"I take him as my brother, a brother from another mother". - A qualitative study on how youth in a disadvantaged community in South Africa experience the social impact of sport.

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ABSTRACT

The impact of sport participation among youth is a widely discussed phenomenon. Researchers argue that sport participation can contribute to both positive and negative impact. The aim of this study is to find out how youth in a disadvantaged community in South Africa experience the social impact of sport. The data were collected through four group interviews with 24 youth (aged 16-20) who participated in three different teams; soccer, basketball and mountainbike. The result indicates that the respondents experienced an overall positive social impact from their sport participation. Six categories were identified as prominent in the result; acquire life skills, building friendship, emotional development, the importance of positive leadership, avoiding drugs and crime and support from the community.

Keywords: organised sport, youth, social impact, disadvantaged community, group interview
1. INTRODUCTION

According to the United Nations, participation in sport and recreation is a fundamental human right. Participation in sport can contribute to a positive impact on youths’ physical, psychological and social well-being but there are different opinions among researchers concerning to what extent it may have an impact. In schools around the world the daily physical education decreases and many youth do not have the opportunity to participate in sport activities in their spare time. By facilitating organised sport activities for youth it may increase the participation and contribute to well-being. Sport offers an environment where youth can experience companionship and belonging with others and it is a natural setting for building friendship. The feeling of connection and having a defined role in a group are important factors for youths’ well-being.

This study takes place in Western Cape, South Africa in a disadvantaged community. It is a disadvantaged community in terms of low socioeconomic status, poverty and high rates of crime. The community has 35 000 – 55 000 inhabitants, a number which has not been affirmed since there is an uncontrolled in-migration. The majority of the population is living in shacks, an average family consists of eight people, often three generations share a two-bedroom house. The aim of our study is to find out how youth in a disadvantaged community experiences the social impact from sport. Children and youth living in disadvantaged communities are often offered limited opportunities for education and play. Organised sport can be used as a tool to overcome these barriers and make it possible for them to develop life skills, build relationships with peers and adults and prevent drug use and delinquency.
2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will contain a literature overview of previous research concerning; organised sport – social impact on youth, sport in disadvantaged communities, sport in South Africa and a summary.

2.1. Organised sport – social impact on youth

Organised sport has the ability to make a social impact on youth in various ways. Five areas will be presented below which all contributes to social impact; positive and negative impact of sport, the role of the leader, teaching life skills, preventing drug use and delinquency and achieving friendship.

2.1.1. Positive and negative impact of sport

Organised youth activities are defined by Larson (2000) as; activity that is voluntary (not required for school) and involve some kind of structure such as rules and goals. Sports are the most common organised activity among youth (ibid). Organised youth activities include optional school activities and community-based programs and are associated with youths’ capacity to develop psychosocial growth (Larsen & Hansen 2006). Participation in organised activity is linked with positive outcomes on general developmental indicators, such as school completion, adult employment and adult civic participation (Larsen & Hansen 2006; Coatsworth & Conroy 2007; Donaldson & Ronan 2006). Sport is the most common organised activity (Larsson 2000) and generates both positive and negative impact on youth (Humbert et al. 2008; Sandford et al. 2006; Goodman 1999; Hansen et al. 2003; Hammond-Diedrich et al. 2006; Teliaferro et al. 2008; Holt et al. 2008; Larsen & Hansen 2006). Participating in sport is correlated with general positive and negative emotions such as happiness, satisfaction and well-being or shame and guilt (Duncan 1993). Exercise and sport participation is also linked with reduced emotional and behavioural problems for youth such as anxiety, depression and stresses (Donaldson & Ronan 2006; Teliaferro et al. 2008; Coatsworth & Conroy 2007). Participating in sports may also offer a way to release energy and aggression that is accepted in public rather than through negative acting-out behaviours (Donaldson & Ronan 2006). Larsen and Hansen (2006) also argue that organised sport offer opportunities for development of goal setting, persistence, problem solving, managing emotions and managing time. Athletes can experience greater social integration when they participate in a social network that includes team-mates, coaches, health-professionals and their family (ibid). Organised sport also develop behaviour such as cooperation, unselfishness, positive attitude towards achievement, stresses management, appropriate risk-taking and the ability to tolerate frustration and delayed gratification (Donaldson & Ronan 2006).

In Paradoxes of youth and sport Gatz et al. (2002) discuss the dilemma with using sport as a preventive method among youth in disadvantaged communities. They describe two illusions that are connected with youth sport participation, firstly the dream about sport providing distraction for youth that are likely to get into trouble. Sport participation becomes a social intervention to keep problem youth from the streets and out of trouble. In the other illusion sport is described as a way to teach youth values such as teamwork and positive experiences of competition, this knowledge may later be used in their future careers. Gatz et al. (2002) stresses that neither of these dreams consider the structural inequalities in society, such as racism and poverty. Holt et al. (2008) states that negative outcomes that have been associated with youth sport participation are an increased use of alcohol and tobacco and adults modelling inappropriate behaviour. The structure and context of the activity can be related to these negative outcomes (ibid).
Holt et al. (2008) refer to a study by Morris et al. (2003) where they concluded that there is a lack of strong evidence for the direct, constant impact of sport participation on positive developmental outcomes. On the other hand Petitpas et al. (2004) claim that although there are some negative outcomes associated with sports participation, these negatives seem to be outweighed by the positive impact sports can have on the personal and social development of youth. Hansen et al. (2003) and Sandford et al. (2006) states that it is the social process and not the type of activity that determines what impact the activity will have on youth.

2.1.2. The role of the leader

According to Lumpkin (2008) adults who are involved with youth such as parents, teachers and coaches have the responsibility to teach moral values, life skills and good behaviour. Coaches may have the strongest adult influence on youth athletes’ attitudes and behaviours (Petitpas et al. 2004). Ewing et al. (2002) stresses that the leaders in sport activities have a great opportunity to develop youths’ moral values by teaching appropriate behaviours in situations that arise during games and practises. Therefore coaches need to be able to discuss these situations, teach right and wrong behaviour and believe in good sportsmanship and fair play (Ewing et al. 2002; Lumpkin 2008). Other important elements that coaches should teach youth through sports are respect and responsibility (Lumpkin 2008). Respect includes for example: showing respect to team mates, opponents, coaches but also keeping promises, showing enthusiasm and working to improve sport skills. Responsibility is described as being helpful and to follow instructions, concentrate on the task, listen to constructive criticism and accept the consequences of their actions etcetera (ibid). Petitpas et al. (2004) claim that coaches often serve as role models, mentors, counsellors and substitute parents for many youth and emphasize therefore the importance of having well educated coaches that have a formal training in human development and sport psychology. Youths’ possibilities to develop social skills are depending on coaches and parents support and engagement (Ewing et al. 2002).

Sport activities that focus on youth in disadvantaged communities can result in more harm than good if there is a lack of appropriate leadership (Petitpas et al. 2004). On the other hand, studies indicate that organised sport activities have a potential to influence positive personal development (ibid). Leaders need to be flexible and involve the group in decision-making around the activity to prevent negative experiences of sport activity (Sandford et al. 2006). Goodman (1999) also stresses the importance of letting participants in a group be involved in the decision-making around different activities. Having an adult leader that the youth can easily identify themselves with is very important for carrying out a successful activity (Sandford et al. 2006; Humbert et al. 2008). Rutten et al. (2007) found that youth who experienced a positive relationship with their coach reported less antisocial behaviour. Therefore they suggest that positive coach-athlete relationships can protect youth against antisocial behaviour (e.g. crime, rebellious behaviour) and promote prosocial behaviour (e.g. helping and supporting others) since the coach serve as a role model and give emotional support (ibid).

Youth stressed in a study with self reported data that an adult coach or leader were needed to organise and facilitate a sport activity (Humbert et al. 2008). They discussed the important role that coaches have in their decisions to be involved in sports and that they want to continue with the activity (ibid). A positive coach-athlete relationship, where the coach focus on developing the relationship with the athletes may increase the possibility of continued sport participation (Ullrich-French & Smith 2009).
The above all qualities a coach need according to a study by Humbert et al. (2008) are to be knowledgeable, responsible and fair. Some of the youth in that study discussed the positive influence of having an elite athlete as a coach or just as a visitor on a practice. They all agreed on that coaches served as important role models who have the power to motivate youth. Humbert et al. (2008) means that health practitioners should be aware of the important role coaches have on youth and that they have a central role as healthy role models.

When it comes to youth experiences from being a leader, Hall et al. (2008) found that a majority felt a responsibility to mentor younger students or those with no previous leader experience. One of the respondents in their study felt that it was her job to help and teach others. In addition, the leaders within sport clubs saw them selves as role models explaining that a lot of people looked up to them because they know how much time and commitment they put into the team and the club (ibid).

2.1.3. Teaching life skills

The World Health Organisation (WHO) defines life skills as the ability for adaptive and positive behaviour that enables individuals to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life (WHO nd). Danish (2002) refer to Hamburg’s (1990) definition of life skills. He explains life skills as skills that make it possible to succeed in the environment where people live such as; families, schools, workplaces, neighbourhoods and communities. Life skills can be behavioural, for example communicating successfully with others or cognitive as making effective decisions. Life skills and sport skills have several similarities. They are learned in the same way, through demonstration, modelling and practice and the skills learned in one field are often movable to other areas. Some examples of skills that Danish (2002) mention are the ability to perform under pressure, solve problems, meet deadlines and challenges, set goals, communicate and work with a group.

Teaching life skills through sport is a way to establish skills to other areas of life (Danish 2002). Youth struggles with defining their identity and discovering skills and interests, by participating in sport activity they may gain experience that can ease these issues (ibid). Larson (2000) claim that organised sport gain a positive development among youth through the combination of motivation, concentration and goal ambition that often occurs during organised activity and at the same time is rarely present during their daily schoolwork. The combination of these components is associated with positive outcomes, such as greater achievement, increased self-control and self-efficacy (ibid). Teliaferro et al. (2008) also suggests that team-sport represents a good ground when it comes to developing self-esteem and self-confidence for youth since a team offers possibilities for youth to get engaged together with adults and with youth in the same age to reach a joint goal. In studies where youth describes their own personal development, they stresses the sense of responsibility and friendship as positive effects of organised sport activity (Humbert et al. 2008; Hansen et al. 2003). Youth also report that they, through organised sport activity learn a lot about relationships with other people, to co-operate, social skills, to reflect over their own identity, emotional control and that they experience an increased self-knowledge (Hansen et al. 2003). In a study by Jones and Lavallee (2009) youth also indicated social skills such as teamwork and communication as the most important life skills to develop.

Organised activities for youth correlate with feelings of control over one’s life, lower rates of delinquency and higher educational aspirations and achievements (Larson 2000).
Ewing et al. (2002) refer to Seefeldt (1987) that suggest that through participation in sport youth develop physical skills that can contribute to a lifetime of physical involvement, improve fitness, learn social and emotional skills, develop moral values and increase self-esteem and self-confidence. Sports provide opportunities such as working hard, striving to achieve and playing fair, through these opportunities youth may develop moral values and behaviours. Children learn moral behaviour from watching the behaviour from others, engaging with others and being taught ethical behaviour (ibid). This means that sports participation also can undermine the moral development of youth if the activity is not structured and delivered in a proper way (Ewing et al. 2002; Holt et al. 2008). It would be naive to propose that by participating in sports, young people will get the skills necessary to succeed in life (Gatz 2002; Petitpas 2004). However, sport participation does offer numerous opportunities for youth to learn about themselves, to form important relationships with peers and adults and to experience the benefits of setting goals and working hard to achieve those (Petitpas 2004).

2.1.4. Preventing drug use and delinquency

Among the greatest concerns threatening the health and safety of youth in disadvantaged communities are drug use, gang involvement and delinquency (Ryan et al. 2007). Delinquent behaviours often increase in frequency during the middle childhood years and peaking during adolescence (ibid). With age, aggressive youth tend to go from minor acts, such as bullying or fighting to more serious acts, such as beating or mugging (Schonberg & Shaw 2007). A similar progression from minor to more serious acts has been noted among youth who engage in delinquent acts, for example progressing from lying and stealing to fraud and property destruction (ibid). Researchers have confirmed that communities characterized by weak neighbourhood structural factors such as concentrated poverty, residential mobility and racial-ethnic heterogeneity are linked to higher rates of delinquency (Chung & Steinberg 2006).

Researchers claim that parents who show a combination of strong supervision and positive involvement help to protect youth against delinquent outcomes including violent offending (Chung & Steinberg 2006; Schonberg & Shaw 2007; Ryan et al. 2007). Chung and Steinberg (2006) found that adolescents who experienced low emotional support and inconsistent discipline from their parents, compared with youths from families characterized by warm interpersonal relationships and consistent discipline, reported having more deviant friends and being involved with more violent and delinquent behaviour. A number of studies have indicated that adolescents who live in poor, crime-ridden communities (compared with safe, resource-rich communities) report having less parental support and supervision (ibid). Collins and Kay (2003) agree that the link between community disadvantage and delinquent outcomes is mediated by parenting behaviours (e.g. supervision) and characteristics of the home environment (e.g. economic situation). The link between community disadvantage and delinquency is also largely mediated by peer group norms and behaviours (e.g. level of deviant attitudes and activities) (ibid). Associating with delinquent friends, particularly those who engage in violent behaviour, is one of the strongest proximal risks for individual antisocial outcomes (Chung & Steinberg 2006; Schonberg & Shaw 2007; Tuvblad et al. 2006).

Collins and Key (2003) writes that when teenagers are around 15 years old they are likely to be involved in casual leisure activities such as “hanging around”.

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They refer to a study by Henry (1993) which suggests that the “hanging around” in the mid-teens may be extended later for young people in communities where people have low income and unemployment is high. Young offenders in their study acknowledged the importance of leisure, saying that sport participation and leisure activities would prevent others from offending (ibid). In a study by Humbert et al. (2008) youth reported that physical activity kept them away from unhealthy behaviours such as smoking and drugs. "It (physical activity) keeps you busy and away from lots of different things like smoking…it keeps us off the street and not doing drugs" (ibid page 164). Sport activities reduce self-destructive behaviour such as smoking, drug use, substance abuse and suicidal tendencies and can also lead to improved socialisation both with peer groups and adults (Collins & Key 2003).

Ryan et al. (2007) examined whether specific types of relationships with adults could protect disadvantaged youth from drug use, gang involvement and other threats to physical safety. They found that adults, especially parents and school personnel provide a primary defence against these problems for youth. Several family variables such as warm parental support and encouragement were also mentioned along with parental surveillance and restriction of behaviour. Within the last centuries family relations and relations between youth and significant adults in the educational environment have been identified as important variables in predicting healthy and problematic outcomes in youth (ibid). Coatsworth and Conroy (2007) state that the school and the family has weakened and are not able to cover the full day in terms of supervising and socializing youth. Therefore, many youth have plenty of unsupervised time after school. According to Coatsworth and Conroy (2007) youth are most likely to get arrested or engage in sexual intercourse, smoking, drinking alcohol or using drugs between 2:00 P.M. and 6:00 P.M. Providing opportunities for youth, especially underprivileged youth, by offering after school activities and community youth organizations will help them avoid problems such as delinquency (Larson 2000; Coatsworth & Conroy 2007). Donaldson and Ronan (2006) found that increased sport activity was associated with lower levels of delinquency, they also found that non participants were more likely to use drugs, more likely to smoke cigarettes and more likely to have been arrested than were sport participants (ibid).

2.1.5. Achieving friendship

Donaldson and Ronan (2006) found that youth who participated in sport experienced improved perceptions on competencies compared with youth who did not participate (ibid). According to Duncan (1993) physical activity is also linked with higher levels of perceived success and friendship provisions. Among the top reasons for youth to participate in organised sport is connection, the concept of being part of a team, being with friends, learn and improve skills and have fun (Duncan 1993; Smith 1999; Humbert et al. 2008). One important role that friends carry out is providing social support. Duncan (1993) refers to Asher and Parker (1989) who propose a number of friendship functions among youth, including esteem support and companionship. Esteem support refers to; “the friendship function of helping children and adolescents develop positive images of themselves as competent, attractive and worthwhile” (page 315). Companionship is referred to as a lighter side of friendship, friends contribute to the quality of children and youth social life in various ways (ibid).

The importance of being active with friends were discussed among youth in a study by Humbert et al. (2008), they stressed that sport activities must enable opportunities to socialize with friends. The relation between friends and sport participation differed in different age groups.
To meet new people and make new friends were the main reasons to participate in sport among 12-13 year olds whilst 14-15 year olds reported the influence from existing friends to be more important for further participation (ibid).

Sport environments can provide good socialization opportunities that are comparable to those of other important settings (Donaldson & Ronan 2006). Through playing with others youth can learn cooperation skills and build relationships as they work and perform together. By participating in a team youth also meet their need of belonging, the need to be accepted and successful in one's peer-group can be very important among youth (ibid). Sport provides an opportunity to gain acceptance and status among peers since athletic ability is often considered by their peers to be of great importance (Donaldson & Ronan 2006; Smith 1999).

2.2. Sport in disadvantaged communities

There are several ways of defining a community, however, the most common factors are geography, culture and social stratification (Naidoo & Wills 2000). A disadvantaged community can be characterized by a large number of factors; structural aspects (e.g. prevalence of housing), demographic variables (e.g. poverty prevalence, racial heterogeneity) or experiential/social factors (e.g. neighbour danger, social cohesion) (Schonberg & Shaw 2007). Schonberg and Shaw (2007) define disadvantaged communities as environments represented by socioeconomic risk (i.e. being reared in a family of low socioeconomic status) and/or neighbourhood risk (i.e. residence in a poor or dangerous community). In our study we will refer to Schonberg and Shaws’ (2007) above mentioned definition of a disadvantaged community.

Youth all over the world are forced to handle different societal problems such as poverty, racism, violence and other social, economical and political problems (Hammond-Diedrich et al. 2006; Gatz 2002). Research shows that youth who live under poor conditions are at greater risk to suffer long running psychological and emotional damage (Hammond-Diedrich et al. 2006; Schonberg & Shaw 2007). Hammond-Diedrich et al. (2006) suggests that activities for youth that are based on social and emotional needs could prevent these problems.

According to Petitpas et al. (2004) and Ryan et al. (2007) young people are drawn to street gangs because they are searching for excitement, belonging, status, protection and to have a defined role and identity within their peer group and also in the community. These are the same components that can be experienced through organised sport activities (ibid). Schonberg and Shaw (2007) found that relations between neighbourhood disadvantage and adolescents gang membership were mediated by the extent to which community members were able to trust and depend on one another. Hammond-Diedrich et al. (2006) and Holt et al. (2008) states that the communities have to see youth as a resource that needs to be developed instead of a problem that needs to be handled. Sport and physical activity could be seen as the ideal way to promote social and personal development of youth (ibid).

In a study by Humbert et al. (2008) youth brought up the importance of accessibility, to get more young people involved in sport the activity have to be close to where they lived. Lack of transportation and expensive fees for sport activities were other factors that made participation difficult. Many youth reported that their parents could not afford to pay the fees for the more expensive sports (ibid). A study by Rowley and Graham (1999) confirms the importance of these components for participation. They found that social class often determines the choice of sport activity among youth (ibid).
Working class children and children from single parent families were more likely to participate in less expensive sports such as soccer while youth from higher socio-economic groups were over-represented in sports like tennis and gymnastics (ibid). Participation in after school activities such as sport is greater among higher socioeconomic status youth who have more parental support (Larson 2000; Petitpas et al. 2004). Rowley and Graham (1999) stresses the need for a larger number of locally accessible sport centres and highlight the importance of active and encouraging coaches, their support is especially important for children who does not receive it from their parents (ibid).

Coatsworth and Conroy (2007) bring up the importance of after school organised activities for youth, after school programs should fill the gaps in community services and complement the opportunities and resources that are provided by family and school. They see sport as an obvious part of these activities since physical activity and participation in sport have been linked to a variety of physical and psychosocial health outcomes for youth. They note that the key to successful organised sport activities in a community is to carry out a needs assessment were they gather data from youth, parents, youth service providers and a broad range of community members. This needs assessment can then serve as a tool for program choices in the community. Communities should seek to get children and youth involved in sport at an early stage because it has both immediate and long-term effects. In addition, youth who play organised sport are eight times more likely to be engaged in physical activities or sport when they reach adulthood (ibid).

2.3. Sport in South Africa

Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA) and the South Africa Sports Commission have the overall responsibility for policy and delivery of sport and recreation services (SRSA 2002). They define sport as;

“All activity that requires a significant level of physical involvement and in which participants engage in either a structured or un-structured environment, for the purpose of declaring a winner, though not solely so; or purely for relaxation, personal satisfaction, physical health, emotional growth and development” (SRSA 2002 page 3).

South Africa’s first official policy on sport and recreation was published in 1996 through the White Paper in which the challenges, policies and priorities are described (SRSA 2002). The priorities has been revised and changed and were presented again in 2002, this time the theme of the White Paper was “Getting the nation to play” with the main goal being to increase the level of participation in sport and recreation activities. In order to achieve this goal a conscious effort from the government, non-governmental organizations (NGO’s), the private sector and the South African society in general is needed. They all play a particular role in the foundation for a culture of sport and recreation. The White Paper contains eight priorities in order to reach the above mentioned goal. The second priority; “To provide founds for the creation or upgrading of basic multi-purpose sport facilities in disadvantaged areas”, is the one most relevant to the aim of this study since it focus on youth in disadvantaged communities. One problem is the lack of facilities and the location of the existing ones, they are not placed where the majority of the people live. SRSA are trying to get the communities to take ownership of the facilities and be in charge of maintenance and management which leads to more job opportunities in the community (ibid). A third version of the white paper is under revision, this paper will be in line with the previous one with the addition of a national plan containing practical details on the implementation of sport (SRSA 2007).
Another guiding document for policies and strategies is the Strategic Plan, also developed by SRSA, the goal is to create and enable environments to ensure that as many South Africans as possible have the opportunity to participate in sport and recreation activities, especially people living in disadvantaged communities (SRSA nd1). This strategic plan highlights the social and economic impact of sport, communities grow stronger in terms of increased safety and decreased crime rates and the country gain economic benefits due to increased tourism (ibid). According to the white paper (SRSA 2002) sport and recreation activities is the best way to involve youth in meaningful activities that contributes to the building of communities throughout the country.

It is estimated that about 30% of the population in South Africa participates in sport (SRSA nd2 2009-05-19) and only 10% participate in competitive sport (SRSA 2002). However, people in poorer communities are not included in these numbers due to lack of facilities and programmes (SRSA nd2 2009-05-19). The interest for sport in South Africa has grown during the last 15 years thanks to sport achievements; they won the Rugby World Cup in 1995 and again in 2007, the African Cup of Nations in 1996 as well as the right to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup (SRSA nd1).

**2.4. Summary**

Research shows that sport participation generates both positive and negative impact on youth. Examples of positive outcomes are; positive feelings, well being, self esteem and it prevents depression, anxiety and strain. On the negative side sport participation has been associated with an increased use of alcohol and tobacco. Coaches may have the greatest influence on youth attitudes and behaviour, therefore they often serve as role models and mentors. Sport participation can also contribute to the development of life skills such as self-esteem, the ability to co-operate, set goals and to reflect over their own identity, these are all skills that can be used in everyday life. Other findings suggest that sport participation prevent drug use and delinquency and contribute to more friends and enlarged social network. Youth who live in disadvantaged communities with socioeconomic and/or neighbour risk are less likely to participate in organised sport. One of the top priorities for Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA) is to increase the participation in sport and to create and upgrade sport facilities, especially in disadvantaged areas. There is a great amount of research concerning sports impact on youth, however, few studies focus on self reported experiences.

In general, the physical impact of sport is more documented within the literature than the social and psychological. This is why we choose to focus our study on the social impact that youth experience from sport. Youths’ reports on their experiences are a valuable source of information. By interviewing youth about their sport participation and what they experience to be the social impact we get the possibility to study a pedagogic impact process from a health centred approach. Pedagogic situations and processes exist within formal education systems such as school but also in other organised activities with the purpose to influence (Svederberg et al. 2001). The health centred approach involves psychological recourses as well as physical (Bing 2003). The experience of well-being is often mentioned in relation with social and emotional health (ibid).
3. Aim of the study

The aim of this essay is to study how youth experience the social impact of participating in organised sport in a disadvantaged community in South Africa.

3.1. Main questions

- What positive and negative social impact does youth in our study experience from participating in sport?
- What influence does the structure of the community have on the respondents’ experiences from sport?
- Which factors contributes to social well-being in relation to participation in organised sport?

4. METHOD

In this chapter the following headlines will be presented; approach, choice of method, sample, implementation, interview guide, processing data, ethical aspects and discussion of method.

4.1. Approach

Below the approach and data analyse method will be described.

4.1.1. A hermeneutic approach

One of the hermeneutic contributions to theory of science is that it stresses that no reinterpretation can be done in an impartial manner (Vikström 2005). If we have no previous knowledge about the phenomena we want to understand we have no possibility to understand it. This so-called pre-understanding make it possible for us to ask relevant questions to the text and find different approach angles that let the text come to its right. Vikström (2005) writes that our pre-understanding can be a danger because it lead and affect the process of reinterpretation, at the same time it is a presumption for enabling an increased understanding. The importance of being aware of ones pre-understanding is central within the hermeneutic approach (ibid) and it will also be a part of the reinterpretation work in this study.

The hermeneutic approach suited this study since group interview was the method for data collection. According to Kvale (1997) the hermeneutic approach is highly relevant when it comes to research that involves interviews because it brings out the dialog that creates the texts that are going to be reinterpreted. It is also a relevant approach when it comes to clarifying the process where the interview texts are being reinterpreted, this process could be described as a dialogue with the text (ibid). Ödman (1995) also describe reinterpretation as an important part of the hermeneutic approach, he gives the reader the possibility to examine the credibility of his reinterpretations by presenting parts of the data next to his reinterpretations.

4.1.2. Qualitative data analyse – Categorization

Categorization means that the interview is coded into categories (Kvale 1997).
Long statements are reduced to basic categories which are defined, for example one category could be named “adults” and mean that the participants stress the importance of support from parents and coaches. Through categorization a large amount of text can be reduced and structured into a few tables that show an overview of the results. The categories, which are collected from a theory, from the everyday language or from the respondent’s expressions can be created in advance or developed when the data is being analysed (ibid).

4.2. Choice of method

We choose to use group interviews as our method for data collection since one of the project managers thought this would be suitable for our aim (Leslie, personal communication 2009-04-02). He suggested this mainly because the respondents would feel more secure and comfortable in a group then be interviewed one on one. Lewis (1992) and Cohen et al. (2007) also suggests that children may be less intimidated talking in a group when being interviewed by a person that is not known to them. Other advantages with group interviews is that the respondents can start a discussion around the questions (Watts & Ebbutt 1987) and each individual get more time to think and reflect while the others are talking (Lewis 1992). Group interviews are a relatively quick method to collect data around a given subject which is good since our time is limited (Morse & Richards 2002)

Disadvantages with group interviews can be that the respondents feel more insecure talking about personal issues in a group situation than in an individual interview (Lewis 1992; Watts & Ebbutt 1987). One problem that can emerge is if one person takes too much space at the others expense (Watts & Ebbutt 1987). Lewis (1992) stresses that problems with transcribing can occur in group interviews since it might not be possible to link the answers to the right respondent.

The group interview was semi-structured, which means that we used an interview guide with open ended questions (Morse & Richards 2002). The interviewer could choose to ask the questions in different order and were allowed to ask follow-up questions if needed (ibid). We used a tape recorder at each group interview to facilitate the transcribing of the data, this is according to Watts and Ebbutt (1987) essential when interviewing. We choose in accordance with Wilkinson (2000) and Watts and Ebbutt (1987) to be two interviewers, one responsible for the questions and the other observing the non-verbal communication such as body language.

4.3. Sample

We contacted three organisations that run organised after school sport projects in a disadvantaged community in the Western Cape, South Africa. The projects focus on basketball, soccer and mountain biking and are comparable in this study since they all have non-profit-making coaches, practice two to four times a week and all the teams had a goal with their participation. Our mentor in field introduced these organisations to us. We decided to limit our sample to youth between 16-20 years of age to avoid the need for the parents’ permission and because older youth generally have a higher level of English language skills (their maternal language is Xhosa). We discussed with the project manager for each group and asked how many of the team members that were over 16 years old and spoke English. Due to their recommendations we asked the individuals if they wanted to take part in a group interview.
4.4. Implementation

For the first interview we contacted the coach for the local mountain bike team in the community. We went to one of their practises and the coach introduced us (in Xhosa) to the mountain bike team. Cohen et al. (2007) describe this person as a gatekeeper who can help and facilitate the researchers work. A gatekeeper has an important role since he/she can give or deny access to a certain group. Disadvantages with using a gatekeeper in a study can be that he/she wants to control and change the result or use it for other purposes than the aim of the study (ibid). We decided with six of the team members that we would meet the following day at our office. The next day all six of them showed up and we sat down around a table. A covering letter (see appendix 1) was given out to each of the respondents. The covering letter informed the respondents about the aim of the study, the ethical aspects, that it would take approximately 60 minutes and that the interview would be recorded on tape. Using a tape recorder is essential during a group interview since it is difficult to take notes of all that is being said during the interview (Watts & Ebbutt 1987). They were also informed that an interpreter would be present at the interview so that the respondents would have the opportunity to speak in Xhosa if they wanted to. The interviewer also informed the group orally. An observer was present to observe non verbal communication and take notes. The interview ran for 45 minutes. Every respondent received a water bottle after the interview as a gift for taking part in the interview.

For our second interview we contacted the head coach for soccer at the sport science department at the local university. He became our gatekeeper and took us to meet a soccer team from a disadvantaged community at one of their practises. He introduced us to the team of nine players and they all wanted to take part in a group interview. The interview was carried out in the grass next to the soccer field before their practise. A covering letter was given out to each of the respondents (see appendix 1). The interviewer also informed the group orally. An observer and interpreter were present and two tape recorders were used to facilitate the transcribing. When the interview had started another five team members joined the group interview. The interview ran for 25 minutes. After the interview we made arrangements with six of the players for a second group interview at our office.

For our third interview we got in touch with the international offices at the university campus. We met the man in charge of the local basketball team. He became our gatekeeper, he told us about the team and what times they were practising. We went to one of their practises and spoke to their coach. He introduced us to the team and we talked to the players that were over 16 years old. We agreed with six of them to meet two days later for a group interview at our office. Four of them showed up on the day and we sat down around a table. A covering letter was handed out to each one of the respondents (see appendix 1) and they were also informed orally by the interviewer. An observer and interpreter were present. Also this time we used two tape recorders. The interview ran for 60 minutes. After the interview every respondent received a water bottle as a gift for taking part in the interview.

Our fourth interview was a continuation of the interview we made with the soccer team, this time it was carried out with four of the six players that had agreed to come. We sat down around a table, covering letters (see appendix 1) were handed out and the interviewer told them about the contents. An observer and interpreter were present. Also this time we used two tape recorders. We asked the same questions as we did at the first interview with the soccer team but this time we tried to get more in depth answers which is easier in a smaller group (Lewis, 1992).
We tried to develop answers that had come up during the first interview in order to get them to talk more around these. The interview ran for 35 minutes. Each respondent received a water bottle as a gift for taking part in the interview.

4.5. Interview guide
We decided to set up our own semi-structured interview guide so that it would be suitable for the aim of this study (see appendix 2). The introductory part of the interview consisted of a few questions that were easy to answer since we wanted the respondents to feel more comfortable and relaxed so we could move on to ask them more in depth questions.

4.6. Processing data
After each interview we transcribed the recorded data to written text. According to Cohen et al. (2000) transcribing is effective when it comes to preparing the interview material for analyses. The hermeneutic approach also stresses the importance of having a written text for reinterpretation (Kvale 1997). During the interviews we named the respondents A, B, C etc. depending how many they were. We did this so that we would know who had said what when we transcribed the interviews. Below the interaction among the respondents in each group interview will be described.

Interview nr 1
In this interview the six respondents were shy and reserved to begin with and it was difficult to get them to talk. As the interview went on they seemed more relaxed and talked more but still they did not provide very exhaustive answers. Three of the respondents were more talkative than the others, they answered the majority of the questions without anyone being too dominant. The group seemed to agree with each other, when someone answered a question the others often nodded as if they agreed, no one ever questioned a statement. We experienced that everyone got the opportunity to say what they wanted since the interview had a slow pace and no one answered the questions at once. The interpreter played an important role in this interview, he translated most of the questions, from English to Xhosa and the respondents answers from Xhosa to English. In the beginning of the interview the respondents tried to speak mostly in English but as the questions got more complicated they spoke in Xhosa.

Interview nr 2
The group consisted of 14 respondents which contributed to the fact that only around five of them answered the questions. The respondents had a hard time focussing on the interview, we noticed that some of them started to laugh and talk about other things. The respondents gave short answers and appeared as if they were stressed, they asked the interviewer if she had many questions to ask. The group seemed to agree with the person who spoke by nodding and saying “yes”. Because of these aspects a discussion around the questions never took place. The respondents spoke mostly in Xhosa, therefore the interpreter played a big role.

Interview nr 3
The respondents in this group interview spoke a high level of English, therefore the interpreter did not need to translate anything during this interview. They gave long in-depth answers and many discussions took place.
Two of the respondents had a more prominent role since they talked more than the other two, one of the two had a tendency to answer the questions quickly and interrupt the others, he often referred to himself as “we” which made it sound as if he spoke for the whole team. The respondents mostly agreed with each other by developing the answers or by giving similar answers. At two occasions their answers deviated, one respondent described laziness as a reason for why youth in the community did not participate in sport while another one disagreed by saying that many youth had been discouraged by people in the community who do not see sport as an important activity. We choose to illustrate both opinions in the result/analysis since we saw a link between them, a lack of community support have an impact on the number of sport participants and what the respondent described as laziness. The other disagreement concerned their emotions after the practise and whether they were able to leave their problems concerning school, work and family or not. Some of the respondents described that they left their problems at the practise while others experienced that they got them back. In the result/analysis we brought up both these explanations to show the different impact that sport can have on youth.

Interview nr 4
In this group interview the four respondents gave short answers and were of the same opinion in all the questions. They agreed with each other by nodding or repeating someone else’s answer. No one stood out in the group, everyone spoke a little. The respondents tried to answer in English but changed to Xhosa as soon as the answers got a bit longer, the interpreter therefore translated most parts of the interview. We decided to deal with interview two and four as one in the reinterpretation stage since interview number four was a continuation of number two.

In this study we used categorisation as a tool for analysing the data. Our first step was to look at the interviews separately and independently and code them into categories. The fact that we were two coders made it easy to avoid a single-minded subjectivity (Kvale 1997). Secondly we compared our categories to see if we had come to the same conclusions. In the cases were our categories differed we discussed and came to an agreement. We decided on six categories based on answers reported from all of the groups. (1) Acquire life skills – this category was based on the respondents statements around what they had learned through their sport participation and what impact it had in their every day life. (2) Building friendship – the respondents explained that their sport participation has contributed to a greater social network. (3) Emotional development - this category was created since the respondents talked about emotions related to their sport participation. (4) The importance of positive leadership - the role of the coach was discussed during all the group interviews. (5) Avoiding drugs and crime – during the four group interviews this was a prominent theme. The respondents discussed the connection between sport and drugs, alcohol and crime. (6) Support from the Community – positive and negative support from family and friends were discussed as well as the lack of support from the municipality.

The next step was to present the six categories in a table with an overview of the answers from each team (see table 1). By using tables as a tool the results become clearer to the reader and make it easier to see specific patterns within the result (Kvale 1997). Under our chapter result/analysis we present the contents of the categories as closely as possible to the respondents’ self-concept. In accordance to Ödman (1995) we used citations from the interviews to show the reader how we interpreted our data.
4.7. Ethical aspects
In accordance with the ethical principles of Vetenskapsrådet (2002) we informed the respondents about the aim of our study and that it is a part of our dissertation as undergraduates. They were also informed about how the group interview would be carried out, that their participation would consist of answering questions, they are free to interrupt the interview whenever they feel like it and participation was voluntary (ibid). The information was given orally and written in a covering letter (see appendix 1). All participants gave their consent orally. We assured the respondents confidentiality which means that their answers can not be linked to them or be used for any other purposes than this essay (Cohen et al. 2000; Vetenskapsrådet 2002).

4.8. Discussion of method
Using group interviews as research method was appropriate for the aim of our study which was to find out how youth experience the social impact of organised sport in a disadvantaged community in South Africa. Hansen et al. (2003) writes that if you want to study social and psychosocial impact processes it is best to ask the participants to describe their experiences. We believe that the respondents felt more secure answering the questions together in a group than they would have done individually. By using group interviews we think that we got a greater sample than if we had done individual interviews, they may have felt less insecure, coming to the interview as a group. Children may be less intimidated talking in a group, especially when being interviewed by a person not known to them (Lewis 1992; Cohen et al. 2007).

One disadvantage with using group interview as a research method is that the respondents can feel insecure when it comes to talking about personal issues in front of the group (Lewis 1992; Watts & Ebbutt 1987). Taking this disadvantage into consideration we choose to interview groups that already knew each other so that they would feel more secure. It is possible to get deeper answers if the respondents sit next to someone they know (Lewis 1992). Another problem that can appear during a group interview is if one person takes too much space (Watts & Ebbutt 1987). This happened in one of our interviews when one of the respondents wanted to answer all the questions and sometimes interrupted the others. The interviewer tried to control this problem by giving attention to the person who was speaking and ignore his attempts to interrupt. However we do not think this person affected the result of the interview since the others did not seem intimidated by his behaviour and everyone had their say.

We are pleased with the method we used to gather our sample. We got in touch with the coach for each team and asked them to introduce us to the team members that were over 16 years old. These coaches became our gatekeepers since they made it possible for us to reach our respondents. One advantage with using the coaches as gatekeepers was that they could introduce us and the purpose of our study in the local language Xhosa. This could have contributed to gain the team members’ trust and willingness to participate in a group interview. We also registered that they had a great respect for their coaches which may have increased the probability that they would participate in the interview. On the other hand the players could have felt pressure from the coach to participate in our interview. To reduce this pressure we decided on date, time and place for the group interview when the coach was not present. The fact that they came to the interview indicates that they wanted to participate regardless of the coach.
Another disadvantage with using gatekeepers in our study might have been that the respondents felt afraid that the interviewers would tell their coach about their answers and therefore choose to leave out information even though we informed and reassured them full confidentiality.

Our first interview with the soccer team did not go as planned. The information to the coach about what we wanted to do and how should have been clearer to avoid the misunderstanding that occurred. The interview was carried out outdoors just before their practise, these circumstances made it difficult for the group and the interviewer to concentrate. The group of 14 respondents was too big, it was impossible to keep eye contact with everyone and many of them did not say anything. Lewis (1992) refers to Breakwell (1990) who suggests a maximum of six or seven respondents in a group. We should have made an appointment with a smaller group from the beginning instead of carrying out the interview on the soccer field. Instead we made an appointment with six of the team members in order to continue the interview a few days later to get more in-depth answers and a more organised interview indoors.

In the chapter processing data we described that the respondents in group interview number three spoke the highest level of English in comparison to the other groups. These respondents also gave most in-depth answers which is why most of the citations in the chapter result/analysis come from this team. This has contributed to the fact that our result are more coloured by this team than the two others, however, our six categories are based on answers from all the group interviews.

An interviewer, interpreter and observer were present at all the interviews. The interviewer was in charge of the interview, asked the questions and led the interview forward by making summaries and confirmed the respondents’ statements to get as close as possible to their self reported answers. Our intention was to carry out semi-structured interviews since we wanted to be open minded for what could come up during the interviews. We followed our interview guide and tried to ask open ended questions, bringing up previous answers and ask follow-up questions, we think we succeed with this. However one mistake that we noticed while transcribing the interviews was that we sometimes asked leading follow-up questions.

The observer had a passive roll during the interview; she observed the non verbal communication and took notes. Wilkinson (2000) and Watts and Ebbutt (1987) recommends that two people carry out the interview, this is a major advantage because one is in charge of the questions and the other can observe the group dynamic that might pass unnoticed by the interviewer.

We choose to have an interpreter present at all our group interviews since we did not know the respondents level of English on beforehand and we wanted the respondents to be able to speak in Xhosa (their maternal language). Another reason was that English is neither their or our maternal language. This language barrier could have contributed to an increased risk for misunderstandings. We think that negative effects of having an interpreter can be that he changes the respondents’ answers while translating. Since our interpreter knew some of the respondents they may have felt intimidated to speak about their personal experiences with or around him. Sometimes we noticed that he did not have time to translate everything that the respondents sad. At occasions it seamed as if he added his own experiences to the respondents answers.
This could have been prevented if we had given him more information about the interview procedure and described more precisely what we wanted his role to be during the interviews. We got the impression that if the interpreter would have made major mistakes while translating the respondents would have corrected him since their level of English in terms of understanding was good. He had a prominent role during all the interviews apart from one where everyone in the group spoke a high level of English.

We experienced that skin colour was important when it came to people's perception of each other. The people of South Africa have different ethnicity and we experienced that they divide the population into three groups: black, coloured and white. People we met while carrying out this study seemed to have preconceptions about each group and because of this they treated each other differently depending on the skin colour. For example they have different perceptions of the importance of being on time, the white people are more punctual which often leads to misunderstandings between the groups. Taking the aspect of skin colour into consideration it is possible that the respondents in our study, who were black, had preconceptions about white people. The fact that we (the interviewers) are white might have affected the respondents to answer in a certain way. Considering the purpose of this study it was impossible to avoid this potential bias.

Lewis (1992) and Watts and Ebbutt (1987) stresses that problems with transcribing can occur in group interviews since it might not be possible to link the answers to the right respondent. We experienced this problem even though we had tried to prevent it by naming the respondents A, B, C etcetera and taking notes of whom said what. We also found it difficult to hear what was being said on the tape, after the first interview we decided to use two tape recorders, one pointing towards the respondents and one towards the interpreter, this helped slightly.

In accordance with the hermeneutic approach we took our pre-understanding into consideration while writing this essay. Before we arrived in South Africa we had a pre-understanding about youth and the impact of sport based on the literature we had read. By doing this we became aware of the importance of sport in a new context namely using sport as a predominant tool to prevent drug use and delinquency in disadvantaged communities. When we came to South Africa we took some time to get to know the community in which the study would take place before we commenced with our group interviews. This turned out to be wise since we got aware of the situation in the community in terms of crime rates and poverty, it also made it easier for us to ask relevant questions during our interviews. While compiling and analysing the result we felt as if our pre-understanding had been affected while living in the community, this led to a closer understanding of the youths' everyday life since we got the opportunity to see how they practiced and under what conditions. If we had not been living in the community for eight weeks our pre-understanding would have been more related to youth in Sweden and the circumstances around their sport participation. This would have led to a different reinterpretation further away from the respondents’ reality.
## 5. RESULT/ANALYSIS

A summary of the result will be presented in a table below. The result are arranged in six different categories that will be clarified with citations from the respondents. These citations will be followed by analysis.

Table 1. Summary of results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mountain bike</th>
<th>Basketball</th>
<th>Soccer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Acquire life skills</strong></td>
<td><strong>1. Acquire life skills</strong></td>
<td><strong>1. Acquire life skills</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- respect</td>
<td>- talk instead of fight</td>
<td>- work together</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- not to steal</td>
<td>- help each other</td>
<td>- fight peer-pressure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- discipline</td>
<td>- humanity</td>
<td>- respect others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- responsibility</td>
<td>- care about others</td>
<td>- respect your self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- self esteem</td>
<td>- flexibility</td>
<td>- listen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- accept and understand others</td>
<td>- confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- work as a team</td>
<td>- stand up for your self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- personal development</td>
<td>- teaching each other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- encourage each other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- believe in my self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- good student now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Building friendship</strong></td>
<td><strong>2. Building friendship</strong></td>
<td><strong>2. Building friendship</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- new friends</td>
<td>- my new family</td>
<td>- support from friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- like a family</td>
<td>- brothers and sisters</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- new friends</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- have fun together</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- looking forward to practise</td>
<td>- forget about problems</td>
<td>- can achieve goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- tired afterwards</td>
<td>- happy</td>
<td>- opportunity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- relaxed</td>
<td>- exited to learn</td>
<td>- tired after practise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- freedom</td>
<td>- having fun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- safe</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4. The importance of positive leadership</strong></td>
<td><strong>4. The importance of positive leadership</strong></td>
<td><strong>4. The importance of positive leadership</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- important with a coach</td>
<td>- important with a coach</td>
<td>- expectations from the coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- good role model</td>
<td>- good relation with the coach</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- trustworthy</td>
<td>- motivation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- educated</td>
<td></td>
<td>- respect for the coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mountain bike</td>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>Soccer</td>
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<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5. Avoiding drugs and crime</strong>&lt;br&gt;- no time to get into trouble</td>
<td><strong>5. Avoiding drugs and crime</strong>&lt;br&gt;- did bad stuff before&lt;br&gt;- stopped drinking and smoking&lt;br&gt;- no time to get into trouble&lt;br&gt;- stopped fighting</td>
<td><strong>5. Avoiding drugs and crime</strong>&lt;br&gt;- stay away from streets&lt;br&gt;- joined the team to avoid drugs&lt;br&gt;- stopped smoking&lt;br&gt;- did bad stuff before&lt;br&gt;- stopped robbing and stealing&lt;br&gt;- make my parents proud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6. Support from community</strong>&lt;br&gt;- parental support&lt;br&gt;- more opportunities&lt;br&gt;- vandalism&lt;br&gt;- meet new people&lt;br&gt;- positive popularity</td>
<td><strong>6. Support from community</strong>&lt;br&gt;- parental support&lt;br&gt;- negative attitudes from others&lt;br&gt;- train the younger ones&lt;br&gt;- deliver to the community&lt;br&gt;- involve others&lt;br&gt;- develop basket ball in the community</td>
<td><strong>6. Support from the community</strong>&lt;br&gt;- parental support&lt;br&gt;- no support from the community&lt;br&gt;- be a role model&lt;br&gt;- long distance to practice&lt;br&gt;- good example for my future kids&lt;br&gt;- no facilities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Acquire life skills
In all the group interviews the respondents described life skills as experiences they have gained through participating in sport and by being part of a team, they described that they could use these skills in their everyday life, for example in school and among friends and family. In every group interview some of the respondents talked about how their sport participation have changed their way of looking at themselves and others and that their behaviour have changed as a result of these new insights. Individual life skills that the respondents reported were; increased self-esteem and confidence, to stand up against peer-pressure, to stand up for oneself and to care about what you have done. The respondents reported that they had achieved skills concerning their relationship with others and they talked about the importance of; understanding others, listen to others, accept others, not to be selfish, respect others and yourself, encourage each other in the team and push each other and to learn from other people. Two respondents explained their new gained knowledge;

“It (soccer) has taught me to believe in myself and it has helped me against peer-pressure”.

“I have learned that this guy has a different mind than that guy, I have learned humanity...how is the person on the inside and how can I understand him?”

The citations above suggest that sport participation has increased the respondents’ self-esteem and strengthen their social abilities. The result implies that being involved in organised sport can generate knowledge concerning them selves and others. This correlates with a study by Hansen et al. (2003) where youth reported that they experienced an increased self knowledge and ability to reflect over their own identity. To participate in a team creates a good ground for youth to develop self esteem and confidence since everyone work together to reach a joint goal (Teliaferro et al. 2008). The interaction with peers and adults also facilitate the development of these skills (ibid). The above result also correlate with studies by Hansen et al. (2003) and Donaldson and Ronan (2006) where the results indicated that participation in organised sport activity lead towards emotional control, improved relationships with other people and the ability to co-operate. Jones and Lavallee (2009) found that the most important life skills to develop, according to youth, were social skills such as teamwork and communication.

The respondents’ new insights about themselves and others have, according to them selves, led to behavioural changes such as; talk instead of fight, not stealing, discipline, do what you have been told to do, take responsibility, work together as a team and to be on time. Two of the respondents from one of the group interviews described their behavioural change as follows;

“Before I did not give a dam about other people, if X has an issue with me now I will solve it without a fight”.

“I have learned that it is better to talk things through instead of fight, talk to each other...in our team we are all equal, there is no order...”

This indicates that there might have been a positive moral development for these two respondents since they have changed their behaviour to the better.
Ewing et al. (2002) stresses that youth learn moral behaviour from watching peers and adults, engaging with others and being taught ethical behaviour. This signifies that sport participation also can lead to negative moral development if there is a lack of structure during practice (Ewing et al. 2002; Holt et al. 2008). Through sport participation youth develop moral values such as working hard and playing fair but also appropriate moral behaviour towards others or good sportsmanship (Ewing et al. 2002). The ability to develop emotional control may be offered through sport participation (Larsen & Hansen 2006). Sport offers a setting were youth can release energy and aggression in a way that is socially accepted instead of for example fight (Donaldson & Ronan 2006).

**Building friendship**

The importance of having fun and meeting friends during practice were discussed amongst all the teams. They explained how their social network had grown, because of their sport participation they have the chance to meet new people, both adults and peers within and outside the community. They also described that they get more opportunities by participating in sport, for example they get to travel in the province (Western Cape) since they participate in tournaments and competitions. All the respondents talked about the great friendship they experience within the team, many described being part of a team as having a second family where they feel safe. Two respondents explained it as follows;

“For me, I feel like I am going to meet my new family, my new brothers and sisters. I feel free you know, I am happy and stuff…”

“I take him as my brother, a brother from another mother…”

The fact that they compare their team with a family suggests that they experience a safe and comfortable environment which can provide positive individual development. Friendship has a major influence on the personal development since it provides social support (Humbert et al. 2008; Hansen et al. 2003). Friends also contribute to the creation of a positive self image and thereby an improved quality of youth social life (Duncan 1993).

In two of our group interviews some of the respondents mentioned that they started in the team because other friends started or they had friends that were already participating in the team and wanted them to join. Below one respondent describes why he started;

“For me, it was sort of a friend thing to go into basketball…”

This statement shows the importance of friends and the impact that friends have on each other when it comes to leisure activities. One of the main reasons for sport participation has been proven to be friendship (Duncan 1993; Smith 1999; Humbert et al. 2008). Participating in a team can generate feelings such as belonging, excitement, status, protection and having a defined role within the group (Petitpas et al. 2004). Friends can be the reason for either begin or quit in a team since peers have a great influence on youth and their spare time (Humbert et al. 2008).

**Emotional development**

Happiness, the feeling of freedom and the excitement to learn new things were prominent emotions among all the respondents when they talked about how they felt before and during their practice.
After the practise they felt tired and relaxed and wanted nothing but to go home and eat, take a bath and sleep. In another group the feeling of being able to achieve goals were described as important. One respondent described his feelings when coming to the practise;

“…when I get to practise it is like I am in a fantasy world, I am in Disneyland…”

The above citation indicates positive feelings in relation to sport participation. Having fun, learn new things and improve skills are important factors when it comes to youth willingness to participate in sport (Duncan 1993; Smith 1999). The fact that the respondents experienced that they could achieve their goals is in line with the findings made by Larson (2000), he states that goal ambition is often present during sport activities and in a combination with motivation and concentration this lead to a positive development among youth.

During one of the group interviews the respondents described that they forgot about problems concerning work, school and family during the practise. When they went home some of them felt as if they left their problems at the practise while others got them back. Below two respondents explain this;

“I usually wear two masks. When I go to the practise I am happy, I smile and everything is good, I put that mask on. When I go home I put my other mask on again, the serious one, the one that does not want to be disturbed. Because I was happy for a while and then I got sad again because of a lot of things that is happening around me”.

“I enjoy myself and forget about all the things that are pressuring me outside. It is like getting a massage”.

The citations demonstrate that the practise is a chance to stop thinking about problems in their lives. This implies that sport participation play an important and positive role in the respondents lives. Positive emotions such as happiness and satisfaction are correlated with sport participation (Duncan 1993). Emotional and behavioural problems among youth such as anxiety, depression and stresses can be reduced through sport participation (Duncan 1993; Teliaferro et al. 2008; Coatsworth & Conroy 2007).

**The importance of positive leadership**

The importance of having a coach with good leadership skills was discussed in all group interviews. Some of the respondents described their coaches as encouraging, supportive, trustworthy, persistent and motivating and this was one of the reasons for why they kept coming back to the practise, the expectations from the coach was another reason, the coach expects them to be there and they do not want to disappoint him. The coach was also mentioned as a reason for why some of the respondents decided to begin with their sport. One respondent describe his coaches like this;

“They (the coaches) like to motivate, they usually motivate me all the time and that is why I keep coming back”.

This statement suggests that the respondent experience a good relationship with his coach. Rutten et al. (2007) writes that a positive coach-athlete relationship can promote social behaviour and protect against antisocial behaviour since the leader can act as a role model and offer emotional and social support.
The citation also signifies that the coaches implement their leadership skills in a good way; they motivate the respondent and this is one reason for why he continues with his sport activity. If youth experience a good relationship with their coach and experience that he/she possesses good leadership qualities this may increase youths’ willingness to carry on with the sport (Ullrich-French & Smith 2009; Humbert et al. 2008).

One of the teams in our study used to practise without a coach, they described the positive difference in structure and quality since they received a coach. Before they just fooled around and played against each other but now the practice contains exercises both with and without the ball. Because of this they experienced new gained knowledge and improved physical and social skills. Another team described their coach as a role model because of his loyalty against the team, his strong will to succeed and the fact that he is well known in the community and knows many famous athletes. One respondent in the group described it as follows;

“…he knows famous people and he is known all over so he is a good role model, he is a man of his words and he always keeps his promises”.

This citation implies that the respondent look up to his coach because of his trustworthiness and morals. There is a hint of admiration in the statement, the fact that he is famous seam to impress the respondent. A combination of these factors makes him, according to the respondent, a good role model. Humbert et al. (2008) found similar results, youth reported that coaches are important role models who are able to motivate them and are needed to organise and facilitate the activity. Coaches often influence youth attitudes and behaviour by being role models, counsellors or mentors (Petitpas et al. 2004). Coaches have a great chance to develop youths’ moral values by teaching proper behaviour in situations that come up during practice (Ewing et al. 2002). The citation above implies that their coach teach moral behaviour by being a good example him self.

Avoiding drugs and crime
An important social impact that was discussed by some of the respondents in all the group interviews was the fact that participating in organised sport activity kept them away from trouble and “hanging around in the streets”. They described that they were less likely to use drugs, smoke, drink alcohol, fight, steal and mug people since they participate in sport. Some of the respondents in all the groups reported that they had stopped doing these “bad things” after they started to participate in the team because they have learned good moral values and behaviours and the practice take up a lot of their spare time. Three respondents described their experiences as follows;

“Soccer has taking my life out of bad things, soccer make me focus on good things and that means a lot to me…”

“I have learned not to steal things and more discipline”.

“…when you do sport you do not have time, most of the time you are at practice”.

The above statements describe the respondents’ experiences concerning the impact of sport when it comes to drug use and crime. It is evident that the respondents agree that their sport participation have had a positive impact on them in different ways. The same results emerged in a study by Humbert et al. (2008) were physical activity was one component that kept youth busy and dissuaded them from engaging in unhealthy behaviours.
Sport activity is associated with lower levels of delinquency, drug use and smoking (Donaldson & Ronan 2006). Gatz et al. (2002) is questioning the method of using sport as a way to keep youth away from the streets and out of trouble since other problems such as poverty and racism often are forgotten. In contrast to this argument our results indicate that sport does have a positive impact on youth when it comes to drug use and delinquency. The results may imply that the aspects of poverty and racism have been taken into consideration in the planning of the sport activities that our respondents take part in.

All the participants in our study had friends that were not involved in any organised sport. Several respondents in all the group interviews discussed that some of these friends were smoking, taking drugs and were involved in crime. Two of the respondents described it as follows;

“Other guys in our age are on the streets doing rubbery stuff, rob people and end up in prison”.

“…they (friends who do not participate in sport) are more focused on teenage pregnancy, drugs, alcohol and all that kind of nonsense stuff”.

This result further highlights the importance of participating in organised sport activity in order to stay away from unhealthy behaviour. Participating in a team can provide the same feelings as being involved in a street gang for example belonging, status and protection (Petitpas et al. 2004) therefore sport may have the ability to prevent criminal activities (Collins & Key 2003). Collins and Key (2003) stresses that youth in disadvantaged areas are more likely to “hang around in the streets” longer in their teens than youth from more privileged areas due to high unemployment and a lack of alternative activities. This correlates with our result since the respondents (16-20 years) reported that their peers did “hang around in the streets” as a substitute for participating in a sport activity.

During all the group interviews the majority of the respondents talked about parent support, most of them experienced that they had their parents support when it came to participate in sports. They described that their parents saw sport participation as a positive leisure-time activity and that it was a legitimate reason for leaving home in the evenings. The respondents also saw their sport participation as a mean to make their parents proud of them. Parents who provide strong supervision and positive involvement help protect youth from delinquency (Chung & Steinberg 2006; Schonberg & Shaw 2007; Ryan et al. 2007). Having a good parental support may be associated with having few deviant friends and therefore being less likely to commit crimes (ibid). A number of studies indicate that youth who live in disadvantaged communities often experience a lack of parental support (Chung & Steinberg 2006). In contrast to this, the respondents in our study reported having a good support from their parents although living in a disadvantaged community.

**Support from the community**

The respondents in all the group interviews brought up the importance of community support in terms of functioning facilities and the inhabitants positive attitudes. During all the group interviews some of the respondents talked about the experience of being known in the community due to their sport participation. They explained that a lot of people in the community recognise them in the streets and that the younger children look up to them.
This popularity has contributed to a willingness to inspire others to start with sports and to be a role model for younger children as well as being a good example for their own future children. In one of the teams the younger and the older ones practise together, one respondent described this as an opportunity to affect and encourage them to focus on sport;

“For them (the younger children) we are opening doors, showing them how they can use their talent…the younger ones have to be at our feet because no one else can help them”.

This statement implies that the respondent feels a responsibility for the younger children in the community and that he has the power to affect and encourage them to begin with sport. The result indicates that the positive reactions the respondents experience from the people in the community make them proud over themselves and give them the feeling of being needed and important. In a study by Hall et al. (2008) young leaders in sport described themselves as role models since people looked up to them. The leaders explained that they felt a responsibility to mentor and teach younger children. This correlates with the experiences reported by the respondents in our study which implies that they have taken the role as informal leaders in their team.

Another aspect that arose during some of the group interviews was a more negative side of the people in the community. One problem was the attitude they experienced from other people in the community who did not see sport as an important thing unless taking part in a sport were you can earn money. This attitude accompanies by a negative pattern of behaviour were it is easier for youth to be lazy and focus on for example drugs and alcohol. Two respondents described their experiences from the community;

“...many of them have been discouraged by other people because they talk negative things, they say: why do you play basketball? People in X (their community) do not see sport as a big thing, the big sport is soccer, if you are good in soccer you are going somewhere”.

“If we tell them (youth in the community) ok, here is alcohol, here is drugs you will see everyone is there when it comes to sport or something different in X (their community) no, no”.

These results indicate that there is a negative attitude towards sport in the community. The above statements show that it is easier for youth to adopt a negative behaviour than a healthy one and that there is a lack of support from the community. Coatsworth and Conroy (2007) suggest that by offering after school activities for youth the community might fill the gaps in community services and complement the support offered by family and school. They write about sport as an obvious part of these activities since physical activity is linked with both physical and psychosocial well-being (ibid). This indicates that organised sport activities might be a good way for the community to promote healthy behaviours and prevent drug use and delinquency among youth. Hammond-Diedrich et al. (2006) stresses the importance of communities seeing youth as a resource instead of a problem. Sport and physical activity may be a good way to promote social and personal development of youth (ibid).

Another difficulty the respondents in two of the teams discussed was the lack of sport facilities in the community such as soccer fields and indoor halls. The fact that there is no soccer field and only one indoor hall make accessibility difficult.
One of the teams has to walk a long distance in order to get to practise in another community. The other team described their biggest problem to be that some people were stealing from them and used the area around the training field as a toilet. Two respondents described these problems;

“Just the travel, walking from X (their community) to the soccer field. We do not have any transport to take us”.

“The only thing is that there are people close to the cycling track and they are stealing stuff and using it as a toilet”.

This result indicates that the respondents experience bad conditions in terms of lack of facilities and sabotage in their community. The results correlates with a study by Humbert et al. (2008) and Rowley and Graham (1999) were youth stresses the importance of accessibility and saw transportation as an obstacle for participation in sport. The negative impact of vandalism and sabotage has also been linked with the unwillingness to participate in sport activities (Humbert et al. (2008). The department of Sport and Recreation in South Africa are aware of the lack of facilities in disadvantaged communities and are working to provide funds for the creation or up grading of sport facilities (SRSA 2002).

6. DISCUSSION

Below follows a discussion of the result from this study which will focus on the three main questions; positive and negative impact from sports, the impact from the community and contributing factors to social well-being.

6.1. Discussion of results

The aim of our study was to find out how youth in one disadvantaged community in South Africa experience the social impact of sport. In our result we found that the respondents experienced an overall positive social impact from their sport participation. However, problems and difficulties were described such as lack of facilities and vandalism. Researchers claim that sport participation generate both positive and negative impact on youth (Humbert et al. 2008; Sandford et al. 2006; Goodman 1999; Hansen et al. 2003; Hammond-Diedrich et al. 2006; Teliaferro et al. 2008; Holt et al. 2008; Larsen & Hansen 2006). There might be several contributing factors to why our result did not show any negative experiences concerning the impact of sport. One obstacle can be that the respondents did not want to tell us if they experienced any negative impact since they might have been afraid that we as interviewers would tell their coach or other people about their answers. We also think that it may be easier to talk about positive than negative experiences with people that are unknown to you. According to Gatz et al. (2002) there is a difference between the academics perspective on the impact of sports and the people working on grassroots level such as coaches and health educators. The academics perspective questions the role of sport activities as a mean to prevent youth violence and other forms of social deviance. Researchers’ stresses that structural inequalities in society such as racism and poverty are seldom considered in the preventive work with youth. People at the grassroots level argue that academic researchers have no “real” knowledge about youth and sport in disadvantaged communities, the practitioners, on the other hand have a passionate believe in the value of sport (ibid). These arguments can further help to explain why we predominantly got positive answers concerning the impact of sport.
The three coaches in charge of the teams our respondents participated in seemed to be dedicated and had a strong believe that sport could make a difference for youth in disadvantaged communities. We believe that the coaches passion for sport may have been transferred to our respondents and contributed to a positive attitude among them. This might indicate that these coaches have taken the academic researchers misgivings concerning structural inequalities into consideration, which can be another reason for why the outcomes are positive in our study. In accordance with Larson and Hansen (2006) we think that the best way to find out how youth experience a certain phenomena is to ask youth themselves.

Our result shows that the respondents experience a lack of support from the community in terms of facilities and the negative attitude that people have towards sport. The respondents described two different reasons for why youth in the community choose to adopt an unhealthy behaviour which can include drugs and alcohol instead of a healthier one such as participating in sport. One reason was explained to be that people in the community discourage youth to participate in sport since it is not seen as an important thing to be doing. Another reason was described to be laziness among youth in the community, they choose the leisure time activity that demands the least effort from them for example “hang around on the street” instead of participating in organised activities which involves being on time and responsibility. We think that these two reasons may be linked since discouragement from people in your nearer surrounding can lead to unwillingness to participate which may contribute to laziness or an unhealthy behaviour. The lack of facilities in the community may also be a contributing factor to these negative attitudes and behaviours. Therefore, we think that building facilities and arrange more organised activities for youth may be a good start to promote healthy behaviours and change the attitudes. Sport should be an obvious part of the after school activities provided by the community since physical activity contributes to both physical and psychosocial well-being (Coatsworth & Conroy 2007). In our result the respondents reported that they had adopted a more healthy behaviour and abandoned using drugs and being involved in criminal activities since they started to participate in sport which correlates with the above statement.

The fact that the community were the study took place have only one indoor-hall and no soccer field shows an obvious lack of support from the community in terms of facilities. To create and upgrade sport facilities in disadvantaged areas has been one of the top priorities for the department of Sport and Recreation in South Africa since the first official policy were published, as a White Paper in 1996 (SRSA 2002). This indicate that the government is aware of the problem and is trying to make participation in sport available for everyone, independently of were you live. The efforts made by the government may be questioned since 13 years have past and the policies and priorities have neither been achieved nor revised. The department of Sport and Recreation South Africa are critical towards their own achievements and claim that their policies and guidelines needs to be revised and realigned with the realities of present day sport in the country (SRSA 2007). The White Paper in progress will contain these changes and an additional national plan with practical details on how they should be implemented (ibid). The upcoming 2010 FIFA World Cup event have highlighted the importance of sport in South Africa (SRSA nd1). This event contributes to the creation of new sport arenas, predominantly in the cities. We think that the FIFA World Cup may increase the interest of sports and thereby the participation in the country, which is good. However, we question how disadvantaged communities will benefit from this event since the focus will be on the cities. Is it possible that the government will change their priorities due to this event and spend less time, effort and money on the disadvantaged communities?
In the result several factors which have contributed to a social well-being were described by the respondents. One of them was the support from the coaches and the positive relationship they experienced with the coach. This shows that a coach has a great influence on youth and has the power to affect attitudes and moral values and behavioural changes. Therefore, we think that the leadership skills that a coach possesses are very important. If the coach acts as a good role model he/she can make a positive impact on youth, on the contrary, coaches who are bad role models and are carrying out inappropriate leadership might do more harm than good (Petitpas et al. 2004). We think that leaders that possess good leadership qualities might be extra important in disadvantaged communities since youth, according to Chung and Steinberg (2006) often experience a lack of support from their parents in these areas.

Another factor that contributed to the respondents’ well-being was the importance of friendship and companionship. The respondents described the team as their second family which suggests that they experience feelings of belonging and safety. The practise was linked with feelings of happiness, freedom and excitement to learn new things. These feelings may contribute to the fact that the respondents were able to put aside or forget about their problems concerning family, school and work when they practise. We believe that the need of belonging and companionship are fundamental components for social well-being.

6.2. Future research

There is a lot of research concerning the impact of sport among youth which mostly focus on the physical impact such as weight-loss and heart disease prevention. The social impact of sport such as friendship and the development of social skills are not as well documented as the physical aspects. There is a lack of studies with self reported data from youth when it comes to this area. Our result indicates that sport has a positive social impact on youth and that it is worth while to ask youth themselves about their experiences. We suggest that more research that is based on self reported data concerning the social impact from sports should be carried out. In our study we found that many youth did not participate in organised sport, therefore future research should aim to find out how sport can be implemented in disadvantaged communities in order to increase the participation and offer an alternative to unhealthy behaviours.
7. REFERENCES

Below follows the references we have used; literature and verbal communication.

7.1. Literature


Chung, H-L. and Steinberg, L. (2006) Relations Between Neighbourhood Factors, Parenting Behaviours, Peer Deviance, and Delinquency among Serious Juvenile Offenders. Developmental Psychology 42 (2) 319-331


### 7.2. Other sources

Leslie, M. (Verbal communication 2009-04-02)
You are important!
Tell us about your sport experiences.

We are two Swedish students who are interested in how youth experience the impact of sport in South Africa. Therefore we would like to hear about your experiences from participating in organised sport. This will be carried out as a group interview in English where you sit down with your teammates and discuss the questions. An interpreter will be present if you want to explain something in Xhosa. The interview will last maximum 60 minutes. Participation in the interview is voluntary and you have the right to interrupt it whenever you like. The interview will not be used for other purposes then this study and no one will be able to link the answers to you. To participate in the interview you have to be at least 16 years old (due to ethical aspects) and be involved in organised sport. The interview will, with your permission, be recorded on tape and stored securely.

If you have any questions regarding the interview or the study, please contact us:
Caroline Jonsson 073-09 10 728
Elin Hägglund 071-83 32 795

Thank you for participating!

Kind regards
Caroline Jonsson and Elin Hägglund
Students at University of Gävle in Sweden.
APPENDIX 2 INTERVIEW GUIDE

- How long have you been participating in the project?
- How come you started to participate?
- How often do you participate?
- Why do you think you keep coming back?
- Can you tell me what you do during your practise?

- Can you tell me if there is something you like about the project?
- Can you tell me if there is something you don’t like about the project?

- How do you feel when you go to the practise? When you go home?
- Would your spare time be different if you did not participate? Describe how?

- Have you learned anything through the project?
- What does it mean to you to be involved in the project?
- Do your parents support you?
- Do you think that you have changed as a person by participating? If so, in what way/ways?

- Do you have a goal with your participation in the project?
- Do you have any friends that do not participate in sport? Why do you think that is?
- What do you think is needed to get more young people to get involved in sports projects?

- I don’t have any more questions to you. Is there anything you would like to add or ask us about?