He just really helped and opened up a lot of people’s lives to Street Soccer, and I think everyone sees the same vision as he does, changing peoples’ lives.” All participants agreed that Cann was a “big idea person” (Val) and also that he was very creative and challenging in his ideas, expecting others to be the same, as explained by Ron: “So you realise the wheels are always turning and pushing the envelope forward, so that’s part of staying on your toes and thinking what should be next.”

Cann agreed about being creative and constantly coming up with new ideas, saying that “we have an entrepreneurial, candid spirit and we always try to one up the last year, and keep it exciting.” While the regional coordinators were appreciative of the direction, support, and new ideas Cann provided, Samantha did raise one issue about follow through, which was concerning to her:

*He always has an idea about what goals he wants, but then things change the next year. . . . I always like a lot of his ideas, but then follow through on what the ideas are, that is one thing he struggles with.*

The regional coordinators were also perceived as providing direction, goals, and support for their respective teams, although to a much lesser extent than Cann. Study participants still shared about the coordinators providing direction, but most of the comments about this servant leadership dimension were directed towards Cann. Ron spoke about how he would adapt programmes and strategies based on the individuals with whom he was working to provide customised direction:

*But employing different strategies and techniques to motivate them is knowing that it is not an employer/employee relationship. It is more of a partnership and working with people and trying to push them and respect their personal time and capacity.*

While Patrick provided “goals, leadership, and vision for the programme” (Jason), Patrick learned to make adaptations and tailor his leadership approach to the needs of his followers: “Everyone learns through a different style. So, I adapt to the players, so I can meet them on their level, so it’s a lot of experimenting.” Oscar also provided some direction
for his team, according to Martin: “He is serious about what he is going to do with the team, why he is doing it, where it is going.”

Stewardship

Cann and the regional coordinators were perceived to provide the stewardship and role modelling that inspired and motivated various followers. Cann in particular was perceived as going above and beyond for the organisation, giving much time, energy and dedication to SSUSA as Heather pointed out: “he would give everything to make this organisation successful. . . Lawrence still attacks everything with his heart and compassion for this organisation.” Val agreed, saying that “he gives everything to this organisation and anyone wanting to be a part of it. . . He motivates me by his relentless compassion for the cause.”

Others believed Cann was an excellent role model and led by example to inspire individuals to buy into the SSUSA mission and common cause. Oscar related, “[Cann’s] leadership is through his example of what he’s doing each and every day, through what he did already.” Cann also spoke to the role modelling he tries to provide for players and his volunteers and coordinators: “Whether it is sitting with someone all day at work, or modelling for them how to deal with a jerk on the other side of the window, I have done that for them.”

All of the regional coordinators were also perceived to act as stewards of their respective teams, leading through their passion, energy, dedication and role modelling. For instance, Oscar commented that “I lead by example. . . I feel like a lot of [players] don’t have mentors . . . so we give them that person.” Martin characterised Oscar as “someone who is always offering. He is always like giving, giving, and giving.” Lisa mentioned that Samantha “is very passionate about soccer and very passionate about helping the homeless . . . and she blended those two passions.” Lisa also shared that her Midwest programme was going through some financial difficulty, but that Samantha was loyal to the programme, “determined to regroup and figure out how to best go forward so that we can keep the programme alive.” Additionally, Erin thought that Patrick “is just such a giving individual. His passion for others just radiates in everything that he does. . . He gives his support and entire heart to what he is doing.” When describing why he remained involved with SSUA, Patrick explained: “I’ve really enjoyed helping people. This is what I am meant to do. For over seven years, you just kind of know it is your calling.”

Building Relationships and Caring for Others

In addition to exhibiting behaviours aligned with the six dimensions of servant leadership undergird SSUSA, the founder and regional coordinators were also perceived as giving primacy to followers’ needs, building and developing relationships with their volunteers and players. Every study participant perceived Cann to put followers first; followers believed him to be excellent at building relationships and genuinely caring for, supporting, and nurturing players and volunteers. Patrick shared that “his concept was to build relationships, so the players have a place, community to call their own. . . . He’s made it personal and it really feels like a family.” Carter agreed and also mentioned how Cann supports people: “I think he really takes time to get to know individuals . . . and it makes me want to stay involved and help more and more people.” Cann described his approach to forming SSUSA: “I wanted to engage [the players affected by homelessness] and putting relationships first was the sports model I started this with. Building a relationship first outside of contact through social services leads to better engagement.”

This care for others and focus on relationship building with the players and volunteers was perceived as integral to the approach of each of the regional coordinators. Oscar talked about his mentoring role: “I think they would describe me as like a big brother to them. . . If there’s anything bad happening, I’m always there just to talk.” Martin was able to comment more on Oscar’s approach with the players in building relationships: “He is just there for anybody. He’ll take them out and do this or that . . . and at the same time ask how they are doing.” When asked about his focus with his programme, Patrick shared that “it’s all about relationships. That is the most important thing.” Erin reiterated this: “For [Patrick], he is always most concerned with the relationship he has with his players.” Jason also commented that “[Patrick] does really well building relationships with the players.” Out on the West Coast, Ron was described as someone who “really wants to help the next person” (Carter), while in the Midwest, Justin described Samantha as someone who “connects with them, how are you doing with this, how are you doing with that?” Justin also mentioned that social outings were important to Samantha:

We started getting tickets to the semi pro games on Friday nights, taking players who wanted to go to this soccer facility in [a nearby city] to watch a soccer game, have hot dogs and pop, and do what people do on a Friday night.
Thus, for all of the regional coordinators, as well as the founder, building relationships and caring and nurturing their followers were perceived as central to their leadership.

**DISCUSSION**

The aim of this study was to explore servant leadership in the context of one SFD organisation using soccer as an outreach to persons affected by homelessness in the U.S. By shedding light on leadership in SFD organisations, our inaugural investigation critically extends and integrates SFD and servant leadership literatures, and provides important implications for both theory and practice.

With an emphasis on serving others and developing followers, servant leadership behaviours were found to be a natural fit in this SFD sphere. Since SSUSA works in tandem with local social service agencies in communities with a population who “suffer disproportionately as a result,” servant leadership behaviours could help address the issues revolving around power, control and programme implementation common in SFD. Addressing the power relations in SFD from a leadership perspective, the presence of servant leadership, whose follower-centred focus generates a sense of personal power and self-confidence, empowered individuals within SSUSA to take control of the programme initiatives. By empowering followers in local communities to take ownership of the SSUSA programme, the presence of interpersonal acceptance could create sensitivity to global and political forces that shape inequality. In a broader sense, servant leadership could be important in the SFD context as it may encourage inclusive and culturally-sensitive programme design and implementation. This culturally-sensitive and inclusive programme design and implementation is critical to the long-term sustainability of SFD organisations and initiatives because it addresses the prominent criticisms of how SFDs organisations may employ neo-colonial approaches to implement programmes with little attention to involving local stakeholders. Thus, servant leadership may provide the focus on acceptance and inclusivity necessary to effectively involve local stakeholders and create programmes that are culturally-sensitive and sustainable.

SSUSA was also undergirded by the importance leaders place on building and developing relationships. This genuine care and concern is a fundamental aspect of servant leadership and is possibly vital for non-profit organisational success, as researchers have shown that the strength or quality of relationships between leaders and followers is a critical driver of organisational performance. Indeed, the participants spoke about how this care and emphasis on strong relationships exhibited by Cann, in particular, motivated them to stay involved with SSUSA and give sustained effort towards achieving its mission.

While servant leadership does seem important to SSUSA and a natural fit with its mission, some of its dimensions were found in varying degrees among its regional coordinators. For instance, only the founder and one regional coordinator, a female, were perceived as displaying traits of humility. Through socialisation processes and ideologies, perceptions of humility differ by gender. For example, men compared to women learn to value dominance and individualism as well as behave more arrogantly. If this is the case, male regional coordinators, even though committed to the mission of SSUSA and to helping the participants change their lives, may approach their role through this socialisation lens and embrace parts of the male ego and dominant personalities often found in sports. Given that most if not all of the regional coordinators and volunteers in SSUSA have a sport background in soccer and other sports, the possibility that they have been socialised to display certain male dominant, gendered characteristics is strong. These notions were supported in the descriptions of the regional coordinator, Samantha. While our results support the belief that humility traits differ by gender at the regional coordinator level, we did reveal Cann exhibited humility, which could stem from his endless devotion and passion for the organisation alongside his personal background, where his family lost many possessions including their home due to a fire and had to rely on the good will of others for a span of time. However, as we do not know in any great depth the personal background of the regional coordinators, we cannot claim that Cann’s tragedy earlier in life is the sole factor enabling humility to develop in him more so than in the regional coordinators. It could be a salient reason for his humility, but not the differentiating factor. Further work is necessary to tease out this phenomenon.

Cann was perceived as being adept at providing direction for SSUSA as an entity, however, volunteers at the regional sites did not discuss this servant leadership dimension as much with regards to the regional coordinators. While some regional coordinators were mentioned as providing solid direction, most of the conversation revolving around this dimension centred upon Cann. This could be because Cann is the founder of the organisation and is still very hands-on as a manager and leader, traveling to the regional sites and working closely with not only coordinators but also their volunteers. Site volunteers may then view Cann as the leader of the organisation and see him as more important
than regional coordinators for setting direction. The regional coordinators may also not be inclined to offer strong direction, if they feel this may go against Cann’s wishes or somehow alienate their regional affiliate from the national office.

Participants also perceived a lack of follow-through on goals and planning on the part of SSUSA leaders. The lack of follow through on performance goals may be due to an overwhelming emphasis on service to others rather than on organisational performance. In short, working with and caring for such a unique population may take precedent over achieving other organisational goals. This lack of follow-through may also be indicative of the short life span of many SFD organisations. For instance, it has been noted that a fair number of SFD organisations are not in existence for any great length of time, which could be due to funding challenges, but also leaders who may have passion and a great vision but lack management skills to run the day-to-day operations. Given this, servant leadership may need to be augmented by other leadership styles at various stages of SFD programme design and implementation for these interventions to be most effective and sustainable, following situational leadership theory. Transformational and transactional leadership in particular could also be of benefit to SFD organisations at various stages of the organisational life cycle.

Implications, Limitations, and Future Directions

While we cannot claim that all leaders in SSUSA exhibit servant leadership behaviours, it is apparent that servant leadership behaviour is important in this context. According to the National Center for Charitable Statistics, in 2012 the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) in the U.S. recognised more than 1.4 million not-for-profit organisations, of which, historically, 16% go out of business. Considering SFD organisations, as well as a majority of not-for-profit organisations, rely on volunteers for organisational stability, this study helps illuminate the role of servant leaders in cultivating volunteer sustainability in SFD organisations. While researchers have found SFD volunteers are initially motivated to volunteer based on their passion for sport, servant leaders cultivate long-term volunteer motivation. As such, an important implication of servant leadership for SFD is the significance of building relationships that empower followers and contribute to long-term follower motivation, engagement, and organisational citizenship. Although there are numerous advantages of empowering employees with decision-making power, servant leaders must still be actively involved in the process and support followers. When followers are involved in the decision-making process, servant leaders can humbly engage in moral debates with followers and move the organisation forward. This relationship-building could be central to theorising about effective leadership in SFD, and might be even more important in this context than in others, due to the nature, mission and populations served by SFD organisations where nurture and care are vital.

The present study only focused on servant leadership in the SFD context, as this was deemed appropriate due to its natural alignment with the goals and foci of many SFD organisations discussed earlier. Identifying the prevalence of servant leadership within an SFD organisation is in itself an important contribution. However, as mentioned above and based on situational leadership theory, servant leadership might need to be augmented by other leadership styles, such as transformational and transactional, at various stages of intervention design and implementation for these interventions to be most effective. For instance, the transformational leadership style is associated with a strong vision, charisma and astutely navigating the organisational change process. A SFD leader may need to employ this style in the early stages of programme initiation and development in order to marshal support for the project and guide requisite structural changes that may be necessary to effectively carry out the programme. Further, transactional leadership, where a leader focuses on providing rewards for effort and employs a task focus, may be helpful for providing thefollow through on goals and tasks that may not be the strongest suit for servant leaders, as demonstrated in the present study. A key take-away is that although resources may be limited in SFD organisations, leadership training is needed in order to sustain organisations and to assist in leaders’ development. Consistent with current needs in our society, leadership training particularly in servant leadership, may foster organisations dedicated to serving the needs of employees and other stakeholders.

This study is not without its limitations, which also present opportunities for future research. The results of this research are overwhelmingly positive, but this may not be saying the entire story. Despite our attempt to mitigate social desirability bias as outlined above (e.g., through the use of pseudonyms and disguising the SSUSA affiliate with which participants are associated, and through building trust with participants through a multi-phased, long-term research project), social desirability bias may still have impacted the findings. Study participants may have just portrayed themselves and others as servant leaders because this is what they expected the researchers wanted to hear. In addition, they may have been cautious about being critical of Cann or regional coordinators for fear that there might be...
some negative reprisal if critical comments somehow came to light. While all of the regional coordinators and staff at the regional sites do volunteer their time with SSUSA (only the staff at the national office are paid), they may have been hesitant about sharing more critically due to the perception they could be replaced or removed from their roles. Additionally, study participants are obviously very committed to SSUSA and are likely derive some identity and sense of belonging through the organisation. Thus, they may not wish to portray the organisation negatively in any way. All of this point to the need for future leadership research across SFD organisational contexts and through varied methodologies to address this limitation of the present study.

In terms of additional limitations, the SFD organisation explored here was a single-source, not-for-profit organisation. The evidence, prevalence and relevance of servant leadership may be different in other SFD organisations with different missions and foci. Second, the presence of the humility dimension was limited in this study, which calls for further investigation into the perceived and exhibited characteristics of humility by gender and occupation. Finally, the focus of this study was limited to exploring the presence of servant leadership behaviours in the SFD context. Certainly, a natural progression is to investigate the long-term effectiveness of servant leadership with various SFD initiatives. Specifically, empirical research investigating the effects of servant leadership on various dyad relationships with followers (e.g., staff, volunteers, and programme participants) is warranted. The relationship between servant leadership and participant outcomes such as social capital development, inclusion, job attainment, sustainable housing, and other outcome variables specific to the focal point and mission of a SFD organisation should be examined. In addition, the relationship between servant leadership and outcome variables related to staff and volunteers in the SFD context should be explored, such as affective commitment, effort, satisfaction and turnover intentions. The investigation of leadership in SFD is in its infancy, and as such, there is ample opportunity for scholars to contribute to this endeavour.

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**REFERENCES**


Examining the role of life skills developed through Salvadoran physical education programs on the prevention of youth violence

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ABSTRACT

El Salvador has the second largest homicide rate in the world and young males commit the majority of these homicides. Designing and implementing active learning education solutions to counter youth violence in El Salvador at an early age have been identified as effective intervention strategies. This study examined the link between aggressive behaviours and life skills development among Salvadoran school children and the potential role that physical education plays in the prevention of youth violence. A mixed-methods longitudinal design over a three year period was used to examine the development of life skills and aggressive behaviours amongst boys and girls attending schools that had PE teachers trained on the use of a life skills based approach to PE. Longitudinal results presented here highlighted that school-based physical education can help to foster healthy behaviours around life skills and aggressive behaviours, particularly for boys. Interviews with students, teachers, and school directors highlight the unique role that physical education can play in developing life skills and applying them. Results from this study suggest the need for targeted physical education interventions that adopt a life skills-based approach.

BACKGROUND

El Salvador is estimated at 92.3 homicides per 100,000 youth, which is three times higher than the domestic homicide rate amongst adults.¹ Mortality rates for children and youth under the age of 25 cite intentional injuries as cause of death in 35% of cases. Shockingly, 50% of all deaths reported for males under the age of 25 were due to intentional injuries compared to 22% for females in the same age group.²

To date, El Salvador has yet to find a sustainable solution for its youth violence crisis. Punitive actions such as arresting individuals with tattoos who are suspected of being gang members as part of the government’s “mano dura” or “iron fist” approach³ and most recently declaring gang members terrorists⁴ have not reduced the violence. Although a truce between the rivaling Mara Salvatrucha 13 (MS13) and Barrio 18 gangs resulted in a temporary decline in the homicide rate, the truce barely lasted a year and violence rates as of August 2015 reached their highest levels since the civil war with an average of 30 murders per day.⁵

Finding a sustainable solution to El Salvador’s youth violence issue is of critical importance given that targeting the prevention of aggression at a young age particularly for boys is critical to the prevention of more violent behaviours later into adolescence and adulthood.⁶ According to the World Health Organization, “…poor social skills, low academic achievement, impulsiveness, trucancy, and poverty are among factors that fuel youth violence” and “…most violence appears to erupt in youths who have been aggressive early in life.”⁷ Effective education programs delivered by trained teachers in local schools
have been identified as one of the most effective and sustainable strategies to combat these factors and reduce youth violence.

One of the educational solutions that has been suggested to help combat youth violence is the development of life skills. The World Health Organization has defined life skills as: “…abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life.” They go on to highlight that “… interventional for developing life skills can help young people to avoid violence, by improving their social and emotional competencies, [and] teaching them to deal effectively and non-violently with conflict.” Embedding life skills into existing curricula can help children and youth to “… learn self-protection, ways to recognize perilous situations, cope with and solve problems, make decisions and develop self-awareness and self-esteem.” Ekholm conducted a systematic review of 38 peer reviewed international articles examining the relationship between sport participation and crime prevention, which supports these outcomes. He concluded that when sport adopts a social change-model of crime prevention by focusing on the educational and moral values that sport can offer, it is much more effective than competitively-oriented methods of sport delivery. However, the majority of Salvadoran children and youth leave the education system without the physical, social or cognitive skills necessary to make healthy choices particularly with respect to non-violent conflict resolution. Previous research has suggested that intentionally teaching life skills through an educational context can be an effective way for young people to apply positive life skills on a day-to-day basis.

A quality physical education (PE) program has been identified as an important curriculum subject area that can directly influence the development of life skills in children and youth. In recent policy statements, UNESCO highlighted that a quality PE program plays an integral role in the development of life skills and the prevention of youth violence. This is supported by previous research that has highlighted the effectiveness of using sport and physical activity as an effective approach to learn life skills when behavioural changes through the development of life skills are the focus of the program. Learning life skills through sport during adolescence has also been shown to have a long-lasting impact upon individuals well into adulthood.

Learning life skills through physical activity is supported by Don Hellison’s Teaching Personal and Social Responsibility (TPSR) model. Hellison’s working theory as he describes it outlines a number of components that can be fostered through participant-centered pedagogical approaches. These components include life skills such as self-control, conflict resolution, getting along with others, goal setting, caring and compassion, etc. Hellison’s TPSR model is particularly relevant to this study because it has been demonstrated to be a highly effective pedagogical approach to fostering the development of life skills with youth at risk. For example, Caballero-Blanco found evidence supporting the role of TPSR in reducing youth violence in programs run in the United States and Spain.

Despite the evidence surrounding the potential of physical activity programs on the development of life skills, there is a paucity of research particularly within schools of the role of PE on the development of life skills and its connection to the prevention of youth violence. Conducting research to determine the effectiveness of evidence-based strategies for Central America is critical given the paucity of research that has examined cost effective and sustainable youth violence prevention initiatives in the region. The World Bank estimates that a 10% reduction in crime in El Salvador would result in a 1% growth in the economy. Given that 85% of children who register in Grade One reach the last year of Elementary School and 64% of youth attend Secondary School, schools are the one place in Salvadoran society that can reach the majority of children and youth. Although somewhat limited, the growing body of literature presented previously (both empirical and theoretical) suggests that school-based PE can play an important role in the development of life skills, which in turn help to prevent youth violence. This study hypothesized that when trained teachers deliver PE programs with previous life-skills education training rooted in TPSR, PE can be a viable solution to violence prevention.

METHODS

The study tracked recent graduates of a PE profesorado program in El Salvador following their completion of the three-year program and their employment as PE teachers in local schools throughout El Salvador. The PE profesorado program integrated Hellison’s TPSR approach of teaching life skills and values through physical activities. This humanistic and student-centred approach to teaching PE uses the activity as a vehicle through which life skills are intentionally taught. It has been previously used successfully with inner-city youth as an effective pedagogical approach to address youth violence. Previously published research that tracked pre-service teachers in El Salvador demonstrated that upon graduation,
they had developed both the confidence and competence to deliver a PE program rooted in the TPSR approach. The graduates of this PE profesorado program were the in-service PE teachers in this study.\textsuperscript{22, 23}

A mixed-methods longitudinal design was used to test the hypothesis regarding the role of PE on the prevention of youth violence. The design was used to examine if there were any changes in the adoption of life skills and pro-social behaviours over time (i.e. quantitative data) and to understand what may (or may not) be contributing to any changes (or lack of change) over this time period (i.e. qualitative data). Following local research protocols in El Salvador, informed consent for the students to participate in the study was provided by the director at each school. At the time of the data collection, the standard research practice in El Salvador authorized school directors (principals) to provide third party consent for students at their school to participate in a research study. Each principal/director “signed off” that they were in fact authorized to provide such consent in their informed consent to participate in the study. Teachers who participated in the study also provided informed consent for themselves. Due to the absence of a formal Research Ethics Review Board at the local Ministry-approved partner University in El Salvador at the time, a Research Ethics Board at a mid-sized comprehensive University located in Ontario, Canada initially approved the research protocols. The ethics application was approved following consultation with research affiliates and senior university administrators in El Salvador who have extensive experiences conducting research in school settings within the country. The Scientific Committee of a private University located in San Salvador, El Salvador subsequently approved all research protocols. In the absence of a research ethics protocol locally that mirrors the standard practice in the researchers’ home universities in developed nations, great attention was paid in this study to ensuring the goals of a research ethics process were met, that is, protection of the subjects of the study as well as the scientific integrity of study and its results. All data was collected by a team of Salvadoran researchers hired by Pedagógica University in San Salvador and supervised by both the lead author and the Senior Research Scientist at Pedagógica University (the third author).

**Questionnaire**

A 54-item questionnaire was developed using selected items taken directly from a recommended bank of instruments that were included in the Center for Disease Control’s [CDC, 24] report on Measuring Violence-Related Attitudes, Behaviours and Influences among Youths. The compendium of questionnaires included in the CDC’s publication had been previously used with children and youth and had demonstrated sound psychometric properties (i.e. validity and reliability). A professional, fluently bilingual translator in El Salvador translated all items into Spanish. Following informed consent from the school director, a local Salvadoran research team, trained and supervised by the authors of the study, administered the questionnaire. The research team was instructed to remind students that participation in the study was voluntary and that they could choose not to answer certain questions or could choose to withdraw from the study at any time. Members of the research team remained to answer any questions from the participants and then collected the completed questionnaires.

**Sense of Safety**

[25 as cited in 24]. This scale measures “…feelings of safety at home, in or on the way to school, and in the neighbourhood.”\textsuperscript{24} The scale ranges from 0 (never) to 2 (always) with a higher score indicating a higher sense of safety. Scores were averaged to calculate an overall mean score that can range from 0 to 2.0. The CDC\textsuperscript{20} has reported its internal consistency to be .89.

**Beliefs about Aggression and Alternatives**

[26 as cited in 24]. This scale includes twelve items on a four-point scale (1-4) that measures “… student beliefs about the use of aggression and endorsement of non-violent responses to hypothetical situations.”\textsuperscript{24} Scores were averaged to calculate an overall mean score that can range from 1.0 to 4.0. A high score on the Beliefs about Aggression subscale indicates more favourable beliefs about the use of aggression when dealing with other people. The CDC\textsuperscript{14} has reported its internal consistency to be .72 for this sub-scale. A high score on the Use of Nonviolent Strategies subscale indicates a higher level of support for using nonviolent strategies when dealing with others. The CDC\textsuperscript{14} has reported its internal consistency to be .72 for this scale.

**Conflict Resolution – Individual Protective Factors**

[27 as cited in 24]. Twelve items on a four point scale (1 – 4) measuring two conflict resolution skills: self-control and cooperation (6 items each). Scores for each subscale were added together to calculate an overall total score ranging from 6 to 24. The CDC\textsuperscript{24} has reported its internal consistency to be .65 for both the self-control and cooperation scales. A high score on both these subscales indicate higher uses of these strategies to deal with conflict.

www.jsfd.org
Aggression Scale

[28 as cited in 24]. This scale includes 11 items measuring the frequency (ranging from 0 – 6) of self-reported aggressive behaviors over the past 7 days. Each point represents one aggressive behaviour reported over that time period. Scores can range from 0 to 66. The CDC\textsuperscript{25} has reported its internal consistency to range from .88 - .90 for this scale.

Caring and Cooperation Scale

[29 and 30 as cited in 24]. This scale consisted of eight items measuring the frequency (0 – 6) of caring/cooperation behaviour over the past 7 days. Each point represents caring/cooperative behaviour reported over the past 7 days. Scores can range from 0 to 48. These items were modified from a 30-day recall to a 7-day recall in order to be consistent with and to provide a comparison to Oprinas and Frankowski’s\textsuperscript{28} aggression scale format. The CDC\textsuperscript{24} has reported its internal consistency to be .60 for this scale.

The questionnaires were administered at the beginning (T1) and end (T2) of the school year in Year 1 and at the beginning (T3) and end (T4) of the school year in Year 3 for a total of four data collection points. All data were initially screened for outliers to ensure that each variable was normally distributed. Each dependent variable was converted into a z-score and any score not between a z-score of -3.0 and 3.0 was eliminated\textsuperscript{31} resulting in skewness and kurtosis values within acceptable ranges of +/- 2.0 and thereby conforming to assumptions of normal distribution required for analyses of variance.\textsuperscript{32} This left a total of 242 (104 Males; 138 Females) participants from 11 schools remaining for further analysis (or 19\% of the original population at T1). Sixty-two percent of participants were in Primary school (i.e. grades 3 to 6) at the start of the study with the remainder in Grades 7 to 9 (31\%) and 10 to 12 (6\%). Given that to be included for further analysis required participation in all four data collection points, there are a number of contributing factors for a high attrition rate of 80\%. Some of these factors included the elimination of any outliers, dropouts from the study, dropouts from school, missing the day the questionnaires were administered, and in one case, when an entire school was closed due to a natural disaster in the area.

In addition to the quantitative methods, qualitative methods were used to examine what, if any, impact the school’s PE program taught by a teacher with a PE degree who had training on the development of life skills through physical activity had upon the development of life skills and the prevention of youth violence. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with each school director (3 males, 8 females) and PE teacher (11 males). The semi-structured interviews focused upon the role that PE had within their school and within the community in general. The interview questions were not specific to a particular point in time over the previous three years, but rather the role of PE in general. A focus group of up to four students (2 males and 2 females per focus group) at each of the 11 schools was conducted at the end of the school year (i.e. T4). The students who participated in the focus group did not have to complete the questionnaire at each time period. PE teachers at each individual school chose the students who participated in the focus group. All interviews and focus groups were conducted by a trained research assistant from Pedagógica University in El Salvador and lasted anywhere from 10 to 30 minutes.

Interview transcripts were initially transcribed in Spanish by the person who conducted the interviews and then translated into English by the professional translator contracted to assist with this study. This resulted in a total of 13,505 total words transcribed into English (2479 from students, 6180 from teacher, and 4846 from the school director). A deductive analysis was used to first group the responses into one of three life-skill categories as defined by the World Health Organization.\textsuperscript{33} These were 1) Coping and Self-Management Skills; 2) Communication and Interpersonal Skills; and, 3) Decision Making and Critical Thinking Skills. Once grouped within one of the three life skill categories, an inductive content analysis as described by Patton\textsuperscript{34} was used to generate sub-themes within each life skill category (that had been deductively analyzed) in order to identify core consistencies and meanings. Table 1 provides a breakdown of each of the 3 main life skills and the sub-themes that emerged within each of them. It also provides an overview of the groups who indicated each of the sub-themes.\textsuperscript{*}

\textsuperscript{*}Results from interviews conducted with students, teachers, and principals after Year 1 (T2) of the study have been published previously in a separate article: Mandigo, J. L., Corlett, J., Ticas, P., & Vasquez, R. (2014). The role of physical education in the prevention of youth violence. A life-skills based approach in El Salvador. Chapter in K. Young & G. Okeada (Eds.). Sport, Social Development and Peace (pp. 105-128). Bingley, UK: Emerald. The end of year interview results in this paper from Year 3 (T4) have not been previously published.
Table 1: Life skill categories and themes generated from exit interviews with students, teachers and school directors

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<td><strong>Decision Making and Critical Thinking Skills</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Solving</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical Thinking</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

RESULTS

A Repeated Measures 3 (Grade) × 2 (Sex) MANOVA was conducted. The repeated variable of Time had four levels representing each data collection point. Given that there were only 3 boys left in the analysis in Secondary School, they were removed from the examination of the interaction effect as this would have violated the assumption of a cell size being larger than the number of DVs. Pillai’s Trace was used to test for significant differences due to the presence of unequal cell sizes.35

There was a significant multivariate effect of Time $[\eta^2 (21, 216) = .190; p < .01, \eta^2 = .19]$ over the four data collection points. Table II provides a summary of the significant within-subject differences for time. Post-hoc analyses and trend lines suggest mixed results. While the use of non-violent strategies gradually improved year after year, the use of self-control and conflict resolution only increased at the end of the first school year (T2). Other variables such as the use of caring and cooperation actually showed a decline at T4 compared to previous data collection points, while sense of safety was back up to its baseline level by the time of the last data collection at the end of the 3rd year of the study.

The significant interaction effects, however, suggest that the changes in some of the variables may have affected certain groups more than others. Both the Time × Sex $[\eta^2 (7, 230) = .790; p < .01, \eta^2 = .08]$ and Time × Grade $[\eta^2 (7, 462) = .130; p < .01, \eta^2 = .07]$ multivariate interactions were significant along with overall between-subject differences. On average, across each four measurement times, boys reported significantly higher levels of Aggressive Beliefs [$F (1,236) = 9.95; p < .01, \eta^2 = .02$] and Use of Aggression [$F (1,236) = 4.11; p < .05, \eta^2 = .04$] than girls. However, when examining the interaction effect between Time × Sex presented in Table III, boys tended to start off the school year with high levels of aggressive behaviours and low life skills, but by the end of the school year (T2 & T4), these values had positively improved for the boys while the girls either remained the same or worsened slightly. For example, boys tended to have higher levels regarding beliefs about the use of aggression and self-reported use of aggressive behaviours and higher levels of self-control, cooperation, and conflict resolution skills at the beginning of each school year (T1 and T3) compared to the end of the school year (T2 and T4).
Table 2: Summary of significance (p < .05) within subject differences by time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Trend</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Partial Eta$^2$</th>
<th>Paired T-Test</th>
<th>Graph</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>Quadratic</td>
<td>1.236</td>
<td>7.93**</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>T1 &gt; T3$^*$</td>
<td>1.52 1.54 1.52 1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Violent Strategies</td>
<td>Linear</td>
<td>1.236</td>
<td>20.37**</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>T3, T4 &gt; T1**</td>
<td>3.11 3.23 3.37 3.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Control</td>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>1.236</td>
<td>5.75*</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>T2 &gt; T1** T2 &gt; T3*</td>
<td>18.99 20.40 19.12 19.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict Resolution</td>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>1.236</td>
<td>4.73*</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>T2 &gt; T1*</td>
<td>40.71 42.33 41.04 41.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of Caring and Cooperation</td>
<td>Quadratic</td>
<td>1.236</td>
<td>6.70</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>T2, T3 &gt; T4*</td>
<td>21.06 21.82 24.11 19.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05; **p<.01

Note: T1 = Start of 2011 school year; T2 = End of 2011 school year; T3 = Start of 2013 school year; T4 = End of 2013 school year

Table 3: Summary of significance (p < .05) within subject differences for time x sex (1,236)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Trend</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Partial Eta$^2$</th>
<th>Pairwise Comparisons (p &lt; .05)</th>
<th>Graph</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aggressive Belief</td>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>22.29**</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>T1, T3 &gt; T2 T3 &gt; T4 T2 &gt; T1, T3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>T2 &gt; T1, T3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Control</td>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>16.10**</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>T2 &gt; T1, 3 T3 &gt; T4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>T1, T3 &gt; T4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperation</td>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>5.09*</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict Resolution</td>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>14.81**</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>T2 &gt; T1, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of Aggression</td>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>5.96</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>T1 &lt; T2, 3, 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05; **p<.01

Note: T1 = start of 2011 school year; T2 = end of 2011 school year; T3 = start of 2013 school year; T4 = end of 2013 school year
With respect to Grade Level, there were several between subject differences. First, it is important to point out that the Grade Level is based upon the participants’ grade at the start of Time 1 when they started the study. Hence, they would be two years older at the start of Time 3. Variables with significant differences included: Non Violent Strategies [F (2,236) = 3.96; p < .05, eta² = .03], Self-Control [F (2,236) = 9.44; p<.001, eta² = .07], Cooperation [F (2,236) = 6.06; p < .01, eta² = .05] Conflict Resolution [F (2,236) = 10.79; p < .001, eta² = .08] and Use of Aggression [F (2,236) = 5.38; p < .01, eta² = .04]. Post hoc analyses for these variables found that those initially in the Primary grades (i.e. 3 to 6) reported overall higher levels of self-control, cooperation and conflict resolution skills and lower use of non-violent strategies and aggressive behaviours than those in the Intermediate Grades (i.e. 7 to 9). However, the significant interactions between Time x Grade suggested that changes did occur over time. Pairwise comparisons of the changes suggested that those who started in the Primary Grades had the most changes over time. For example, Primary students reported that their use of non-violent strategies increased and their belief in aggressive solutions to problems decreased by the end of the study compared to the start. However, this did not necessarily result in a change in aggressive behaviours, which actually increased from Time 1 to Time 4. Life skills such as self-control and conflict resolution increased at Time 2 compared to Time 1, but then decreased again in the following years. For those classified in the Intermediate grades, the use of non-violent strategies increased significantly by the end of Year 3 of the study. Those in the Intermediate grades also reported higher levels of conflict resolution at the start of Year 3 compared to the start of Year 1 and more aggressive behaviours at the end of Year 1 compared to the start of Year 1 and 3. Although there were no other significant changes for the secondary students (likely due to the low sample size), the trends were encouraging with the belief in aggressive behaviours and the use of aggressive behaviours being lower at the end of each year.

Table 4: Summary of significance (p < .05) within subject differences for time x grade (2,236)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Trend</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Partial Eta²</th>
<th>Pairwise Comparisons (p &lt; .05)</th>
<th>Graph</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aggressive Belief</td>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>3.22*</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>Primary &gt; Intermediate, Secondary</td>
<td>T1 &gt; T3,4 None None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Violent Strategies</td>
<td>Linear</td>
<td>3.22*</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>Primary &gt; Intermediate, Secondary</td>
<td>T4 &gt; T1 T4.3 &gt; T1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Control</td>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>6.39**</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>Primary &gt; Intermediate, Secondary</td>
<td>T2 &gt; T1,3,4 None None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict Resolution</td>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>5.54**</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>Primary &gt; Intermediate, Secondary</td>
<td>T2 &gt; T1,3,4 T3 &gt; T1 None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of Aggression</td>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>8.05**</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>Primary &gt; Intermediate, Secondary</td>
<td>T4 &gt; T1 T2 &gt; T1,3 None</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05; **p<.01
Note: T1 = start of 2011 school year; T2 = end of 2011 school year; T3 = start of 2013 school year; T4 = end of 2013 school year

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school year compared to the beginning. Life skills such as self-control and conflict resolution followed a promising trend of being high at the end of the school year compared to the beginning.

For the qualitative interview results, prior to presenting the result of the thematic analysis specific to life skills (see Table 1), a number of observations were made when reviewing the interview transcripts with respect to the unique importance of PE that did not fit into the specific life skill categories. For example, one school director was quoted as saying “for the kids, PE is sacred more than religion. They like religion class but nothing like PE.” School directors and PE teachers regularly commented on the applied nature of PE to learn important life skills and their connection to violence prevention. For example, one teacher commented, “The role PE has is very fundamental. Through PE we can develop all the skills … it also reduces violence and strengthens values.” Several school directors also commented on the importance of PE to learn through doing. Teachers highlighted that PE provided their students with an opportunity to learn and develop life skills and values in a safe manner by teaching through games. Teachers consequently identified helping students transfer what they learned in PE back into their daily lives within the community as an important component of PE. This made PE unique in comparison with other school subjects, which were often identified as very theoretical rather than hands-on in nature.

School directors, teachers and students also commented on the special bond that often formed between the PE teacher and his/her students. One teacher commented that he felt that he had an important role to play in watching out for his students who are recruited by gangs: “Because there are lots of different girls and all of them are different … we need to watch out if gang members get close to them and they will try to influence them. It is good to be close to them, but this can be challenging because the girls might not want to talk to us. So we need to teach values to them as well.” School directors also commented on the positive rapport that the PE teacher had with their students in their school: “Students just love the class, and you sense it since the teacher comes in. They get so happy to see him. I think it only happens when they see him.”

PE is an applied subject that enables students to learn through doing in a safe manner. Just like students can learn to kick a soccer ball with proficiency in PE class, so too can they learn to develop important life skills. In addition, PE teachers are often viewed as mentors by their students and have a positive rapport with them. As a result, students often look up to their PE teacher and go to them for advice and guidance. PE teachers also reported feeling obligated to keep an eye out for their students to ensure that they are safe both within and outside of school. Both of these findings suggest that PE teachers play an important role in the social fabric of a school. They often form an important bond with students that PE class can be an ideal place within educational settings to foster the development of life skills with students.

**Coping and Self-Management Skills**

According to the World Health Organization, coping and self-management skills include “skills for increasing confidence and abilities to assume control, take responsibility, make a difference, or bring about change … managing feelings … [and] … managing stress.”. All three groups who were interviewed identified the role of PE in developing stress management skills. For example, one student commented: “I do believe it is important, just as the other theoretical classes, this one helps us not to be stressed.” However, stress management was the only sub-theme mentioned by all three groups of interviewees. The teacher and school director group identified self-discipline, while students identified healthy development and resilience as sub-themes. For example, several students commented on how being active is good for their health. They also commented on how it teaches them to never give up.

School directors identified diversion, motivation and leadership as key sub-themes related to coping and self-management skills. Several of the directors commented that PE class and after-school sport teams offers a diversion from more at-risk behaviors and encourages them to stay out of trouble because they were busy being active:

... it is very important, it is part of the kids’ development, and also because it keeps students active and busy, so they don’t have time to do bad things and relate to bad people, if they like PE they want to participate and then they are busy.

PE also provided a highly motivating experience for students. Another director commented on the importance that motivation through PE had on preventing students from joining gangs:

*They are doing something fun, they feel they all can and that is important. They don’t feel left out. I believe one of the biggest reasons why kids join gangs is because they feel left out by their parents, friends, and teachers.*
Finally, a particularly powerful comment by a school director identified the role of PE to provide positive leadership skills to students as an alternative to participation in a gang: “Last year we had some students which belonged to a gang but we had them lead some of the games and they did great and the community saw that.”

Communication and Interpersonal Skills

Teamwork and respect were the two sub-themes within Communication and Interpersonal skills that were reported by all three groups. Examples of quotes regarding teamwork included: “The values the teacher teaches us, like cooperation and team work, they are necessary to live better” (student); and “We need to teach how to work together. We as Salvadorans is very hard to work as a team. Everyone goes to different ways so I do work a lot on teamwork” (teacher). Respect was also a common interpersonal skill participants identified. For example, a director commented, “… we need to teach them how to follow rules. They need to learn how to listen so [that] once they are outside the school they can respect others.” A teacher supported this sentiment, and said that through PE, “…kids learn to respect each other. There are some kids that don’t even respect themselves, so as a teacher we need to tell them they are able to do it so for me respect is the key.”

Communication and helping others were two sub-themes under the broader Communication and Interpersonal Skills theme that were unique to the students and the teachers. For example, one of the students highlighted the unique feature of PE class as being the only class where they are encouraged to talk to other students, “this is the only class where we can all play together, even if we don’t talk to them in other classes.” PE class was also a place where students were encouraged to help each other. For example, a teacher said, “I encourage them to do things well, I encourage the ones which are very skillful to help the ones that are not, and that makes everyone feel better and comfortable.”

A sub-theme that was unique to teachers and school directors was tolerance. Given the holistic nature of PE and the fact that students’ performances are often on public display, this teacher used activities within PE to talk about the importance of tolerance of different abilities, “…respect, cooperation, tolerance, sometimes kids are very good at sports and some others are not so they have to be very tolerant.”

A final sub-theme that was unique just to the students was the role that PE played in helping the students get along. By playing together, students commented that they often fight less with each other and get to know each other better and cooperate.

Decision Making and Critical Thinking Skills

Two sub-themes emerged here: problem solving and critical thinking. All three groups commented on the role of PE in fostering problem-solving skills. Teachers in particular were very passionate about the role that PE can play in helping to reduce violence through appropriate problem solving skills, “For me the engine of our society is PE. Society needs to give more importance to PE, and we are not only talking about being fit physically but also mentally. If we were to join these two and we become aware we are creating better human beings, people capable to solve problems and as a consequence, society would be much better.”

Finally, one of the teachers commented on the important role that PE plays in helping to develop critical thinking skills. “We teach positive behaviour, we do a lot of mental work, not just exercises. The final objective is for them to critically think and to work in teams and know they have succeeded because they worked together.”

DISCUSSION

The results from this study provide a descriptive account of changes seen over time in the use of life skills on the prevention of youth violence and the role that PE can play within schools to assist with the development of these life skills. For example, the results point to the potential impact that schools may have on decreasing aggressive behaviour, particularly for boys. The data in this study suggested that at the start of each of the school years, boys reported high levels of aggression and low levels of life skills. Such initial differences between boys and girls found at the beginning of the study are not uncommon. For example, female adolescents in Spain were more likely to report cooperative conflict resolution skills while male adolescents were much more likely to report aggressive conflict resolution skills. Similarly, female adolescents in Mexico had higher understandings of conflict resolution and lower levels of competitiveness than males. Some have suggested that girls acquire social-cognitive skills much earlier than boys and have better pro-social skills. By the end of each of the school years, these levels had positively improved and in some cases were the same as the girls. Garaigordobil et al reported a similar finding with their violence prevention program in the Basque region of Spain. Although the program had beneficial effects for both males and females, the males in the program improved more in the areas of
positive cognitions about pro-social values and behaviours. While levels of aggression and changes over time may be attributed to maturation, social factors can also play an important role with schools being a major place where students can learn and acquire the necessary life skills to control aggression.

The changes that occurred over the three-year period and the identification of the role of school-based PE to help encourage the development of positive life skills provide further support that schools provide an ideal place to foster the development of life skills at a young age. Schools can also play an important role in the desistence of aggression and violence. Erickson and Butters have shown that experiences with child and youth violence depend on whether they attend school or not. Those attending school reported far less experience with violence than those who had left school or were held within the formal criminal justice system. In related research, Tanner and Wortley found that Canadian students in school were three times less likely to be current gang members. Interrupted schooling, in addition to a lack of social and community support, is one of the main contributing factors to joining a gang. For example, Olate, Salas-Wright, and Vaughn reported that Salvadoran youth who had joined a gang were more likely to have dropped out of school than peers who had not joined a gang. In addition, at-risk youth and current gang members in San Salvador who had been expelled from school were more likely to participate in violent and delinquent behaviours. Clearly, schools in El Salvador play a vital role in helping to develop these skills and serving as a safety-buffer between those of school age and the violence of the extracurricular environment in which some children and youth live. School, then, is a key opportunity for social change, one that can determine positive attitudes about violence.

The results from the interviews provide further evidence to support the unique potential that PE has to foster the development of life skills within schools. Students, teachers and principals commented on the uniqueness of PE to learn life skills in an applied and enjoyable way. They also emphasized the important role that many PE teachers played as role models to their students. Many of the teachers taught life skills through games and activities so that students could practice and develop their own personal life skills. Previous research by Hanrahan and Ram reported that former gang members in Mexico who took part in active games that focused upon problem-solving and decision-making significantly improved happiness, life satisfaction, and self-concept. PE provides a unique opportunity for students to acquire, develop, apply the life skills they have learned, and also supports previous claims that “life skills must be taught, not caught.” Many of these life skills form the basic foundation for fewer aggressive behaviors and potentially less levels of violence.

In examining the themes that emerged from the exit interviews, it is interesting to note that school directors focused on the importance of PE in developing coping and self-management skills, while teachers and students more frequently focused on the development of communication and interpersonal skills. This may be attributed to the type of interaction that the school director has with the students compared to the PE teacher. While the director often identified fewer behavioural problems as a result of the PE program due to better coping and self-management skills, the teacher and students tended to focus more on examples of day-to-day interactions within the PE class related to the development of interpersonal skills that may not be as obvious to the school director. As well, more abstract life skills such as critical thinking and decision making were more obvious to teachers and school directors compared to the students who tended to report these less frequently and with less detail.

Limitations and Future Directions

The current study did not directly measure aggression or life skill behaviours and instead relied upon the self-report of the students and retrospective recall through the interview process. Previous research has suggested that females may underreport aggression. For example, through direct observation of Canadian children, Pepler and Craig reported that girls were just as likely as boys to bully other children. However, significantly fewer girls admitted to bullying than boys. Future research that directly observes children and youth both during school and outside of school would be an ideal follow-up to confirm (or not) the results from this study.

Although the questionnaires used in this study had previously demonstrated acceptable psychometric properties, they were developed in English-speaking countries and were translated into Spanish for the purpose of this study. Hence, their level of relevance and representativeness of youth violence within a Salvadoran context cannot be determined. Specific modifications of current questionnaires or development of new questionnaires that take into consideration the unique nature of Salvadoran culture is therefore recommended in the future. In addition, although the interviews were conducted and then translated into English by a native Salvadoran research assistant, the transcriptions and subsequent analysis may have lost some of their original meaning. Therefore the richness and originality of the qualitative results may be lost.  

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through translation and subsequent data analysis. This runs the risk of losing what Coalter\textsuperscript{48} refers to as cultural and social interpretations connected to the context of the ideas presented during the interviews.

The design of this study was quasi-experimental and did not contain a control group. Rather, the baseline results at Time 1 were used for comparison purposes and the interviews were used to provide an understanding for any changes seen throughout the study. Therefore, it is difficult to isolate the exact impact that schools, and in particular PE had. There may be many other factors (e.g., biological, social, etc.) contributing to levels of aggression and life skill development outside of the school environment. Future researchers may wish to explore other contributing factors both within and outside of the education environment (e.g., role of families, religion, organized sport, etc.) with respect to the development of life skills and aggressive behaviours.

It is important to recognize the background of the PE teachers in this study. All of them had received training through their PE degree on the role of PE to foster the development of life skills. Throughout their PE degree, they developed the theoretical background on the importance of life skills as well as the practical experience of intentionally teaching life skills with children and youth. Although the teachers in this study were not monitored with respect to how they implemented their PE program nor were they compared to teachers without this type of training, it is important to situate the results within the context of PE programs delivered by trained PE teachers who had previous experience and background on intentionally teaching life skills through physical activities. Previous research had demonstrated their confidence and competence to deliver a program consistent with some of the basic tenants of TPSR. Despite this, due to the wide scope of the study, it was not possible to constantly monitor the teachers with respect to how they were implementing their PE program.\textsuperscript{22, 24} Future research may wish to consider a more narrow and targeted scope to better understand the relationship between the pedagogical practices and curriculum being delivered by teachers and the impact on life skill development.

Finally, although longitudinal studies are an effective way to track changes over time, they are often prone to attrition of participants that are out of the control of the researchers. In this particular study, factors such as a school closing due to a natural disaster, the withdrawal of schools in the study after the PE teacher had left, students who left the school for various reasons (e.g., graduation, relocation, etc.), and simply absence on one of the data collection days contributed towards a high attrition rate. The characteristics of those not included in the final data analysis or the exact reasons for their exclusion and/or drop out from the study were not analyzed.

**CONCLUSION**

The current generation of children and youth of El Salvador today have lived through one of the most violent times in the country’s 200-year history. If the trend of violence is to be truly reversed, the education system will need to take a targeted approach to support the development of life skills within Salvadoran schools. The results from this study provide support for the role of schools, and in particular PE, to help foster the development of life skills as an effective strategy in the reduction of youth violence within El Salvador. Although it should not be the only solution, there is sufficient evidence presented that when teachers are provided with appropriate training, learning life skills through PE can have a positive impact amongst students and across the school community. Such training ought to focus upon the intentionality of fostering life skills through PE and should not simply expect life skills to emerge on their own. PE teachers in this study had previously graduated from a PE University program in El Salvador that had demonstrated evidence of student-teachers who developed the knowledge and pedagogical skills needed to foster life skills through PE class.\textsuperscript{22, 23} Future research may wish to compare the impact of different types of training and its relationship to implementation and student outcomes.

Given the high homicide levels amongst Salvadoran males and the significantly higher levels of male aggression, which includes both behaviours and beliefs, at the beginning of this study compared to females, there is a specific need to target effective developmentally appropriate violence prevention interventions with males of all ages. School-based interventions seem to have been particularly impactful given that by the end of the 3-year study with males and females reporting similar levels of aggressive behaviours. The trend of aggressive behaviours amongst adolescent males increasing from pre-adolescents amongst the general population across El Salvador is also of particular concern given that previous developmental research looking at aggressive behaviours suggests that physical aggression typically decreases from childhood to adolescence due to cognitive and social maturation influences.\textsuperscript{6} This disturbing trend and the consistent calls for targeted school-based interventions at a young age highlight the sense of urgency to implement violence prevention programs in El Salvador for pre-adolescents. PE programs within schools appear to provide a unique opportunity to directly address
life skills development and violence reduction. Such interventions, particularly for disadvantaged youth are most effective both socially and economically when they start at a young age.49

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Challenges and strategies for success of a sport-for-development programme for First Nations, Métis and Inuit youth

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ABSTRACT

Canadian policy related to colonialism has created substantial challenges for First Nations, Métis and Inuit (FNMI) youth and has had a negative influence on their health and well-being. Sport-for-development (SfD) programmes are beginning to show positive impacts for children and youth internationally. This approach may also be beneficial for FNMI youth in Canada. This research evaluates the implementation of a SfD programme designed to enhance leadership skills for FNMI youth. A qualitative approach that examines contextual and implementation issues was used. Data were collected using semi-structured interviews and analyzed using thematic analysis. Findings were organized into themes related to strategies for success and challenges. The strategies for success are broken down into the following six themes: 1) designing youth engagement strategies, 2) being creative and adaptable, 3) being a positive presence, 4) applying experiential learning techniques, 5) balancing the integration of culture with youth voice and 6) identifying partnerships and developing relationships with the community. The three themes relating to challenges were 1) community diversity, 2) social issues and 3) staff burnout. Recommendations are provided for issues related to programming and evaluation.

BACKGROUND

In Canada, the First Nations, Métis and Inuit (FNMI) population is growing faster than the general population and is substantially younger with 28% being age 14 and under.¹ As such, they represent an important investment for the future of Canada. Despite this population growth, FNMI youth continue to be exposed to more social issues than their Canadian peers such as domestic violence² and maltreatment,³ which are issues that can have negative impacts on their psychological and physical health.⁴⁻⁶ For example, in a young Inuit population in Quebec, researchers found that over 45% of survey respondents reported having had suicidal thoughts.⁷ Although there is a lack of research examining health indicators of Métis youth,⁵ Kumar found that 19.6% of Metis between the ages of 26 and 59 had experienced thoughts of suicide in their lifetime.⁹ There is general agreement that these risk factors are the result of trauma created by historical colonial practices.⁶,¹⁰,¹¹ As such, it is important to understand the contextual influences that can affect programming designed to improve outcomes for FNMI youth. This article presents a programme evaluation that examines the implementation of a sport-for-development (SfD) programme designed to enhance leadership skills for FNMI youth in Canada.

Historical Canadian policy has promoted the assimilation and oppression of FNMI people through the application of practices such as the expropriation of land, dishonouring treaties, chronic underfunding, scientific exploitation, prohibition of the use of cultural practices, forced removal of their children to residential schools and systematic placement of their children in out-of-home care.⁶,¹²⁻¹⁵ As a result, a large portion of the FNMI population live in conditions of poverty, overcrowded housing, reduced access to clean water and lack of access to public resources such as quality education. The health consequences of these conditions are exhibited in the FNMI population as there are higher rates of infectious disease, family dysfunction, maltreatment, abuse, teen pregnancy, addiction, fetal alcohol syndrome, school failure, mental health issues and

Keywords: Positive youth development; leadership; Indigenous peoples; program evaluation; sport-for-development
delinquency. One of the most worrisome impacts created by colonial policy is the increased rate of suicide among FNMI youth. Indigenious people experience a range of health disparities that have resulted from colonial policies on an international scale. For example, in Australia, researchers found that aboriginals had a higher prevalence of mental health issues than the rest of the non-Aboriginal population. Furthermore, researchers examining the well-being of Aboriginal peoples in Canada, the United States, Australia and New Zealand found that well-being is lower in indigenous populations in comparison with the general population in every region.

SfD initiatives are designed to use sport to attract participants for the purposes of promoting development outcomes such as public health and education. Coalter uses the term ‘sport plus’ and ‘plus sport’ to describe two contrasting approaches to SfD. ‘Sport plus’ refers to initiatives that use the sport context to promote sport along with other community development outcomes. ‘Plus sport’ approaches use sport to attract participants, but then the main programming is not sport-based. In this context, sport is used as an incentive to create engagement with the targeted population to improve recruitment and retention. SfD appears to be a promising approach with vulnerable youth around the globe, and thus may be useful to apply to FNMI communities. For example, researchers identified that sport participation in a South African township led to the development of youth competencies including improved self-concept, discipline, group skills and respect for others. In India, Kay found that a sports-based intervention designed to promote civic activism and leadership in adolescent women helped participants to gain knowledge and become more empowered. In research with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander youth in Australia, Thomson, Darcy and Pearce conducted several case studies of sport programming designed to reduce social inequities that exist between the indigenous population and other Australians. Their findings highlighted the importance of including Aboriginal representatives within program governance, developing community partnerships, empowering the community to promote sustainability and the incorporation of mutually beneficial processes. The Hokowhitu Program is an example of a sports-based positive youth development program targeted at Maori youth. It was adapted from the Sports United to Promote Education and Recreation program and applies a Maori learning method and other cultural concepts. The program was successful in generating positive attitudes toward school, improved coping skills and more optimistic outlooks in the participants.

In Canada, there are some sports-based development programmes that have demonstrated positive outcomes with FNMI youth. For example, in northern Quebec, the Nunavik Youth Hockey Development Program (NYHDP) is a long-standing programme in 14 remote villages designed to enhance Inuit youth development by teaching life skills, increasing physical activity and by fostering the pursuit of education. A recent evaluation of the NYHDP identified that the program was perceived to promote positive outcomes for youth and community. Youth participants experienced enhanced leadership, positive identity and increased participation in school and physical activity. The programme also led to a number of positive community impacts, including improved community infrastructure for recreation, sport and enhanced community partnership. In a similar vein, Ritchie and colleagues used outdoor pursuits to promote development by implementing an outdoor adventure canoe trip for FNMI youth and found that participants exhibited increased resilience after programme completion. Similarly, Active Circle is an initiative designed to promote FNMI youth well-being through sport and recreation programming. This programme is designed to support and provide capacity building to grassroots programming and is currently being evaluated using participatory methods. Despite these promising findings and ongoing evaluation, not all SfD programs for FNMI youth have exhibited positive impacts. For example, Galipeau and Giles’ research examined Alberta’s Future Leaders (AFL) program, a sport-based leadership program that is implemented by predominantly non-FNMI staff. Through their exploration, they found two over-arching discourses that influenced the program, including 1) the notion that all youth can develop leadership skills and that 2) mentorship programming can help First Nations youth avoid negative life paths. They also found that the programme might be perpetuating differential power relationships between programme staff and participants as a result of a lack of acknowledgement of cultural differences. The criticism of perpetuating power relationships has already been raised regarding general SfD programming. It is also important to note that Hayhurst and Giles caution against using SfD approaches based on Eurocentric ideals within FNMI communities since these strategies “transmit the very values that some Aboriginal communities are actively trying to resist.”

Right to Play (RTP) is a prominent organization within the SfD movement. It originated in 1994 as Olympic Aid, a fundraising initiative that was developed by the Lillehammer Olympic Organizing Committee. RTP’s strategy was to involve Olympic athletes as ambassadors.
in fundraising efforts in order to support communities in countries experiencing hardship or conflict. Olympic Aid then became RTP when it was incorporated late in the year 2000, which is when RTP began to independently implement programmes. The majority of programmes implemented by RTP throughout the world would fall under the ‘plus sport’ approach. Although the majority of programs implemented by RTP have been in developing countries, in 2010, RTP began operations of the Promoting Life-skills in Aboriginal Youth (PLAY) programme in two FNMI communities in northern Ontario, Canada. Within PLAY, there are a number of initiatives including the Sport for Development Program, the After-School program, the Play for Diabetes Prevention Program and the Youth Leadership Program (YLP). Each community that chooses to partner with RTP within the PLAY programme must choose one or more of these components. The focus of this research is the YLP programme which has recently expanded from two to over 88 FNMI communities across Ontario, Manitoba, British Columbia and Alberta.

Researchers have argued that SfD programs must go beyond sport and offer a developmental intervention. This research is based on the positive youth development (PYD) framework which is grounded in developmental systems theory. PYD was advanced in reaction to the deficit model of youth development and has important implications for perceiving children as having intrinsic potential, abilities to develop a moral identity and being inextricably linked to their environment. Within PYD it is recognized that children and youth have a connection and bi-directional influence on their environment and thus programs and their subsequent impact must be considered within the spectrum of other system effects, including influences from family, school, friends and community. Youth leadership has been identified as an integral component within successful PYD programs and has the potential to have an impact on youth as well as the larger community.

The overall programme objective of the YLP is to support youth in making positive contributions to their community. Through participation in the programme, youth develop leadership skills and apply them to create positive change in their community. Much of the programming includes education delivered using an experiential learning practice called Reflect Connect Apply (RCA). The RCA process involves the delivery of an educational concept. The participants are then encouraged to reflect on the lesson and connect the new knowledge with an experience they have had previously. They are then invited to apply the learning to a practical example in their lives. This approach is particularly relevant within this context as experiential learning has been found to be more accessible for FNMI youth.

There are seven major components to the YLP (see Figure 1). The first component is youth voice. This component is central to the philosophy of the program. It involves the creation of opportunities for youth to express themselves and to share their vision with others. The second component is the establishment of a safe and inclusive space. This refers to the creation of an environment that is physically and emotionally safe, as well as open to a diversity of participants. This allows the participants to feel welcome and comfortable to share in the programming. The third component involves the incorporation of regular and reliable programming. This component is important for the development of trust and the progression of learning within the programme. This is facilitated through the maintenance of weekly programming at a consistent location. The fourth component involves on-going assessment. This ensures the regular incorporation of participant and community perspectives for quality improvement.

The fifth component involves the implementation of three to five community events. In this venture, youth are involved in organizing, coordinating and evaluating a community event. These initiatives allow the youth to learn by doing within a structured environment. It also engages the community and provides the youth with opportunities to develop leadership skills and confidence in their abilities. The sixth component is the requirement of three inter-generational events. This entails the implementation of three more inclusive events that involve family and other community members. The last component involves the inclusion of an experienced and supportive worker, the Community Mentor (CM). It should be recognized that although this programme is implemented by a SfD organization, the YLP does not explicitly include sport within its design. Many of the communities relied on sport activities heavily to draw youth to the programme, while others incorporated more traditional activities to engage youth depending on local youth interests. For example, some programmes would include a basketball pick-up game as a regular element of their weekly programme. Others might not implement a sport on a weekly basis but might organize a hunting trip as one of their community events.

The CM’s are the frontline staff and are responsible for delivering the YLP program, building partnerships within the community and for administering the duties associated with the program. Most CMs are community members of FNMI decent with a background in child and youth work or recreation. These individuals are trained bi-annually by
RTP. Since the majority of CMs are from the community where they work, they are often already familiar with the youth within the community and hence with those that participate in the programme. In addition, each CM is supported by a Supervisor located within his/her own community and a RTP Program Officer that is responsible for several communities and makes regular visits to each programme.

Patton defines programme evaluation as “the systematic collection of information about the activities, characteristics, and outcomes of programs to make judgments about the program, improve program effectiveness, and/or inform decisions about future programming.”46 Programme evaluation differs from traditional positivist research in several ways. In traditional positivist research, objectives are based on an examination of relevant literature and of gaps in the current knowledge.47 In contrast, since programme evaluation occurs in an applied context and is more practical in nature, study designs are typically developed through the consideration of programme goals and stakeholder interest. In spite of the expanding literature, researchers have argued that there is a general lack of programme evaluation within the SfD movement and that many of the existing evaluations do not provide enough depth to capture the full context.46 Researchers have identified a need for increased evaluation of SfD programming within Canada39 as well as a need to identify if these SfD initiatives can successfully promote self-determination in FNMI communities.49 For example, Levermore has suggested that most evaluations in SfD are conducted in an exclusive and non-participatory manner, do not capture enough depth of information to represent the full program context, and apply methods that do not take into account the worldview of the participants and other stakeholders.48 Scholars have also argued that there is a lack of understanding of underlying mechanisms within the SfD evaluation literature.22

In order to address the identified gaps in the SfD literature, Kay recommends the use of qualitative research that better captures individuals’ perspectives, complexities within programming and contextual dynamics related to community and family.24 This research addresses the shortcomings within the field of evaluation in SfD since it uses a qualitative approach that examines both context and implementation. Researchers have suggested that interventions that promote empowerment for FNMI youth may promote a healthy transition from childhood to adulthood through the provision of manageable developmental challenges and opportunities to strengthen cultural identity.50 Although youth leadership has been identified as an important component of effective PYD programs,43, 44 researchers have identified that there is a need to better understand the mechanisms and processes that promote positive outcomes within the programming context.51, 52 Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to present a formative evaluation of the YLP component of the PLAY programme that examines contextual challenges and strategies for implementation success. The objective of formative evaluation is to examine implementation issues within programs that are in their early stages of implementation in order to apply the findings to improve programming rather than to examine programme

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Figure 1: The components of the Youth Leadership Programme

![Diagram of Youth Leadership Programme components](image-url)
outcomes.\textsuperscript{53} Recognizing that this programme was recently initiated, the goal of this research was to explore contextual issues that affect operations within the YLP to identify what is working well and areas in need of improvement. Furthermore, this research examines the perceptions of community members who are responsible for the implementation of the program.

METHODS

Context

This study is the result of a research partnership that was initially developed between RTP and the University of Ottawa. The project was initiated when RTP approached the University to invite the researchers to implement an independent program evaluation. Since there was no funding from RTP to support this partnership, the researchers sought and received independent research funding from the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada, the largest funding source for research in social sciences in Canada. Throughout the research, RTP supported the logistics of data collection and the researchers provided intermittent feedback regarding the findings and provided recommendations for programming. Researchers have recommended the use of research advisory committees in guiding studies with FNMI communities.\textsuperscript{54} Researchers have also recommended the inclusion of Elders in the design and implementation of these evaluations.\textsuperscript{55} In FNMI communities, Elders serve as teachers and role models and are considered to be significant community members because of “their symbolic connection to the past, and for their knowledge of traditional ways, teachings, stories and ceremonies.”\textsuperscript{56} In order to support the research partnership, a research advisory committee was created that included representatives from RTP, researchers at the University of Ottawa, Elders and external indigenous researchers. The purpose of the committee was to improve the relevance of the research designs and to ensure that community needs were addressed in the process. There were four ethical principles created to guide this study: 1) relational accountability, 2) respectful representation, 3) reciprocal appropriation, and 4) rights and regulations. The principle of relational accountability acknowledges that the researchers must be responsible for maintaining transparent and respectful relationships with everyone involved in the research. Respectful representation involves a commitment to understanding community perspectives and engaging them in knowledge production. Reciprocal appropriation speaks to the importance of ensuring that mutually beneficial outcomes are achieved through the research. The principle of rights and regulations states that the communities must maintain ownership and control of the data. This research has also been reviewed and approved by the University of Ottawa Research Ethics Board.

Evaluation Design

A qualitative design was used in order to capture context, description and understanding of staff perceptions.\textsuperscript{46} This exploratory approach is particularly important since the programme is youth and community-led, thus specific goals were expected to shift based on context. In addition, researchers have suggested that in evaluation with FNMI communities, it is impossible to disregard cultural context as it is “critical to valid inference; programmes can be accurately understood only within their relationship to place, setting, and community.”\textsuperscript{57} Recognizing that the programme was in its early stages of implementation, a formative approach was used so that the data collected could be used to improve programming rather than demonstrate impact.\textsuperscript{53, 58} LaFrance and Nichols suggest that evaluation should emphasize continuous learning and focus on process as it is complementary to indigenous ways of knowing; as such, “evaluation should reflect insights and understandings captured in the sense of becoming.”\textsuperscript{55} More specifically, this study follows a constructionist epistemology since the aim is to better understand the individual perspective of the CMs on the programme. This perspective assumes that knowledge is constructed through social interaction\textsuperscript{59, 60} and reflects the surrounding context.\textsuperscript{46, 61}

Participants and Procedures

The lead researcher attended five Community Mentor Trainings and one Youth Symposium to recruit participants and conduct interviews. Interviews were conducted with 11 CMs and one Elder. Five of the participants were female and five of them had been involved with the programme for more than one year. The participants worked in 14 different communities from across Ontario (one individual worked in three different communities and another worked in two communities). Four of the communities were designated as Southern, six as Northern, three as fly-in and one was unknown. Each Community Mentor Training was attended by an Elder, and he was interviewed during one of the trainings. Interview participants are identified by codes (Community Mentor = CM, Elder = E).

As described above, the data for this research were collected at the trainings and symposiums with a broad cross-section of CMs. In these circumstances, there was no individual community that was involved in the research. For non-geographically based evaluation, researchers have suggested...
that it is important to recognize service organizations as a community of interest. In this case, our “community” was the collective of CMs who had their own shared perspectives, values and experiences that brought them together.

The qualitative method used in this study was semi-structured interviews. Qualitative interviews are useful in this context because they are a method to capture individual perceptions of the programme, including their experience and understanding. Furthermore, story-telling is valued as a traditional FNMI method of sharing knowledge. LaFrance and Nichols suggest that it is important to tell the program’s story when doing evaluation within indigenous communities and they include story-telling in their Indigenous Evaluation Framework as an essential element. In line with this tradition, qualitative semi-structured interviews have the capacity to capture stories and detail-rich information. An interview guide was developed and included questions regarding the overall programme context and structure (e.g. please describe the youth you are working with), perceptions of success during implementation (e.g. what was your greatest success?), challenges experienced during implementation (e.g. did you experience any difficulties implementing the programme?) and community involvement (e.g. are there any other people/partners/organizations who should be involved in the future who could make the programme better? Who?).

In order to make sense of the data, a thematic analysis was used. This process involved six phases that include: 1) familiarization with the data, 2) generating initial codes, 3) searching for themes, 4) reviewing themes, 5) defining and naming and 6) producing the report. During the familiarization phase, the researcher read and re-read the transcripts and observation notes in order to have a relatively clear idea of the data set as a whole. During this stage, notes and highlights were made in order to keep track of initial impressions and ideas. Initial codes were created using QSR NVivo. Through an iterative process, codes were organized into larger themes based on inter-related meaning and the themes revised and re-organized based on reflection and review. To enhance methodological rigour, analyses were reviewed by the University of Ottawa research team. Furthermore, the researcher presented the initial analyses to CMs in order to obtain their feedback regarding whether the results were capturing their experience accurately. Themes were revised and refined based on the feedback received.

Many researchers have argued against the rigid application of fixed criteria in judging qualitative research methods. Sparkes and Smith recommend the use of flexible lists in order to judge the value of qualitative research. This strategy allows researchers to identify criteria of quality during the research process, and as such, these criteria “act as a starting point for judging a certain kind of inquiry, but these may not apply on all occasions and other criteria can be added to or subtracted from them depending on the circumstances.” Tracy’s eight “Big-Tent” model represents a universal set of criteria that can be applied to complement the research context. The model also distinguishes between indicators of quality and best practices. Applying this relativist perspective, our research demonstrates several strengths highlighted within this model, including credibility, significant contribution and topic worthiness. Credibility is demonstrated through thick description. The elaborate narratives provided by the CMs provide a comprehensive description of their experiences and the programming environment. Credibility is also reinforced through the member reflections provided by participants regarding their perceptions of the initial analyses and feedback regarding effective knowledge exchange and utilization opportunities. Evaluation research is uniquely situated to provide a significant contribution. The process of evaluation allows the close examination of contextual issues and the ability to provide concrete and practical recommendations both for the programme under study, as well as for related interventions and initiatives. The criterion of topic worthiness is fulfilled since the subject of this research is of such considerable importance. Given the issues that face FNMI youth today, including elevated rates of suicide in many communities, exposure to violence against women and criminal involvement, it is critical to examine the best ways to alleviate these disparities. Recognizing that community empowerment has a considerable relationship with youth suicide and that these issues require community-driven solutions, it is of crucial importance to examine community-based leadership programming to identify what works and what is in need of improvement in order to share lessons learned to support program and policy development.

RESULTS

The analysis resulted in the development of two overarching themes. The first relates to strategies used to implement the programme that were perceived as being successful and the second related to challenges experienced in implementing the programme. Within these two overarching themes a number of sub-themes arose which are described in more detail below.
Strategies for Success

The CMs talked at length about the different strategies that they believed helped them to have a successful programme that the youth enjoyed and to overcome barriers. Success was subjectively defined by the CMs and based on their understanding of the context and what they perceived as contributing to an effective and efficient programme. Some of these strategies included creating individual strategies for empowerment, identifying new contextually adaptive activities, integrating their community culture and making local connections to enhance the programme. The strategies are broken down into the following six themes: 1) designing youth empowerment strategies, 2) being creative and adaptable, 3) being a positive presence, 4) applying experiential learning techniques, 5) balancing the integration of culture with youth voice and 6) identifying partnerships and developing relationships with the community.

Designing youth empowerment strategies

The core philosophy of this programme is leadership and the development of independence among youth and their communities. Many of the CMs endorsed this approach and developed their own methods to promote youth empowerment. One CM talked about how the youth develop confidence through the skills that they learn and by taking ownership for the program.

It’s easy for me to do it all, but then they have to do it. And do the work for it, and then overall it makes them feel that they are capable of doing better things. (CM2)

Many CMs were able to individualize their support based on the needs and strengths of individual youth. They created learning opportunities that were at the right level of challenge so that the youth can develop important leadership skills and experience. For example, one CM described how his participant played the Easter Bunny at their community Easter event, a role that was challenging, yet achievable for her:

She was huge and that’s just a little bit out of her comfort zone. Like she does have that personality, but yeah, she did and she did it really well. (CM10)

Many of the CMs also discussed the importance of respecting the youth and the importance of providing an autonomy-supportive environment. As one CM shared:

I’m not forceful or aggressive with anything that I try with people. Because it’s for people’s own choice to do what they want, right? So even when it comes to the youth... I just always keep in mind, equality and respect. There’s nothing I can make you do that you don’t want to, but if we have the respect for each other, you might give it a try. (CM1)

The Elder also discussed the importance of the programme being youth-led, rather than based on standardized best practices from abroad.

I would be worried about [RTP] and be troubled about them if they say, ‘Well here’s what we’re going to do: We’ve got programming from the international corporation ... this is how we did it in other countries. This is how we’re going to do it to you.’ Oh shit. Here we go again, some experts found a way to solve our problems and make our kids healthy and brighter and happier... We need to include them everywhere... the children, we have to hear them and be sensitive to them. (E)

Being creative and adaptive

CMs also found ways to build on what they had in order to meet the needs of the programme. For example, one CM did not have access to any kind of traditional sports facilities, so they managed to create a hockey rink out of a garage:

There’s an industrial garage that’s not being used, that doesn’t have a door. If we put boards up, it’s not going to be legal size but we’ll have an indoor hockey rink. (CM5)

In another instance, a CM described using the fire hall to host some of his activities:

“We don’t have any kind of community center or anything ree-based or anything... when there is actually something like the garage of the fire hall, they take the trucks out and they’ll have a community meal in there.” (CM1)

Most CMs appreciated that they were able to adapt the program to fit their community needs better: “this new [module] is actually better because it’s more flexible” (CM8). Another CM stated,

This is how I achieve my goals, using 75% [of the programme module] and maybe adding 25% of my own thoughts because I know how my community is and you know best for your community, you know... It’s where you have to become creative in how to make it work. Without you putting in your imagination to what you’re doing, it’s not going to work. (CM6)
Being a positive presence for the youth

CMs also found creative ways to overcome some of the behavioural issues they were aware of with youth in the community. Most of them had an empathetic approach that recognized that these youth may be dealing with very stressful and serious situations in other parts of their lives and that these behaviours may be the result of trauma. This is the approach one of the CMs uses that she described:

Give the kids the trust and the security that you will be there for them, even if it’s outside of the time frame that you’re supposed to be there... Go above and beyond what they expect from you. (CM5)

Similarly, another CM emphasized the importance of really being there for the youth and supporting them:

I just come from a very positive way too. Like, just want to be as positive as I can for young people because you don’t know what kind of story they’re coming from, or how the day went or whatever... So whatever I’m doing, I just try and be really positive, like I’ll use quotes, I’ll use songs, I’ll use whatever, pictures, stories. I’ll invite people in who are funnier than me. (CM7)

Some participants were struggling with other mental health issues, such as anxiety. This CM shares how he tried to support the youth by helping them cope with anxiety and helping them better understand their surroundings:

They have anxiety problems, I've noticed. So things that are a potential danger for them, cause them to have pretty severe reactions... And so I do a lot of talking with them and explain things to them when it comes to that. Like they walk down the road, and they'll hear something in the bush and be scared of what it is, not knowing what it is. But if you can explain it to them and tell them, ‘This is your land, your home. There is nothing here that you should be scared of. This is for you.’ (CM1)

The Elder who was involved with the programme also emphasized the importance of being open-minded and compassionate with the youth in order to learn from them:

Being open is really important. Being non-judgemental, being kind and compassionate... Be patient and tolerant and most importantly, do it with a sense and spirit of love and compassion. (E)

Applying experiential learning techniques

One way that CMs made the programme more appealing to youth was through finding activities that provided education without creating a classroom environment. The CMs felt that many of the youth did not feel comfortable or would lose interest in typical educational activities.

My kids were interested in the fun games and the fun team-building exercises and you know, drawing or something. They just didn’t want any bookwork, you know? "Please don’t give me any paper to write on!” You know? That sort of thing. (CM2)

Another CM stated,

It’s their choice to run it, rather than me telling them what to do. Because I don’t want to make them feel like they’re in high school, where they’re actually told what to do, how to do it. I like to give them the choice, where they feel like they can do what they want, but responsibly. (CM4)

As a result the CMs talked about how a lot of the lessons were intermingled with other activities or provided within applied or experiential contexts without using traditional learning resources.

When we’re cooking and stuff, and they’re prepping, we’ll bring up the things that are in [the programme module] with them, and just have like open dialog. But we’re touching on all the points that it says in the sessions... but it’s not sitting down at a table... it’s more about the evening and getting it done and they don’t even realize that they’re talking about it. (CM9)

Balancing the integration of culture with youth voice

Sometimes the CMs had to feel out how the youth felt about involving culture in the programme activities. They had to create a safe space to allow the youth to explore their traditional culture. As a result, CMs used different strategies to bring culture into the programme:

Whenever we do some activities, I always ask the kids, ‘Do we want to do something cultural?’ And if they’re ‘Yes, but we don’t know how to do this’ and I say ‘Oh well, we can find a way to do that’. (CM2)
Another CM commented that,

Some of the young kids, may not follow their parents or grandparents walk or ways, but they’re going to become adults. And to me, I believe in giving them choice, allowing them, educating them, let them know the knowledge of both ends, and they’ll have to make their choices. Pushing one or another on to them is just, you’re asking for a push back. (CM3)

Another CM noted that,

I like to make them comfortable. So, whenever I do an event or a gathering or a meeting with them, I kind of like set the stage, so I’ll have snacks, I’ll have water, I’ll have music playing that I think they like, or like my favourite music to make me comfortable because I get nervous too and I’ll, if I need it, I’ll bring my bundle, so, my smudge, my feather, that kind of stuff. (CM7)

Building on youth cultural interests is also an important way that the CMs increased youth participation and created momentum in the programme. Connection to the land and nature is an important value within FNMI cultures, so many of the youth were interested in more traditional outdoor sports rather than team sports. Some community programmes were built around those kinds of activities:

It clicked really fast with the boys because we’re all hunters and fishers and stuff like that so they really looked to me to, to have those kinds of conversations and stuff like that. So it happened really fast once they knew that we have similar interests, it was snap of a finger and they were interested... So that’s what I’d like to do is organize a hunting trip in the fall time and maybe some kind of fishing derby as an intergenerational event in the summertime or something like that. (CM1)

Another CM said of activities,

The other thing is to get outside... I grew up outside and I just loved it, so I just want to try and bring that back, so all of my gatherings or meetings or whatever, there’s always something to do outside. (CM7)

Identifying partnerships and developing relationships with the community

Ideally, the programme was developed to involve and engage the community along with the youth participants. CMs were able to achieve this in a variety of ways. Some were able to find volunteers who contributed to the programme in important ways. Others were able to develop partnerships and coordinate with other programmes and institutions within the community to make the programme stronger and more integrated. This is an example of how one of the CMs involved law enforcement to create a more positive relationship between the police officers and the youth in his community:

In our communities, I try to involve the police ... most of our kids growing up have been either ripped away from their home or seen a parent or their family member, or even, on the street were taken away by the police and not understanding. So they get the idea that they’re only there to make them sad or hurt them or take away my family or myself. So I involve them with all the activities, and they’re great. And now the kids are building that relationship and that comfort zone to say ‘hey this isn’t a bad person, they’re here to protect me.’ (CM3)

Involving other programming has been another way that CMs create more diversity in their programme, engage with other community organizations and integrate cultural learning. For example, one CM would involve other local organizations to come and facilitate sessions that included content that supported youth empowerment and that were aligned with program objectives, such as the local YMCA or the National Child Benefit program:

We’ve just been bringing in people and making time for whatever else, like sexual health or the gambling awareness or traditional teachings. Just a whole slew of things. (CM10)

CMs also found community members who were willing to help with the programme on a volunteer basis, by contributing their time and skills to help with community events or regular programming. Here is an example of how the school bus driver provided transportation support within one programme:

With the after-school programme, these kids didn’t have a way home. ... And the education director said, ‘Yeah, don’t worry about the fuel and the cost, if [the bus driver] is willing to do it, we’re going to do this.’ (CM3)

Sometimes, CMs were able to engage volunteers on a more casual basis. They would find people who were willing to offer their help occasionally, without getting closely involved with the programme:

I’ve had people offer their support when they can or when it’s convenient for them and when it was during an event and they can help do a clean-up or something physical like that. Like they don’t mind lending a helping hand and

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they're just not interested in running programmes in the
community and so I don’t ask too much of them but I'm
happy for the respect that they show me. (CM1)

Challenges

There was a range of different challenges that were
perceived to have affected the implementation of the
programme, but there were several that were more salient
and widespread among the different communities. The three
themes that emerged under challenges were community
diversity, social issues and staff burn-out.

Community diversity

Since this programme is being implemented across 88
different communities that range tremendously in context
and character, there were many instances where the
programme could not be transferred to a new community
without having to make substantial adjustments. These
differences had a great impact on operations and created a
fair amount of stress for staff and CMs. One example that
was often mentioned was the diversity in culture among the
communities. Many communities really valued traditional
beliefs and customs, while other communities were not as
comfortable with them. This meant that programming could
not always be communicated in the same way and activities
needed to be adapted to fit the context so that participants
and community members could see value in the programme:

Each community is so different, right? And that’s what I
find a challenge too sometimes, because I work in three
different communities, and all three are so different. You
know, some follow cultural ways, and others do not. So you
know, it’s hard sometimes to keep track of everything.
(CM2)

Even within communities, there was a huge range in the
representation of cultures making it important for CMs to
acknowledge differences within their own groups:

They could be Lakota, they could be Cree, they could be
anything... there’s a lot of awakening going on when it
comes to the culture, there’s a lot of spiritual awakening...
People realizing the things that we need to do as a people to
re-vitalize our way of life, our culture and that’s a huge part
of it, is our ceremony, and everybody seems to be finding it
in a different place. And so when we come back to our own
home, it creates a bit of a barrier in the fact that we don’t
have the same teachings, we don’t have the exact same
ceremonies. (CM1)

Another variable that demonstrated a huge contrast between
communities was geography and infrastructure. This
influenced the operations of the programme since not
everyone had the same access to resources. Some of the
communities that were served by the programme were
located within urban centres, while others were on reserve.
Some of the more remote communities were only accessible
by boat, airplane or ice road. As such, programming had to
be planned around unpredictable weather conditions:

We have the ice road and we don't know when the meltdown
is going to come and everything like that. (CM3)

Another CM noted,

We have the limitation of how remote we are. We don't have
a school, we have portables. We don't have a gym. We don't
have a ball field. We don't have a soccer field. We don't
have a hockey rink. (CM5)

These differences in infrastructure created a barrier for some
programmes in terms of finding a consistent venue for
sports and other activities. This forced some CMs to run
their programming out of fire station garages and public
health building basements, while others had a full
community centre available with a gym and youth room
equipped with state-of-the-art audio-visual equipment. For
some CMs, the scarcity of venues within their community
created logistical problems when they were trying to run
activities.

The biggest problem would have to be, venue, a place to
have the activities. Because there’s always people that are
wanting a gym, struggling to get a place. Or if we want to
do this, and there’s something going on, that they don’t
kind of overlap us, they’ll chose the bigger. (CM4)

Some CMs were even struggling with community crises
related to flooding and sewage problems conflicting with
their scheduled programming: “We were supposed to do a
basketball tournament, and these guys were going to run it,
but that’s when the evacuation happened and so we had to
close everything.” (CM11)

Social issues

Another challenge for program implementation concerned
social issues that can affect FNMI communities; these are
the problems that have been linked to colonial policy and
practice, including domestic violence and family
downbreak, widespread addictions, lateral violence and
behavioural issues.
Knowing the events and evolution of our people, as aboriginal people. You know the assimilation policy, the Indian Act, the residential schools, and all these other things that happened, alcohol and drugs, family violence, family breakdown... There’s some alienation, some fragmentation. It’s not a cohesive community family here. (E)

A CM noted that,

There’s so much bullying happening right now. There’s suicides that take place, there hasn’t been any lately, thank goodness. You go on Facebook and adults are attacking other adults. (CM2)

There is also a lot of stress placed on the CMs because many of the youth themselves are dealing with issues related to addiction and mental health:

Some of the activities would draw certain things out of them that would bring out an emotional response that could be of a negative perspective that maybe the youth could have... and I did witness some of that. You know the way some of the youth were acting. Their emotions start going, so that’s when I had to go and talk to the health professionals and then start talking to psychologists and NADAP, like for drugs and alcohol and get a better understanding of the behaviours. So I took mental health first aid because of that. So I felt that some of these things were inappropriate for me to go out and do it, right? Because I might draw something out that’s not supposed to be there. (CM9)

Because of the prevalence of social issues within the families, it was challenging for the CMs to engage with and involve the parents and other family members:

We have a lot of, the generation of ... 25-40 are the ones most affected by the OxyContin. ... so they, for the most part, have lost their children in some way shape or form... So grandparents at the age of 65 are raising 10 year old kids. Usually they all live in the same house because we don’t have enough houses but they’re legal guardians a lot of the time... These are the kids that are in my programme. And a lot of those grandparents don’t speak English, they only speak Cree. (CM5)

This created problems increasing participation with the youth, finding volunteers and developing greater community involvement. There was also a lack of trust because of past experiences with western institutions and programmes. This created barriers in developing relationships and increasing involvement:

Our communities are so closed up to the Westernized, because of the fact that they’ve been hurt so many times - we’re talking residential schools, sixties scoop... they’re still healing. So, we need to bring these places and these organizations to a lot of them, to build the trust... Sometimes you forget, they won’t even go to people in their own community, because of their fear of the confidentiality being broken. (CM3)

Staff burn-out

Since there are so many demands placed on the CMs, many of them feel very overwhelmed within their role. This stress is related to the challenge of meeting all the requirements related to the position, as well as all of the barriers they need to overcome in order to get their programme running smoothly. As a result, many CMs were unable to remain in their position and this affected the staff turnover rate. One of the CMs discussed some of the issues he was experiencing, including difficulties obtaining outside funding and completing the administrative work:

We try to do as much possible, of getting out there, getting other funding and whatnot. [RTP] support us greatly with everything, but it’s the financial part. Because we’re so busy doing programming, event planning, working, you know, so many hours, that trying to do our own grants, is difficult. Like, my normal week, is usually from 8:30 in the morning to 6:30 at night. That’s just with the lessons during the day, and the after-school programme. That’s doesn’t include me going afterwards and doing the extras of doing my paperwork, and getting things, or doing the extras to make sure that the kids are set up. (CM3)

One CM was working with three different communities and described the added strain of driving in dangerous conditions along with all the programming:

So I get up early in the morning and I spend all day there, and I don’t do just RTP program, we’ll do Lacrosse programming and I’m also a Skate Canada coach, so I’ll do Learn To Skate sessions. So I utilize everything in one day, to do it. But it’s the travel. That’s what really drains me, is the travel, because it is so much. And winter road conditions... icy conditions, accidents all over. And that’s what you have to face so, it’s not just the stress whenever you go to the communities, because they’re really thankful that I’m there, but it’s just getting there and having pulled muscles up here because you’re just like this, eh? [demonstrates gripping the steering wheel]. (CM2)
Another CM discussed how many of their colleagues feel the same way about the pressure of the job:

That was a big thing at our last CM training, we had a sharing circle with an Elder and it just came out, like, blah, everyone’s so tired and over-worked. Everything is just, go, go, go, I mean, it’s just like so much to do. (CM10)

**DISCUSSION**

This paper describes an evaluation of contextual issues associated with the implementation of a SfD leadership programme across diverse FNMI communities. A number of successful strategies that the staff employed in order to improve programme implementation were identified. These strategies were related to adapting the programme to meet participant, community and contextual needs. However, a number of challenges encountered while implementing the programme were also noted. Below is a discussion of the results of this study in regards to previous research as well as recommendations for both researchers and practitioners working in the SfD field.

The main approach of this programme is to develop leadership for youth and communities. The results regarding youth empowerment strategies highlight the importance of this strategy since many of the CMs felt the leadership component was a key to the success of the programme. They felt that this approach helped to get youth engaged and facilitated the achievement of their goals. There is a wealth of research that highlights the benefits of promoting leadership within PYD programs. Relatively, researchers have identified that FNMI communities with more influence over their own community affairs exhibit lower youth suicide rates than those communities with less agency over community affairs. Furthermore, Hayhurst and Giles suggest that within the field of SfD, the state discharge of authority over programming may create more opportunities for FNMI communities to employ self-determination.

The descriptions of balancing culture with youth agency also reinforce the importance of leadership development. The CM narratives highlight the importance of community agency over a standardized emphasis on historical cultural tradition. This suggests that contemporary community values and experiences should be acknowledged and valued whether they align with traditional practices or not. This is substantiated by other research in the SfD field that underscores the importance of participatory approaches that highlight local perspectives. Hayhurst, Giles and Radforth applied a participatory strategy that employed sharing circles and photovoice with young FNMI women participating in sport programming at an urban friendship centre. Although they found that cultural practices were important, their findings also indicated the need for the FNMI youth to be empowered and to highlight their specific perspective. Kay also underscores the importance of advancing local knowledge and how this can help to decolonize SfD research.

One way that SfD leadership programmes for FNMI youth can foster leadership is to create more advancement opportunities for community members such as the youth participants and CMs. This is also an important way to strengthen internal organizational capacity regarding indigenous knowledge. In other studies, researchers have specifically recommended recruiting indigenous staff within organizations that aim to promote leadership with FNMI youth. In addition, new recruits from the mainstream culture would benefit from indigenous knowledge and sensitivity training as part of their capacity development. Cultural sensitivity training has been identified as an important organizational need within other FNMI research as well.

Another notable strategy that was implemented is to deviate from a western pedagogical style and toward a more experiential learning environment. Researchers have identified that experiential learning is a preferred learning style for First Nations youth and that classroom-style learning experiences can be less applicable to life on reserves. Researchers recommend that hands-on and group-work related activities should be maximized in order to enhance the students’ learning environment. Much of the programme curriculum is centred on energizers and play-based activities that allow learning to be facilitated in an informal and fun setting. This style of learning has been identified as a best practice with experts in child and youth participatory engagement.

The results of this study highlight the importance of being creative and adaptive to contextual needs. The CMs found many creative ways to adapt community infrastructure to incorporate activities and events. They also shared strategies they used to adapt the program to meet community needs. These are important considerations that can be applied when implementing other SfD leadership programmes within FNMI communities. This strategy has been supported by research. For example, researchers have suggested that contextual influences may lead to different developmental outcomes and that sports programming should be tailored to meet individual youth needs. Parent suggests that in order to better serve FNMI youth, programmes and services...
should incorporate youth perspectives and cultural contexts. Recognizing that some FNMI youth may have a stronger affinity for traditional sports such as hunting and fishing, rather than typical western team sports is an important consideration to make in programme design. For example, outdoor adventure-based programming has been demonstrated to be successful in increasing the resilience of FNMI youth and is reflective of the FNMI traditional value of connection to the land.

Finally, being a positive presence for youth was identified as an important way to help youth to get engaged in the program. There are numerous studies in PYD programming that have identified having a caring adult as a fundamental program component. This approach would be particularly important when dealing with youth who may be coping with mental health issues and might be exhibiting negative behaviours or experience anxiety in new situations. The CMs emphasized the importance of taking an optimistic, compassionate approach and providing a secure environment that creates the space the youth need to feel safe and welcome.

Many of the perceived challenges identified by CMs are supported by research evidence. Researchers have recognized that there is considerable diversity among Canadian FNMI communities. According to Statistics Canada, there are more than 600 First Nations bands, speaking 60 different languages. FNMI youth continue to be exposed to elevated rates of domestic issues, including increased rates of maltreatment in child welfare cases and high rates of spousal violence. Finally, evaluations of other strengths-based programming for FNMI youth have encountered similar challenges such as obstacles related to engaging parents and difficulties making life skills transferable for youth.

**Recommendations**

Based on the feedback related to the challenges, there are several recommendations that can be made. Since CMs are feeling overworked and stressed in their roles, it is important for them to receive more support. This can be facilitated through several strategies. Resources can be developed and tailored to provide more targeted and relevant information for each community. For example, success stories for northern communities dealing with cost savings challenges can be compiled and applied to these specific situations when they arise in future. Many FNMI youth are suffering from historical trauma. As a result, many CMs felt unprepared to help the youth cope with the distress they were experiencing. Identifying community supports who can help the youth in these areas along with offering some introductory training in managing trauma.

Technology has been used in very innovative and participatory ways in order to enhance mental health outcomes with youth. Since many youth, staff and community members are familiar with and use smart devices and social technology, these tools could be incorporated to facilitate programme operations and improve efficiency. This programme is being implemented across a wide geographic area and this technology could be used to bring CMs together more regularly. It might also be useful to partner CMs who are experiencing similar contexts and challenges. This strategy would be particularly effective for new CMs who could benefit from the knowledge of more experienced CMs. Setting up forums and encouraging regular communication among CMs might help them to feel more supported and to develop informal knowledge as in Communities of Practice.

Another way that technology could be used to support CMs in their roles would be to automate some of the administrative work. Targeting and automating monitoring that can be rolled up to programme staff more easily would reduce the workload. For example, one strategy would be to use photos taken during group nights to create a headcount and facilitate attendance monitoring to capture participation rates. Dictation software (which is available on many mobile devices) and online survey software would also make monitoring and evaluation more efficient.

There are several recommendations that can be made for other evaluators working to examine youth programming in FNMI communities. Relationship building is a very important step in the research process. It is a necessary pre-requisite for identifying individuals with in-depth knowledge and experience in the programme. It is also important for adaptations in data collection procedures. For example, interviews can be refined so that the terms and language used are more relevant to the context and orientation of the participant. Ongoing engagement with community members is also essential for having a meaningful understanding of the experiences of those connected with the programme. Since each community was so different, it took time to be able to develop a clear picture of the dynamics within each situation.

It is also very important to collaborate with other indigenous leaders. This research benefitted from the insight and creativity contributed by FNMI leaders, which includes Elders, indigenous researchers both from within and outside of the research team, and indigenous leaders within the RTP.
organization. These individuals made some of the best contributions to the design, execution and conceptualization of this research. Many of the insights that contributed to the findings were achieved through in-depth discussions and reflection with the Elders and FNMI colleagues. Many of the community connections were also made through the direct support of FNMI leaders within RTP.

When working with communities, it is important to look for unique opportunities to contribute through ways such as research capacity-building and grant-writing. In this setting, the CMs had different needs depending on their situation. Some needed help with grant writing within their fund-raising efforts. Others needed support finding programme materials or exploring outside events that would benefit their programme participants. It is also important to identify the unique needs of the CMs regarding knowledge exchange. Taking the time to discuss and identify the content and format of the findings that would be most useful for them would be a key component in developing an effective partnership for programme evaluation.

In communities with an interest in outcome evaluation, it is recommended that programme staff pilot an adaptable measure that was developed for FNMI youth such as the Aanish Naa Gegi. This would allow them to examine developmental changes created by the programme. Using photovoice and participatory evaluation methods to examine a handful of events more in-depth would be a useful way to get a stronger understanding of youth perceptions and experiences within the programme. Moreover, this method has been used successfully with other FNMI communities and youth.

**Strengths and Limitations**

This formative evaluation was responsive to local needs since it placed a focus on community member perspectives. Given that indigenous cultures value the tradition of story-telling as an important method of sharing knowledge, this research emphasized story-telling through the use of rich narrative descriptions that detail personal experiences within the programme. Finally, this research benefitted from the engagement of an advisory committee composed of Elders, indigenous researchers and indigenous programme staff. They all played a pivotal role in guiding the research development, providing feedback regarding methods and offering insight to improve contextual understanding.

This study is limited as it examines programme perceptions rather than direct observations. Future examinations of programme operations would benefit from a more comprehensive description of process issues including information regarding participant exposure, partnership development, community infrastructure and programme activity logs. Developmental evaluation is an approach that is well-suited to complex and changing environments as it allows for innovation in methodology. Researchers have identified this as a valuable approach to evaluation within contexts that use youth engagement to guide programming as well as within community-based research with FNMI youth. This research would have benefited from using a developmental evaluation approach; however, since the evaluators were working externally, there was not as many opportunities to work closely with the communities and to collaborate on a timely basis. Finally, this evaluation was designed with the intention of applying the findings to practice, both within RTP and for other organizations implementing leadership programs for FNMI youth. Reports were provided to the organization on a regular basis and presentations of the findings and recommendations were provided throughout the term of the research. However, as a result of high turnover in leadership as well as difficulties maintaining pace with program operations, the findings were not applied to the extent that was originally intended. In the future, it may be beneficial to implement strategies that focus on capacity-building and that integrate research and evaluation within internal monitoring practices. Consequently, organizational infrastructure and knowledge can be improved, increasing the opportunity for the utilization of findings.

**CONCLUSION**

This research applied a qualitative approach that highlighted local community member perceptions and examines both programme context and implementation. Results indicated that there are many challenges that must be navigated in order to successfully implement SfD leadership programming for youth within FNMI communities. Recognizing this adversity, frontline staff have developed creative strategies to overcome programming obstacles including making adaptations to the programme, creating community partnerships and supporting youth empowerment. These are important strategies that are applicable within SfD programmes designed to enhance leadership for FNMI youth. If other organizations incorporate these components, they may be able to create a programme that is truly integrated with and led by the community. Lessons learned may also be useful for researchers and evaluators working in these contexts.
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‘A phone call changed my life’: Exploring the motivations of sport for development and peace scholars

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore the initial motivations of scholars to engage with the sport for development and peace (SDP) field, to ascertain reasons why they stay involved, and to examine their perceptions of and motivations towards future scholarship. We conducted interviews with eight SDP scholars. Findings indicated scholars were initially motivated intrinsically through personal interest and extrinsically by the perception of opportunity. Scholars remained involved when their needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness were met. Scholars also explicated many intriguing future directions for scholarship that are related to their ongoing motivations to remain involved in SDP.

INTRODUCTION

Increasingly, more and more scholars are becoming engaged with the sport for development and peace (SDP) field in a variety of ways. Scholars are involved in policy and theoretical discourse, conducting basic and applied research along multiple fronts, as well as focusing on community engagement work through monitoring and evaluation efforts with SDP organisations. The SDP field is quite broad and can be defined as using sport as an engine of development through intercultural exchange, community engagement, conflict resolution and peace building, assisting marginalised populations, or through focusing on public health. This broad scope of SDP allows scholars from myriad disciplines such as sport management, sport sociology, recreation, development, sociology, psychology, business, and more to find avenues within the field to pursue their research agendas.¹

With the increasing number of scholars moving into the SDP field from various disciplines and conducting research along multiple agendas, it is important to ascertain their motives for becoming involved and also why they remain engaged with the field over time. Relatedly, it will be beneficial to ascertain scholars’ views on future directions for SDP scholarship and practice, and how these opportunities relate to their intentions to remain involved in the field. There is much opportunity for scholars and students in this young field; in a recent integrated literature review of over 400 articles pertaining to SDP, Schulenkorf, Sherry, and Rowe reflected on existing research and call for new lines of inquiry that aim to contribute to theory and practice. From a broader perspective, studies have aimed to understand the motivations and experiences of academics, and call for more research across disciplines to enhance an understanding of faculty motivations.³,⁴

Specifically, understanding the motives of SDP scholars including why they stay involved over time is critical for growing the field. Developing this understanding could provide a basis to attract new scholars and students from different disciplines to the field and encourage higher education institutions to provide support and pathways for young scholars. Understanding SDP scholar motivations could serve as a valuable tool towards enhancing continued effective scholarship and prevent burnout or apathy as academic careers progress. Faculty and students considering SDP as a research focus may find it helpful to understand why other scholars have engaged with SDP initially and over the long term. Specifically, this could give them direction to pursue SDP as a viable line of inquiry, which would contribute to advancing scholarship and teaching in SDP. Thus, the purpose of the present study

Keywords: Scholar motivations, sport for development and peace, self-determination theory, faculty motivations

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was to explore the initial motivations of scholars to engage with the SDP field, to ascertain reasons why they stay involved, and to examine their perceptions of and motivations towards future scholarship. The present study is part of a larger project, which examines the initial barriers and strategies scholars have encountered and utilised when working in the SDP field\(^8\), and the specific challenges faced and strategies they have employed when forming research partnerships with SDP organisations.\(^8\)

**THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW**

**Self-Determination Theory**

To understand motivations of SDP scholars to initially engage with and to continue working in the field, we tapped Deci and Ryan’s\(^5\) Self-Determination Theory (SDT) to help accomplish this aim. According to SDT, individuals can be motivated intrinsically and extrinsically. Intrinsic motivation refers to a person engaging in an activity for the valued engagement and potential rewards of the activity itself. The activity is inherently satisfying, so he or she is moved to action based on the fun and pleasure of taking part in the activity, rather than for the possibility of any external reward or positive reinforcement.\(^8\) Extrinsic motivation, conversely, is behaviour that is driven by pressure or rewards that exist external to oneself.\(^10\)

Ryan and Deci\(^8\) were the first to argue that there are different types of extrinsic motivation; thus, SDT operates on a continuum from amotivation, through four types of extrinsic motivation, to intrinsic motivation. Amotivation simply refers to lack of motivation for action. The four types of extrinsic motivation are external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation, with external regulation closest to amotivation and integrated regulation closest to intrinsic motivation. External regulation is motivation in which external rewards are the most important driver of the behaviour, as in a scholar engaging in a research agenda because he/she believes it will enable him/her to attain tenure and promotion. Introjected regulation occurs when people are motivated to act by the feeling of pressure or to avoid anxiety. An example would be a scholar pursuing a research agenda because of peer or department pressure to do so, because he or she believes it will enhance prestige, or simply because it is a requirement for career enhancement. Identified regulation occurs when a person has identified with the value of an action, and is self-regulating the action; for example, a scholar engages in a research line because he or she identifies with the value of a particular research agenda and wishes to be associated with it. Finally, integrated regulation is when an individual internalises the value of an action. A scholar demonstrates integrated regulation when he or she believes in the worth of a research agenda and that this focus aligns with his or her internal values.

In addition, Ryan and Deci\(^8\) described three pivotal psychological needs that fuel motivation: sense of autonomy, relatedness, and feelings of competence. Sense of autonomy refers to a person’s desire to be a causal agent in one’s life, and to have an internal locus of control. Relatedness is the universal urge to be connected to and interact with others, while competence is the desire to experience mastery of something. Enhancing these psychological needs helps one move from an extrinsically motivated state to an intrinsically motivated one.\(^7\)

**Motivation Research**

To further guide the present study, we drew from literature on workplace motivation, the general scholar motivation literature, and literature on motivations of humanitarian workers. Deckop and Cirka\(^7\) found merit-pay programmes decreased feelings of autonomy and intrinsic motivation, indicating introduction of extrinsic rewards can undermine intrinsic motivation. Additionally, Vansteenkiste et al.\(^10\) explored employee motivation orientation, finding that extrinsic motivation led to less positive outcomes, such as decreased job satisfaction and higher emotional exhaustion. They attributed this to employees’ lack of satisfaction of the psychological needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness. Several studies have also found a connection between feelings of autonomy and positive workplace outcomes. For example, a seminal study by Deci, Connell, and Ryan\(^11\) measured many aspects of workplace satisfaction including job satisfaction, trust in management, quality of supervision and viewing the environment as supportive. Their findings showed an increase in these outcomes after an intervention to encourage managers to adopt a strategy supporting employees’ self-determination.

Gagne, Koestner, and Zuckerman\(^12\) showed that facilitating an employee’s autonomy facilitated greater internalisation, which can lead to more positive workplace outcomes. Additionally, support for autonomy resulted in greater acceptance of organisational change. With regards to organisational commitment, Gagne, Boies, Koestner\(^13\), and Martens found that autonomy led to employees being more committed to the organisation’s goals and to actively working toward them. Other research has indicated additional positive outcomes for employers utilising a
needs-fulfillment model in the workplace, such as better quality of work life, enhanced job performance and greater perceived internal employability.

Concerning faculty motivations, previous research has shown that the main factors affecting faculty productivity are rank, research time, valuing of research, departmental support, research-related advising, self-efficacy in research and intrinsic motivation for research. Work in this area has demonstrated faculty are motivated externally by rewards such as tenure, promotion, merit pay, travel support, and special privileges. Faculty are also motivated internally by wanting to engage in problem-solving, helping others, wishing to make a difference in the lives of others or society, feeling a sense of competence, and having opportunities for learning. Further research has found that there are differences in motivation and research productivity between tenured and untenured faculty with untenured faculty more motivated by extrinsic rewards. Additionally, research productivity is positively related to tenure status. There have been a few studies exploring scholar motivation to engage with industry. D’Este and Perkmann found that academics engage with industry primarily to advance their own research, while other research has shown that motivation can vary depending on the career stage of the researcher, since early career scholars are focused more on building their careers within academia, whereas senior researchers were more likely to reach out to industry.

We also drew from literature regarding motivations of individuals to engage in humanitarian work because there are parallels between SDP scholars working in communities to provide intervention programmes for social good and humanitarian aid workers engaging in social welfare projects. Across several studies of humanitarian aid workers, one of the strongest initial and ongoing motivations was wanting to contribute to society and to provide tangible assistance to individuals in need. Other motivations include the search for personal development and self-knowledge, a search for new experiences to learn about new parts of the world, a desire for more satisfying work, recognition and self-esteem, professional competence, mastery, to challenge oneself, and to develop relationships with people from other cultures.

To sustain the interest and motivation of humanitarian aid workers over time, they must have positive experiences, feel satisfied with their work, and continue to identify with the organisation’s mission and values. Their expectations related to self, the organisation, an the mission should be satisfied in order to sustain involvement, and their motivations may change over time. Motivations of humanitarian aid workers can also be a combination of altruism (intrinsic) and self-interest (extrinsic). As Norland says, “perfect altruism is not possible” (p.398).

Thus, informed by Self-Determination Theory and the literature reviewed above, we developed three research questions to guide this study:

**RQ1:** What are the motivations of scholars to initially engage with the SDP field?

**RQ2:** Why do scholars stay involved in the SDP field over time?

**RQ3:** What are scholars’ perceptions of, and motivations towards, future directions for SDP scholarship?

**METHOD**

Scholars have called for exploratory qualitative investigations that aim to increase our understanding of faculty motivations and actions. Others have also called for qualitative inquiry regarding faculties’ rationales and motivations to showcase their cognitive processes towards remaining at their position or leaving. Therefore, to ascertain the motivations of SDP scholars, we conducted in-depth interviews with leading scholars within the SDP field.

**Participants and Procedures**

Upon obtaining Institutional Review Board approval, our aim was to purposively sample academics who had published and had their work cited frequently in recognised journals within sport management, sport sociology, and other fields, including the Journal of Sport Management, Sport Management Review, the International Review for the Sociology of Sport, Sport and Society, Journal of Sport and Social Issues, the Journal of Sport for Development, and Third World Quarterly, among others. We employed searches within Google Scholar and ProQuest search engines on key words of ‘sport for development and peace’, ‘sport for development’, and ‘sport for social change’ to identify authors who had been regularly cited by other academics. In addition, we wished to speak with scholars who had varied foci within their research agendas such as community sport, conflict resolution initiatives, sport policy and social inclusion. We also wished to engage with scholars who had varied tenures as academics, as this would provide for perspectives from relatively new academics as well as more seasoned scholars who could then speak better about their long-term motivations for staying engaged in the SDP field. In addition, we aimed to speak with scholars representing diverse geographic locations where they were employed or conducted research.
Beyond the process highlighted above for our sample selection criteria, we also wished to include scholars utilising a variety of methodological approaches, including academics who had action research or field experiences that would allow them to speak on how their interactions influenced their motivations. Half of our interviewees specifically employed participatory action research (PAR) methods in their personal research: Burnett,31,32,33 Frisby,34,35,36 Green,37,38 and Sherry.39,40,41

This process generated a list of 12 leading academics in the SDP field. Each was invited to take part in our investigation through a personalised email with eight researchers who subsequently agreed to participate. Specifically, each consenting academic volunteered to take part in a semi-structured, personal interview by phone or Skype with one of the first two authors that lasted 60-90 minutes. All study participants agreed to have their names and institutions included in study reports and publications. The eight participants included: Dr. Cora Burnett, University of Johannesburg, South Africa; Dr. Simon Darnell, University of Toronto, Canada; Dr. Wendy Frisby (now retired), University of British Columbia, Canada; Dr. B. Christine Green, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, U.S.; Dr. Mary Hums, University of Louisville, U.S.; Dr. Roger Levermore, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology; Dr. Nico Schelenkorf, University of Technology, Australia; and Dr. Emma Sherry, La Trobe University, Australia. The scholars ranged in their academic lifespan from relatively early in their academic careers (e.g., Darnell, Sherry, Schelenkorf) to 15 or more years of academic work (e.g., Burnett, Frisby, Hums).

Our study aimed to capture the thoughts of academics such as Ingham and Donnelly42 who highlighted the need for scholarship and growth in the sociology of sport field. In an article written for the 50th anniversary of the International Sociology of Sport Association in the International Review for the Sociology of Sport, Markula43 stated “if previous critiques have been ineffective in terms of praxis and social change, we need new tools.” In this spirit of inquiry, this study emerged from an overarching investigation with SDP scholars into their experiences in the field connecting scholarship and praxis. Previous findings highlighted the dynamics of research partnerships5 and academic challenges of the field.5 Guided by a semi-structured interview protocol and an inductive qualitative approach,44 we conducted follow-up questions with each scholar when the topic of motivations was broached. Our initial question guide for the broader study was driven by literature pertaining to scholar experiences in SDP, with sample questions such as: (a) "How did you initially become involved in the SDP field?" and (b) “Why do you continue to work in academia?” When every interviewee discussed their personal motivations, we probed further by asking follow-up questions based on SDT and the motivation literature7,10,18,20 such as: (a) “What are some of the primary motivations that drive your personal academic efforts?” and (b) "What has motivated you to remain involved in this field of research?” This semi-structured format permitted a free-flowing discussion between the interviewers and study participants, which allowed for the possibility to expand on relevant commentary and remarks.45

Data Analysis

The first step in the data analysis process entailed transcribing each audio-recorded interview verbatim. The motivation literature and SDT10 guided the coding process to yield a priori categories and steer the thematic analysis.46 Along with analysis based on themes guided by SDT and the motivation literature, open coding each transcript line-by-line47 was also utilised to allow for themes to emerge via a more inductive method. All codes that materialised, a priori and open, were then placed into general dimensions.47 After the first and second authors coded the data individually to form the general themes, multiple discussions took place between the authors to evaluate the coding and agree on one set of themes to strengthen the dependability of the analysis.47 Finally, once our general themes were decided upon, a selective coding process47 was utilised to target representative quotations which are presented in the findings. In addition, a member check process was undertaken with each study participant to build trustworthiness where participants reviewed both their individual transcripts and study interpretations.30 No study participants suggested changes to their transcripts and they generally agreed with study interpretations.

RESULTS

Scholars were initially motivated to engage in the SDP field (research question one) due to a mix of intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Scholars then remained involved in SDP (research question two) when their needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness were met and their initial motives satisfied.10 Finally, the scholars explicated many intriguing future directions for scholarship that were related to their ongoing motivations to remain involved in SDP work (research question three).
**RQ1: Initial Motivations to Engage in the SDF Field**

Seven of the eight scholars were motivated both intrinsically and extrinsically to first engage with the SDF field, while one spoke about extrinsic motivations only.

**Intrinsic motivations to initially engage in the SDP field.**

The primary intrinsic motivation for many scholars was their personal background and experiences, which then fostered a genuine interest in SDP. For instance, Darnell spoke about his background and how this then attracted him to SDP work:

In many ways I moved into this from personal experience . . . . My parents are both pretty politically active, and I grew up in that culture . . . . I was looking to combine my interest in development, poverty, and education with my interest in sport.

Similarly, for Hums, she explained how an incident earlier in life nudged her towards work in adaptive and disability sport:

I had a friend and colleague. We were in a bicycle accident together. One of us came back and one of us didn’t. She was severely disabled. . . . She’d always been a sports person, and throughout her rehabilitation I was able to see how sport helped her. I saw what sport did for her . . . and that pushed me into sport and disability work.

These life experiences were influential in shaping the social justice paradigm Darnell (policy approaches) and Hums (disability sport) utilised in their work. Like Darnell and Hums, Sherry’s background growing up in a philanthropic home in Australia was instrumental in developing her interest in and approach to SDP through a social justice paradigm: “I was brought up in a very strong, small, liberal household with a strong sense of social justice and family history of doing [social justice work]. . . . It’s really the idea of social inclusion that interests and attracted me.”

Others did not talk so much about their personal background as being influential in their decision to become involved in SDP, but rather an intense, genuine interest in the SDP arena. For example, Levermore spoke about his passion for combining focal areas he enjoyed: “My real passion was development studies, and it was quite a natural extension to carry on and look at sport and development studies. That’s how I started.” Green came into SDP because she was “very interested in the relationship between developing sport and developing athletes, and developing people and communities. That’s what got me started.” Finally, like Frisby, Burnett shared how her interest in SDP originated when she completed a second doctorate: “My interest was kindled when I did a second doctorate in Anthropology in violence in the context of poverty. This enabled a transition and growing interest in sport for development.”

**Extrinsic motivations to initially engage in the SDP field**

Almost all scholars had a combination of extrinsic and intrinsic motivations to initially engage in the SDP field. A prominent initial extrinsic motivation perceived by all of the scholars was that there was an opportunity within SDP that could launch an exciting and sustainable academic career (introjected regulation). Schulenkorf, who was the only scholar not to identify any initial intrinsic motivations, spoke about how he first became involved in SDP through the opportunity for an internship involving sport and peace:

I had to do an internship in my undergrad in international business studies, and then decided to go to Sri Lanka where there was an opportunity to get involved in a sport for development project that was started right after the peace talks resumed. . . . I wanted to do something different to what other business students were doing.

In addition to her intrinsic drive from personal experience and interest, Sherry perceived an opportunity when she saw a magazine feature story on the Big Issue in Australia, which uses football (soccer) to help individuals suffering from homelessness make positive changes in their lives: “I saw that on the cover, I thought that sounds nice, so I contacted them to see if I could do something. I had no practitioner experience, but I am a bleeding heart lefty in sport management.” In a similar vein, Hums explained her opportunity: “Nobody was really doing anything in disability sport, and I had an interest in that area.” While Darnell was intrinsically motivated to engage in SDP from his personal background and interest, he also perceived his involvement as an opportunity: “It was the popularity of sport for development that pushed me towards it . . . I had an interest in doing research, and this led to my PhD research with young Canadians doing overseas work.”

Others perceived an opportunity to engage in evaluation and contract work to facilitate their research agenda. For instance, while intrinsically motivated by genuine interest, Green also shared how there was an opportunity to engage with organisations that led her into her research area:
Organisations made big claims about what they’re doing for kids, and what I was seeing bore no resemblance to the objectives they told me about. . . So that got me interested, and I had a number of initial partnerships with local organisations who were looking for evaluation.

Similarly, Burnett was initially motivated by genuine interest but also had an opportunity in SDP evaluation that catalysed her involvement: "It was really in terms of there was a need for evaluation studies to be done, and nobody else was there."

In addition to opportunity, two other extrinsic motivations emerged, although these were not mentioned as prominently as opportunity. First, Hums spoke about her desire to make a difference in society (identified regulation), and this drove her to become engaged in SDP, which complements her intrinsic motives of personal experience and interest: “I wanted to do something in an area of the world that would help, and to see how sport could make a difference. This helped to get me started.” Making a difference became even more prominent as a motivation for scholars to continue staying involved in SDP, as we discuss in the next theme. Finally, an initial extrinsic motivation (integrated regulation) mentioned by Frisby was the disconnect she was experiencing, and her wish to pursue a research agenda that resonated with her values, which developed through an opportunity:

It was a disconnect from people. I would sit in my office and play with statistics . . . and basically it wasn’t a good fit with my values. . . . I got a phone call from a public health nurse who had money to do a health and communities project. . . . I realised my training did not match up with the type of research that was needed. . . . I came across participatory action research and got chills all over. . . . That phone call changed my life.

RQ2: Continued Motivations to Remain Involved in SDP

Similar to their initial motivations, scholars remained involved due to a mixture of intrinsic and extrinsic factors that satisfied their initial motives and also addressed their need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness.  

Intrinsic motivations to remain involved in SDP

From an intrinsic perspective, several scholars spoke to staying engaged with the field due to continued interest, satisfaction and enjoyment derived from their work. For example, Darnell indicated how his interest in SDP remained piqued through unanswered research questions:

I was interested in, and am still interested in, how and why people in countries like Canada, the U.S., or the U.K. are drawn to make a contribution to sport for development and how we can do that ethically in terms of implementation.

Hums spoke about her sense of satisfaction she derived from being involved over the years, which keeps her engaged: “I feel like I’ve made a difference, and that feels very good. I never thought of it until now.” One of Levermore’s initial motivations was his genuine interest and passion for SDP, and this continued to sustain his attention over time even though he saw this focal area as limiting his career progression in higher education administration and development studies:

If I want to progress in my career I have to avoid writing about sport and the sports industry, but I can’t quite kick the habit, because I enjoy writing about sport and development, and I find it quite an easy subject to write about. I really like the elements of it.

Levermore continued: “I’m not sure if I should be working in this area, but I really enjoy it. It’s my passion. . . . I’m a little bit hooked and I don’t want to give it up.”

Extrinsic motivations to remain involved in SDP

While scholars had intrinsic motivations to remain involved, extrinsic motivations featured more prominently in sustaining the interest and involvement of most scholars. The perception of opportunity was a critical initial motive for many scholars and this was also a key ongoing motivation, because scholars perceived a continued viable opportunity in SDP to which they could contribute and build a niche for their work (introjected regulation). Frisby shared about her motivation to stay involved in order to continue working on projects and opportunities that build from each other:

The work is never done, but that’s another motivator, a driver for me to keep on doing it because every time you do a project you realize how much more there is to know . . . you’re just scratching the surface and there is so much more to do, and that often leads to the next idea or the next project.

Initially motivated by perceived opportunities for research in SDP, Schulenkorf continued to stay involved due to evolving opportunities:

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John Sugden liked my work in Sri Lanka and invited me to come along and spend time with him in Israel. . . . Then I got more involved on the health side, and we did work with the World Health Organization in the Pacific Islands. This has all kept me going.

For Levermore, who was similarly initially motivated to engage in SDP due to an opportunity, continuing to capitalise on this opportunity because he found SDP easy to write about kept him motivated: “I find it easier and less time consuming to write about sport for development than some of the more general development and management subjects. . . . It’s been very easy to accumulate 10 or 15 articles.” Also regarding opportunity, Humms spoke from a different angle, in that one of her continued motivations to remain involved in SDP was for her students: “One of my main interests now is to get [SDP] on our students’ radar . . . my prime motivation continues to be to get information that is usable to students.”

Another extrinsic motivation that featured prominently to sustain scholars’ interest was the perception that they had an opportunity to continue making a difference in the field (identified regulation). It is interesting to note that only one scholar (Hums) spoke about making a difference as an initial motivator to engage in SDP, but six out of the eight scholars mentioned this as an ongoing motivation to remain involved. Sherry, for instance, was initially motivated by her personal background, genuine interest, and an opportunity, but now spoke about how what sustains her interest was the perception she was making a difference in the lives of people:

The work that we do is making a difference, and that keeps me going. I’m not curing cancer, but compared to a lot of our colleagues in this broad field of sport management, I think we are actually making a difference.

Like Sherry, Burnett was also initially motivated by genuine interest and an opportunity, but now reflected that is was her perception of making a difference which continued to cultivate her interest and involvement in SDP: “I stay involved so that I can make a difference and be relevant for a wider community. . . . Academics need to be part of the solution of a country torn apart by racial divisions and violence.” Frisby also spoke about making a difference as a motivator for keeping her engaged: “It might sound pollyannish but just trying to make a difference . . . but doing it with people who are being affected by the issue and then trying to get those who control resources and decision making to make a shift.”

RQ3: Future Directions for Scholarship

Our third research question was designed to uncover scholars’ perceptions of and motivations towards future directions for SDP scholarship. The scholars outlined many intriguing future directions, but undergirding these directions was their link to motivations. Specifically, many of their perceptions for SDP research tie into their initial and continued perceptions that there are opportunities within SDP that allowed them to make a difference in society. These future directions, then, also served to keep scholars’ motivated and involved in the field.

The scholars perceived a number of future directions for scholarship related to opportunities and ways to make a difference. Frisby shared her perception that the sport management field was becoming more accepting of SDP, which could potentially bode well for new scholars and students wishing to enter the field: “Our journals deserve some credit because in some fields you may not get published if you’re doing something weird or different . . . there has been some receptivity.” To complement Frisby, Burnett thought that now was the time to get a lay of the land in SDP research with regards to approaches to SDP, theoretical insights, and methodology employed: “I think we need to take stock. What is happening out there and how can we come and bring all the body of knowledge together that we can see this is now what’s happening.”

Many scholars spoke about the need to explore different methodologies, to move beyond monitoring and evaluation, and to implement longitudinal research. For instance, Frisby thought new methods such as PAR were becoming more accepted and that this would provide more opportunities within SDP: “There is a dominance of positivistic, quantitative work out there. . . . I think that’s shifting, and I think methodologies like PAR are tied to the social justice agenda and I see a bright future there.” Sherry agreed, and believed action research would satisfy needs of scholars and SDP: “I’d like to see a lot more action research. . . . As a field, I’d love to see us start working more with the actual populations we’re investigating.”

Interestingly, other scholars perceived the need to adopt quantitative methods, as typified by Schulenkorf:

In this field at present, we don’t have too much quantitative work. Once people have established certain things and have done the qualitative work, it would be great if someone would design a quantitative piece . . . and if someone’s got the skills to do both, that would be fantastic.
Similarly, despite his skepticism, Darnell perceived a need for more quantitative work: “I have my own skepticism and critique of quantitative methodology . . . but I think there’s certainly room to allow more quantitative work that will help us get a better handle on SDP.”

Along with more quantitative studies, Green thought it was time to move beyond monitoring and evaluation in SDP studies and challenged scholars to do so:

“One of the biggest challenges for being a researcher in this area is getting beyond evaluation, to something that is more generalisable, to what is really different about managing these kinds of organisations. I think they are different, and I think there are some bigger underlying questions that could make a bigger impact theoretically and also in practice.

Many scholars spoke about the need for more longitudinal studies and that this was a great opportunity for scholars and research. Schullenkorf shared: “I think longitudinal work, is again, the most challenging methodology, but it would certainly make a big difference and is important for us to have in SDP.” Darnell agreed with Schullenkorf on the importance of thinking long term with future SDP work: “Instead of drawing hard and fast conclusions, it seems like when you find something that’s when it becomes significant . . . that’s when the real work could certainly start to happen going forward.”

Aside from methodological considerations, scholars perceived a need to focus on the more relational aspects of SDP along a number of fronts. Hums, for example, thought it was vital for SDP scholars to connect to practitioners in order to make a difference going forward:

“We’re talking about sport for development, you have to connect to practitioners. . . . You want your work to matter. So connect with practitioners as much as you can, because your work can make a difference for them. . . . It can have a positive impact.

From a relational standpoint, Darnell saw opportunity to engage in research on the nature of the relationship between donors and SDP participants: “I think there’s a lot of important work to be done looking at the relationship between donors and participants that basically follows the trajectory of rich to poor, for obvious reasons.”

The scholars also perceived many other opportunities for SDP scholarship that continue to drive their work. Since there are too many reasons to list here in full, there is a sampling provided below. For example, Levermore felt there was a distinct need to examine SDP organisations that have failed: “I’ve not read anything that has looked at failure. Everything has looked at recent organisations . . . there are not many sport for development organisations that have survived 20 years.” Green continued to be motivated from her interest in combining sport development (i.e. development of sport) and sport for development: “I also think there’s a big disconnect between sport development and sport for development. . . . I’m really headed towards understanding the linkages between these two.” All in all, there are many untapped opportunities for SDP scholarship to keep these and other scholars and students motivated and engaged in the field, perhaps best summed up by Frisby: “We’re not even scratching the surface. . . . It’s a really exciting field to be in.”

DISCUSSION

SDP scholars have examined a wide variety of foci with their research, but ironically, little has been done in an effort to ascertain the motives behind the scholars conducting SDP studies. In order for this nascent field to continue to grow and develop, more scholars and students will be needed within SDP over the long term. Understanding why leading scholars initially became involved and why they stay engaged could serve to attract new scholars and students from different disciplines to SDP. Potential scholars may recognise, due to the success and staying power of the scholars in this study, that the field is a viable pathway towards a fulfilling career.

Our first research question centered upon uncovering the motivations of scholars to initially engage in the SDP field. We found that scholars were driven to first become involved both intrinsically and extrinsically, in line with SDT, and complementing previous work in business management and in the humanitarian sector that has suggested individuals will often have multiple motives for becoming involved in a cause, activity, or focal area. Several points merit further discussion. First, it is interesting that almost all of the scholars spoke to the importance their background in social justice and personal experiences played in selecting SDP as a focal area. It was this personal connection and experience with social justice and other issues that sparked an interest in the field. Perhaps the role of personal experience and background is more significant in initially motivating SDP scholars to become involved than for scholars pursuing other lines of sport-related research, such as finance, events or marketing. This could be due to the affinity in social values that SDP scholars need with study participants. We are not suggesting that faculty members in other core areas are not intrinsically motivated to pursue

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their line of research and teaching, but perhaps their background was less influential. Future research is needed to test this supposition.

Second, while participants noted their personal experiences, genuine interest and passion as influential in prompting them to initially engage with SDP, it is important to highlight the extrinsic, career-oriented motives as well, which is in line with previous scholar motivation work.\textsuperscript{18,19} Although no scholar suggested she or he was undertaking this line of research specifically for financial gain or rewards in terms of tenure and promotions (external regulation), which is not surprising given the background of these scholars (i.e. growing up in socially-minded families or taking part in altruistic endeavors prior to their academic appointments), there was a majority opinion that the growth and recognition of SDP within academia would provide fulfilling opportunities (introjected regulation). These opportunities provided extrinsic motivation to initially engage with SDP, which is in line with previous public engagement literature elucidating that scholars primarily engage with industry in order to pursue their research agendas,\textsuperscript{21} and scholar motivation literature suggesting academics are motivated by opportunity and competence.\textsuperscript{18,19} This finding also supports scholarship in the humanitarian sector demonstrating that aid workers, in addition to altruistic, intrinsic motives, are also motivated to volunteer for aid assignments to enhance personal development, competence and mastery.\textsuperscript{23} Finally, uncovering that SDP scholars do indeed have extrinsic, career-focused motives for engaging in SDP perhaps counters some stereotypes that SDP scholars are only concerned with the welfare of others and could ‘care less’ about the trappings of academia.\textsuperscript{6} Instead, while these scholars certainly care passionately about the field and about SDP participants, they are also actively pursuing opportunities and research agendas that will allow them to advance their careers.

In addition to ascertaining initial motivations, we were interested in understanding why scholars remained involved in the SDP field over time. To this end, it was found that scholars continued to remain involved because they drew satisfaction and enjoyment from their work (intrinsically), extrinsically because they perceived ongoing opportunities in the field to pursue with research (introjected regulation), and also believed they had the ability to make a difference in the SDP field (identified regulation). Essentially, scholars continued to work in SDP when their initial motives were satisfied.\textsuperscript{8} Their needs for autonomy in their work (which is vitally important to academics regardless of focal area\textsuperscript{19}), demonstrated competence in being able to contribute to SDP through scholarly endeavors, and need for relatedness with others (through interactions with collaborators and SDP practitioners and participants) were fulfilled; this contributes to their satisfaction and ongoing motivation, which supports SDT and the scholar motivation literature.\textsuperscript{18,19} This finding also supports previous motivation research, which has found that the satisfaction of needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness with others will keep individuals motivated to pursue an endeavour over time.\textsuperscript{18}

Interestingly, the majority of scholars highlighted the idea of "making a difference" as a strong motive towards their continued work in the field, much more so than as an initial stimulus to become involved. Scholar motivation work outside of the sport context has demonstrated that scholars were motivated to help others and make a difference with their research, however, these motivations also materialised as initial motives.\textsuperscript{18,19} Work in the humanitarian sector has also revealed that aid workers were motivated by wanting to help society and provide assistance to those in need, although this motive seemed to be strong initially as well as over time for them.\textsuperscript{23,24,25} In a similar vein, the scholars in our study considered making a difference as wanting to help society in some way through their scholarship and research. The motivation of making a difference was perceived similarly across all scholars, regardless of background and length of time working in the field. This finding illustrates two key points. First, it is important to note that motives can change over time, as our findings support previous work suggesting that motives are not static but can vary with life and career experiences.\textsuperscript{15,23} Second, it could also be that “making a difference” became more salient as a motivator over time because scholars were able to better ascertain the need for their involvement in SDP as they developed their networks and made connections with practitioners. New scholars and students interested in SDP may not yet perceive the value and ways in which their work can help advance the field and “make a difference” in comparison to scholars who have been immersed in their research and have built relationships with the practitioner community.

In addition, considering that academics could be less motivated to further their scholarship after achieving tenure and promotion, it is interesting that those in our sample were seemingly more excited about their efforts as their careers advanced. Moreover, there was no difference in motivation between early-, mid- and late-career scholars, countering previous research suggesting early career and untenured faculty are motivated more by extrinsic rewards than tenured faculty.\textsuperscript{20} This could be explained by the SDP context where intrinsic motivations (a personal connection and story leading to genuine interest) are also critical to
initially attracting and then sustaining the interest of scholars, regardless of career stage. This is not meant to suggest extrinsic motives that academic jobs can provide such as salary, flexible hours and lifestyle, did not drive our participants; they simply did not emerge as essential motivations. Thus, we illustrate the motivations of SDP scholars go beyond the extrinsic rewards of tenure, promotion, and academic prestige.

Finally, we were interested in exploring scholars’ perceptions of and motivations towards future directions for SDP scholarship. While many ideas were uncovered in support of recent literature citing the need for creative study ideas and methodologies,24,50 importantly, the scholars illustrated an excitement or anticipation towards the future of the field, which motivated them to continue their research and collaborations. As suggested in the findings, a growing opportunity to impact society, the increased need for new and unique methodology, and the opportunity to train and work with future scholars and students drove academics to continue in the field even after achieving tenure and promotion. In essence, the unanswered questions continued to motivate scholars, as well as their perceptions that they could help practitioners and make a difference by engaging in future research. Thus, the extrinsic motivation of perceived opportunity (introjected regulation) is integrally connected to scholars’ perceptions of future directions for SDP scholarship and continued to drive and motivate them to remain involved in SDP. This finding is supported by Feldman and Paulson’s19 scholar motivation work. While space constraints limit our ability to recognise all of the research that has emerged from the scholars in this study, some have specifically published about the influence their work has had on them personally. For example, Sherry51 addressed the influence of her six-year relationship with a community soccer program, highlighting the challenges of collecting data involving sensitive topics and its impact on her and her research. Hums52 specifically reinforced her need to continuously improve and advance the field when she called for sport management academics and students to “Challenge your students. Challenge yourselves” in her Earle Zeigler lecture for the North American Society for Sport Management.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

From a theoretical perspective, we extended the use of SDT theory7,10 with SDP academics, a previously unexplored area, to demonstrate its applicability in this context. In particular, we uncovered that SDP scholars’ motivations were driven both intrinsically and extrinsically, that their motivations can change over time, and that they remained involved in the field when initial motives were satisfied and when their needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness were met. In addition, an important theoretical contribution is that we showed how scholars’ perceptions of future directions were related to their perceptions of opportunities within the field, which continue to motivate and excite them towards their work. Collectively, these aspects are all key theoretical extensions, adding to motivation theory in general and helping to build theory about SDP scholar motivations in particular.

From a practical standpoint, understanding the initial and ongoing motivations of leading SDP scholars could serve as a valuable tool for targeting and encouraging current PhD students and early-career academics to consider SDP as a viable line of research. Understanding how and why these scholars initially became involved and have stayed involved could demonstrate to academics not yet engaged in SDP but interested in the field that SDP is a viable, long-term research focal area that presents exciting opportunities upon which to build a meaningful academic career. In addition, understanding the initial and ongoing motivations of SDP scholars will be beneficial to departments, colleges and universities such that they can provide and structure enriching scholarly environments beyond the rewards of promotion and tenure that can help satisfy individual needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness. These may include providing additional rewards for community engagement and service, which may help fulfill needs for making a difference and helping others. Appropriate institutional measures of community-engaged service and scholarship are also needed.53 SDP scholars should be encouraged to engage with industry, form partnerships with SDP organisations, spend time in the field developing relationships with SDP practitioners and participants, develop collaborations with other scholars, mentor young and early career academics interested in SDP, and be rewarded for these efforts by their institutions. Doing so may help prevent burnout and enhance their motivation to continue making meaningful contributions to SDP as their academic careers progress. These findings may also help understand why scholars in other applied fields focused on community engagement become involved in their lines of research and stay involved over time, and provide insights for higher education institutions on how to attract and retain faculty in these community-focused spheres.
Limitations and Future Directions

As with all research, we do recognise this study has limitations that should be acknowledged and addressed with future research efforts. While literature does note the effectiveness of one-on-one interviews, we concede only a limited sample of SDP scholars took part in this investigation, mostly from the Global North, and that our sample consisted of only high-achieving scholars in the field. We cannot claim the motivations expressed by this group of interviewees are the only motivations of scholars within the field or representative of scholars from all geographic contexts. There is also the possibility of social desirability bias with both the researchers and the interviewees. We admit personal bias could have influenced the process, as the authors of the current study have been involved in the SDP field for some time. However, we endeavoured to encourage the scholars in this study to speak openly and honestly about their motivations and checked our interpretations with them in an effort to enhance trustworthiness. Finally, we acknowledge that interviewing academics who have been in the field for some time may not have been the optimal approach to ascertain motivations to initially engage in the SDP field, because these motivations could be influenced by various contextual factors which change over time. However, since one of our goals was to examine why scholars remained involved in the field over time, including longer-tenured academics in the sample allowed for this question to be answered effectively. It may prove enlightening for future research to investigate the motivations of current students undertaking SDP projects to see how their motives may differ from or compliment established academics.

Stemming from our findings, future research could aim to analyse a broader scope of academics both within the field of SDP (e.g., non-tenured faculty or individuals from non-English speaking areas of the world) and other research disciplines. It would be illuminating to ascertain how initial and ongoing motivations differ between SDP scholars from the Global North and Global South; how motivations may differ between SDP scholars and sport-related scholars with dissimilar research streams (e.g., finance, economics, marking, event management); and how motivations may differ between SDP scholars and scholars in other sociologically-based fields. Finally, it may prove beneficial to conduct research with scholars who have disengaged from the SDP field to determine why they left and other constraints and barriers they faced in their work in order to better design engagement opportunities for current and future SDP scholars. Thus, much more work is needed in this exciting line of research, and we hope other scholars will become motivated from our work here to pursue future research along the lines of what we outline, or in other areas of the growing SDP field.

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