

Partnerships and Alliances in Sport for Development and Peace

Considerations, Tensions, and Strategies

Jon Welty Peachey
B. Christine Green
Laurence Chalip
Editors

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Introduction

Jon Welty Peachey

University of Illinois

B. Christine Green

George Mason University

Laurence Chalip

George Mason University

The sport for development and peace (SDP) field has grown exponentially in recent years, with more and more organizations, practitioners, and academics around the world embracing the possible contribution that sport can make to development agendas (Coalter, 2013; Schulenkorf, Sherry, & Rowe, 2016). In fact, approximately 1,000 SDP organizations are now working at facilitating social change and individual, community, and social development through sport across the globe (Svensson & Woods, 2017). SDP can be defined as “the use of sport to exert a positive influence on public health, the socialization of children, youth, and adults, the social inclusion of the disadvantaged, the economic development of regions and states, and on fostering intercultural exchange and conflict resolution” (Lyras & Welty Peachey, p. 311). Outcomes addressed through these sport-based interventions include developing social capital, expanding networks, and improving life situations of participants (Spaaij, 2009; Adams, Harris, & Lindsey, 2018; Zhou & Kaplanidou, 2018); reducing prejudice amongst individuals from different cultures and backgrounds (Schulenkorf, 2010; Welty Peachey, Cunningham, Lyras, Cohen, & Bruening, 2015); improving cross-cultural relations among disparate groups often in conflict (Sugden, 2006; Schulenkorf & Edwards, 2012); and serving as a vehicle through which to address issues of women and girls’ empowerment (Hayhurst, 2013; Seal & Sherry, 2018), among many others. Overall, research is demonstrating that if designed and managed well, sport has the potential to facilitate social and development outcomes, although certainly not in all instances or contexts (Schulenkorf et al., 2016).

An emerging and critical line of commentary, theorizing, and empirical research in SDP concerns the nature of partnerships and alliances with various industry sectors such as government, education, local communities, and the like (Lindsey & Bituga, 2018; MacIntosh, Arellano, & Forneris, 2016; Schulenkorf, Sugden, & Burdsey, 2014; Sherry & Schulenkorf, 2016; Welty Peachey, Cohen, Shin, & Fusaro, 2018). Without effective and sustainable partnerships, SDP organizations and scholars cannot viably engage in the field to effect social change; partnerships are the life blood of SDP organizations (Schulenkorf et al., 2014; Welty Peachey et al., 2018). Partnerships and alliances

in the SDP space are entered into for a variety of reasons, ranging from funding, to assistance with program design and delivery, to help with program evaluations from academic institutions (Burnett, 2008; Lindsey & Bituga, 2018; MacIntosh et al., 2016).

However, many challenges and barriers exist that inhibit effective partnerships and alliances in the SDP landscape. From overcoming power dynamics, to misaligned goals and objectives, to mission drift and a host of other challenges to effective partnership formation and sustainability, challenges can prevent SDP organizations from establishing long-term partnerships and carrying out their missions (Burnett, 2008). Given the international significance of partnerships and collaborations in the SDP field, much more conversation is needed about the nature of partnerships and alliances, their challenges, and effective strategies for forming and sustaining them.

This book enters into the partnership arena in the SDP space by providing the latest thinking and conversation revolving around partnerships and alliances and their associated challenges, along with strategies to address them. The genesis for this book emerged from a symposium hosted by the Department of Recreation, Sport and Tourism at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign in the spring of 2017 that was centered on exploring challenges and strategies for forming and sustaining partnerships and alliances in SDP across multiple sectors. Approximately 250 scholars, SDP practitioners, students, and interested community members gathered for two days of presentations, conversations, and action work groups devoted exclusively to the issue of partnerships and alliances. Funded by the Illinois International Programs Office and The Center on Health, Aging and Disability in the College of Applied Health Sciences, the symposium featured internationally regarded scholars presenting papers on challenges and strategies of partnerships and alliances between SDP organizations and a particular sector (e.g., government, international non-governmental organizations [NGOs], education). Following the presentation of the paper, a discussant offered a response, critique, and extension of the presenter's paper. The papers which constitute the chapters in this book are mostly comprised of the papers and discussant responses presented at the symposium and are authored by the scholars who gave the presentations.

Laurence Chalip first provides a helpful framing in Chapter 1 to set the stage for conversations and conceptualizations about partnerships to aid the reader in navigating through the nuances and considerations necessary for a deep understanding of partnerships and alliances within SDP. Following, in Chapter 2, John Sugden and Graham Spacey explore partnerships with the governmental sector (local, state, national), with Bob Pahre offering a response in Chapter 3. Jon Welty Peachey then outlines challenges and strategies of forming and sustaining partnerships and alliances with large, international NGOs in Chapter 4, with John MacAloon providing a response and extension in Chapter 5. Within the local context of partnerships and alliances, Emma Sherry in Chapter 6 discusses community-based organizations and B. Christine Green provides a response in Chapter 7, while Lyndsay Hayhurst and Mitchell McSweeney discuss partnerships in the participatory sport landscape (Chapter 8), with a response by Laura Misener (Chapter 9). Next, Marlene Dixon and Jennifer (Bruening) McGarry tackle the education sector in Chapter 10, with Douglas Hartmann providing the critique and

extension in Chapter 11. The health sector is another important area for partnerships and alliances, which is discussed by Nico Schulkorf and Katja Siefken in Chapter 12, while Shondra Loggins Clay and Reginald Alston provide the extension and response in Chapter 13. With regards to partnerships and alliances with the corporate sector, Kathy Babiak and Daniel Yang discuss these challenges and strategies in Chapter 14, followed by a response from Katie Misener (Chapter 15). The book concludes in Chapter 16 with Wonjun Choi, Michelle Coley, Kelsey LeFevour, and Na Ri Shin providing propositions and action steps drawn from the participant working group discussions at the symposium, and with Laurence Chalip in Chapter 17 offering salient concluding thoughts on cautions and next steps in conceptualizing and thinking about partnerships and alliances in the SDP space.

The thoughts, critiques, responses, and extensions provided in this book are wide-ranging and thought-provoking for anyone interested in SDP scholarship or practice. Thus, we anticipate that scholars may find helpful information here to stimulate future research agendas and theoretical explorations revolving around partnerships and alliances in the SDP landscape, while practitioners and others involved in SDP work from within the various sectors explored in this book should find value in identifying specific challenges and targeted strategies for forming and sustaining partnerships and alliances that are sector specific. Finally, undergraduate and graduate students interested in SDP and partnerships can enhance their learning through engaging with the latest thinking and conceptualizations about partnerships and alliances, while also gaining a fuller understanding of the rich, complex historical context of SDP and considerations important to partnership formation and sustainability.

The SDP field will continue to grow and develop in the years to come. As such, strong and effective partnerships and alliances to and with the sectors explored in this book will be vital in order for SDP organizations across various contexts and with myriad foci to achieve outcomes, impact, and long-term sustainability. We hope the material included herein will stimulate further research and practice, helping to bridge the theory-practice divide.

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About the Authors

Dr. Reginald J. Alston is the associate dean for Academic Affairs in the College of Applied Health Sciences and a professor of rehabilitation sciences and community health in the Department of Kinesiology and Community Health at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. He also served as Associate Chancellor for Faculty Affairs for four years on campus. His research focuses primarily on disparities in rehabilitation outcomes for ethnic minorities with disabilities, particularly African Americans. Dr. Alston has published extensively in leading journals of rehabilitation, and he has successfully managed research projects as a PI, co-investigator, or coordinator with funding from NSF, NIH, and NIDILRR. As evidence of his national reputation for scholarship, he received the James F. Garrett Award for a Distinguished Career in Rehabilitation Research from the American Rehabilitation Counseling Association in 2007. Dr. Alston is a former editor of the *Journal of Applied Rehabilitation Counseling* and a former executive board member for the American Rehabilitation Counseling Association (ARCA) and the Council on Rehabilitation Education (CORE). In 2008-09, he worked on Capitol Hill in the Office of former Senator Tom Harkin (D, Iowa) as a Robert Wood Johnson Health Policy Fellow studying disability policy.

Dr. Kathy Babiak is an associate professor in the Sport Management Department at the University of Michigan. She has published widely in the areas of strategy, organizational performance, and social innovation and entrepreneurship. Her main line of research focuses on the interorganizational partnerships sport organizations create (with a focus on strategic alliances, marketing, socially responsible, and philanthropic interactions). She has explored strategic factors motivating sport organizations to enter into partnership relationships with other organizations in the nonprofit, government and private sectors. Her research also examines the interaction and exchange dynamics involved in managing a diverse network of partners, with the objective to understand what factors are perceived to contribute to more effective relations between organizations.

Dr. Laurence Chalip is professor and an academic program coordinator in the School of Sport, Recreation, and Tourism Management at George Mason University. He has held positions and consulted to sport organizations throughout the United States, and also in Australia, Canada, Europe, Korea, and New Zealand. He has co-authored or edited four books, four monographs, 40 book chapters, and over 100 peer-reviewed articles. His work has been recognized by awards from the North American Society for Sport Management, the Academy of Leisure Sciences, and the Sport Management Association of Australia and New Zealand.

Wonjun Choi is a PhD candidate in the Department of Recreation, Sport and Tourism at the University of Illinois. His research stream seeks to understand how partnerships within and across sectors play a key role in developing organizational assets

and capabilities that help to grow and sustain sport organizations. His current research examines ways in which sport organizations and programs can be designed/structured, processed, and implemented to enhance the development and well-being of individuals, including athletes and local communities, while also building the sport itself. The role of partnerships will also be examined in that setting. Prior to the University of Illinois, Wonjun received a master's degree in sport management at the University of Michigan and a bachelor's degree in Community Health and Physical Education at Korea National Sport University.

Dr. Shondra Loggins Clay is an assistant professor in the College of Health and Human Sciences at Northern Illinois University (NIU). Prior to joining NIU, Dr. Clay worked as the research data analyst for the Counseling Center at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (UIUC). She also earned her doctorate degree in Community Health with a focus on Health Data Analyses and Biostatistics from the University of Illinois (UIUC). Dr. Clay's primary research interests are in the areas of maternal/child health and rehabilitation studies. As a health disparities researcher, her research focuses on inequalities in health outcomes across racial groups. In the area of maternal/child health, Dr. Clay's research has examined differences in infant mortality rates/low birthweight rates across racial groups, with a focus on Blacks/African Americans. In the area of rehabilitation studies, Dr. Clay's research has explored racial differences in the utilization of assistive technology by persons with disabilities. She has published extensively in both areas. Dr. Clay also serves on the editorial board for the *Journal of Vocational Rehabilitation* and has been an active member of the American Public Health Association for many years.

Michelle Coley is an accelerated master's student in Sport and Recreation Studies at George Mason University. Her research examines how sport can be an educational tool, resultant perceptions of success, and ways in which the community reflects on the governance of sport. With these interests in mind, she currently studies the availability of education in Dominican Republic baseball academies and the responsibilities of stakeholders to provide education. Prior to pursuing her master's degree, she completed her BS in Sport Management at George Mason University.

Dr. Marlene A. Dixon is a professor and chair of Graduate Studies at Texas A&M University. Her research expertise is in the area of sport and life quality. In this area, she examines the ways that sport can be better designed and implemented to enhance the life quality of both sport providers and participants. Her most recent work includes investigations of the characteristics of effective sport programs for girls and women, examinations of the work and family lives of high-performance coaches, and the role of sport in individual and community development. Dr. Dixon completed her doctorate at Ohio State University and served for 10 years in the Sport Management Department at The University of Texas at Austin. She has over 60 publications in a variety of journals including the *Journal of Sport Management*, *Sport Management Review*, *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, *Sex Roles*, and *Quest*. She also has been named a re-

search fellow in the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM). Before beginning her formal academic career, Dr. Dixon coached basketball and volleyball at the college level. She also competed as a varsity athlete in basketball and volleyball at Trinity University. She enjoys running, playing basketball, hiking, and fishing with her husband and three children.

Dr. B. Christine Green is a professor of Sport Management at George Mason University, Director of the Sport Development Lab, and past-president of the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM). Her work examines the growth and development of sport programs and their relationship to the positive development of individuals and communities. She is a research fellow of NASSM, has served as editor of *Sport Management Review*, and as associate editor for *Journal of Sport Management and Sport and Tourism*. She is currently co-editing a book series on Sport Development. Her work has been published in top journals in sport, leisure, and tourism, and has been funded in five countries. In addition, Dr. Green was awarded the Earle F. Zeigler Award from NASSM for her contributions to the sport management field.

Dr. Douglas Hartmann is a professor of Sociology at the University of Minnesota. He is the author of *Midnight Basketball: Race, Sports, and Neoliberal Social Policy* (University of Chicago Press, 2016) and *Race, Culture, and the Revolt of the Black Athlete: The 1968 Olympic Protests and Their Aftermath* (Chicago, 2003). Dr. Hartmann's work has also appeared in the *American Sociological Review*, *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, the *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*, and *Social Problems*, and his comments on sport, race, popular culture, and multiculturalism have been featured in a variety of media outlets nationwide. With Michael Messner, Dr. Hartmann edits the "Critical Issues in Sport and Society" series at Rutgers University Press. He is also co-editor and publisher of the award-winning website, TheSocietyPages.org, past president of the Midwest Sociological Society, and one of the principle investigators of the Kids' Involvement and Diversity Study (KIDS) at the University of Minnesota.

Dr. Lyndsay Hayhurst is an assistant professor in the School of Kinesiology and Health Science at York University in Toronto, Canada. Her research interests include sport for development and peace (SDP), gender-based violence and sexual and reproductive health in/through SDP, cultural studies of girlhood, postcolonial feminist theory, global governance, international relations and corporate social responsibility. She is a co-editor of *Beyond Sport for Development and Peace: Transnational Perspectives on Theory, Policy and Practice*, and her publications have appeared in *Women's Studies International Forum*; *Gender, Place & Culture*; *Third World Quarterly*; and *Sociology of Sport Journal*. Her current research focuses on two projects: the first centers on the use of non-human objects and technologies in SDP—in particular, the bicycle—as possible catalysts for development. The second study investigates how the politics of privatized aid provided by the extractives sector shapes domestic sport-focused health and development interventions that target Indigenous youth in Canada and Australia. She has previously worked for the United Nations Development Program and Right to Play.

Kelsey LeFevour is a PhD student in the Department of Recreation, Sport and Tourism at the University of Illinois. Her research focuses on Paralympic sport, with an emphasis on Paralympic athlete transitions within the Paralympic ranks as well as in retirement from competitive sport. Specifically, Kelsey is interested in understanding what Paralympic sport programs are currently doing to facilitate effective transitions, how this directly affects athletes, and how these programs can potentially implement services to better serve their athletes during transitions, especially those that occur as athletes transition into their lives beyond competitive, international sport. Her interest in this area stems from her own elite athletic career, having been a dual sport athlete in college as well as an international competitor, representing Team USA on multiple World Championship and Parapan American teams in the sport of track and field. Kelsey reached the pinnacle of the sport, competing in the 2016 Paralympic Games in Rio de Janeiro where she was a 100m finalist and currently has sights set on the 2020 Tokyo Paralympic Games. She currently trains at the University of Illinois.

Dr. John J. MacAloon is professor of the Social Sciences at The University of Chicago. He is the author of *This Great Symbol* (2nd ed. Routledge, 2008), the classic account of the origins of the modern Olympic Movement and Olympic Games, subjects now of over four decades of Dr. MacAloon's anthropological and historical research. His most recent publications are the book *Bearing Light: Flame Relays*, and *The Struggle for the Olympic Movement* (Routledge 2013); a book chapter "The 1904 Chicago–St. Louis Transition and the Social Structuration of the American Olympic Movement" (Toronto, 2015); and the article "Agenda 2020 and the Olympic Movement" (*Journal of Sport in Society*, 2016). Professor MacAloon has advised numerous Olympic Games bid and organizing committees, National Olympic Committees, and the IOC, serving on the executive committee of the IOC 2000 Reform Commission. He holds the Olympic Order for his scholarly and diplomatic contributions to the Olympic Movement.

Dr. Jennifer McGarry has been a part of the Sport Management program at the University of Connecticut since January of 2002 after spending eight years as an athletic administrator and volleyball coach at Kenyon College in Ohio, including two years as athletic director. Dr. McGarry's research line has focused primarily on barriers and supports for women and those from marginalized ethnic and socioeconomic groups. Dr. McGarry is also the program founder and director of Husky Sport. Husky Sport has both a program and a research component. The program provides mentors (UConn students) as planners of sessions at community sites in Hartford, CT that emphasize exposure and access to sport and physical activity, and advocate good nutrition and healthy lifestyles. Research has focused on individual-level impacts of such a program on pre-adolescents and the reciprocal impact of involvement on the college student mentors. Additionally, current research is focused on the organizational or sociocultural level impacts of campus-community partnerships.

Mitch McSweeney is a third-year PhD student at York University, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. His research interests include sport and physical activity in international

development, refugee studies, social entrepreneurship, and institutional theory. He is especially interested in how entrepreneurship takes place through sport and physical activity across a number of populations, sectors, and within sport for development and peace. He has contributed manuscripts to *Sociology of Sport Journal*, *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, and *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise, and Health*.

Dr. Katie Misener is an associate professor in the Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies, Faculty of Applied Health Sciences, at the University of Waterloo, Ontario, Canada. Her primary research focuses on the capacity and social impact of non-profit community sport organizations, with a particular focus on how capacity can be enhanced to support sport service delivery and foster social engagement through sport. Her current research funded by the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada examines the broader social impact of community sport organizations through their social responsibility efforts and the development of social capital among sport volunteers. Dr. Misener's research interests also include the role of sport organizations in community health promotion and creating collaborative value through inter-organizational relationships. She has published research articles in the *Journal of Sport Management*, *Sport Management Review*, *Leisure Sciences*, *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, and the *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*. Her community-engaged scholarship involves working with community sport organizations as well as other sport industry partners such as the Sport Information Research Centre (SIRC), Parks and Recreation Ontario, OutSport Toronto, World Vision Canada, and One4Another International.

Dr. Laura Misener is an associate professor and the Director in the School of Kinesiology at Western University, Canada. Her research focuses on how sport and events can be used as instruments of social change. Dr. Misener's work critically examines numerous ways that sport events have been purported to positively influence community development, social infrastructure, social inclusion, and healthy lifestyles of community members. Dr. Misener's current research program is focusing on the role of sport events for persons with a disability in influencing community accessibility and perceptions of disability. Her recent co-authored book publications include *Leveraging Disability Sport Events: Impacts, Promises, and Possibilities* and *Global Sport Events*. Dr. Misener works with the International Paralympic Committee and the Canadian Paralympic Committee to find ways to foster more inclusive sport participation opportunities.

Dr. Robert Pahre is a professor of Political Science at the University of Illinois. His research and teaching interests focus on environmental politics, especially the politics of U.S. national parks and the political economy of the European Union. His books include *Creative Marginality: Innovation in Social Sciences* (Westview, with Mattei Dogan); *Leading Questions: How Hegemony Affects the International Political Economy* (Michigan); *Democratic Foreign Policy Making* (editor, Palgrave); *Politics and Trade Cooperation in the Nineteenth Century* (Cambridge). He has won college and campus

teaching awards for his summer courses on the politics of national parks, taught in the Greater Yellowstone Area and in Colorado and Utah.

Dr. Nico Schulenkorf is an associate professor of Sport Management at the University of Technology Sydney/Australia. His research focuses on the social, cultural, and health-related outcomes of sport and event projects. For several years, Nico has been involved in sport-for-development and health promotion programs in countries such as Sri Lanka, Israel and the Pacific Islands. Nico is co-founder and past editor of the *Journal of Sport for Development* and associate editor of *Frontiers in Sport and Active Living's* Sport, Leisure and Tourism specialty section. He also serves on the editorial board of *Sport Management Review*, the *European Journal for Sport and Society*, and *Sport and Entertainment Review*.

Dr. Emma Sherry is an associate professor at Swinburne University, specializing in sport for development and is currently department chair for Management and Marketing in the Swinburne Business School. Emma has completed a bachelor of arts at the University of Melbourne and a master of business (Sport Management) and PhD at Deakin University. Emma's current research interests include community development through sport activities, undertaking a broad range of research projects with national and regional sport organizations in Australia and globally, including the Commonwealth Secretariat, Victorian Government, VicHealth, Netball Australia, National Rugby League, Australian Football League, and Tennis Australia. Other recent research has examined access and equity in sport participation, sport in correctional facilities, and sport and recreation for at-risk and marginalized communities. Emma is on the editorial board of the *Journal of Sport Management*, *Sport Management Review*, *Communications and Sport Journal*, and *Sport Business Management: An International Journal* and was a founding editor of the *Journal of Sport for Development*.

Dr. Na Ri Shin is an assistant professor in the Department of Kinesiology and Sport Management at Texas Tech University. The overall focus of her research agenda lies in the field of sport and development, with particular interest in globalization and cultural changes. The aim of her research is to enhance an understanding of how globalization impacts the ways in which we manage sport, physical culture, and development. She is particularly interested in investigating sport as a cultural expansion from the West to the Tricontinent (Asia, Africa, and Latin America), and tracing the political and cultural trajectory of the expansion. She completed her BS and MS in Sport and Leisure Studies at Yonsei University and received her PhD in Recreation, Sport and Tourism from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Dr. Katja Siefken has recently accepted the position of professor of Physical Activity and Health at MSH Medical School Hamburg in Germany. At the time of publication, she is a lecturer and researcher at the School of Health Sciences at the University of South Australia. Her primary research interest is on the prevention of noncommunicable diseases through physical activity interventions, with a specific focus on mental

health promotion and social well-being. She has 10 years experience in designing, implementing and evaluating physical activity interventions in various settings, including workplaces and disadvantaged communities (Fiji, Tuvalu, Kiribati, Tonga, Vanuatu). She is board member of Sports United—a nonprofit Sport for Development Organization in South Australia. She co-founded the *Journal of Sport for Development* and is experienced in working within the UN system.

Professor John Sugden is a professor in the Sociology of Sport at the University of Brighton, UK, where he is a preeminent member of Brighton's acclaimed Sport and Leisure Cultures critical research group. He is also cofounder and former director of the University's in-house NGO, the celebrated sport-based co-existence and conflict resolution program, Football 4 Peace International (F4P). Articulated through the lens of critical sociology, John has researched and written extensively in the area of sport and peace building in divided societies and is widely considered to be one of the subject area's founding figures and leading authorities. John is also well known for his work on the sociology of boxing; and with his colleague Alan Tomlinson, for his tireless investigative work into malpractice in world football's governing body FIFA, an extensive body of work that has made a significant contribution to the downfall of disgraced former FIFA President Sepp Blatter and his house of corruption. This work sits comfortably alongside his distinctive undercover investigative work into professional football's underground economy.

Graham Spacey is an ambassador for Football 4 Peace International, where he was previously head of operations and liaised with partner organizations across the world to deliver bespoke values-based and sustainable community sport interventions. He now volunteers in delivering training for teachers and coaches in various F4P programs and works for inFocus consultancy conducting evaluations of sport for social change programs and projects across the world delivering training to organizations in impact measurement, monitoring, and evaluation. He is also a PhD candidate at the University of Johannesburg Olympic Study Centre in South Africa. His research is focused on developing a framework for quality physical education and school sport linked to national development goals within South Africa's public schools.

Dr. Jon Welty Peachey is an associate professor in the Department of Recreation, Sport and Tourism at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. His research centers upon sport for development and social change. Specifically, he examines how program design and leadership are related to outcomes such as social inclusion, prejudice reduction, peace building and conflict resolution, social capital, and community development among children, youth, adults, and communities. He partners with a variety of local, national, and international sport-based nonprofits to work with them on effective program design and outcome assessment. Dr. Welty Peachey has over 12 years of experience working in the international sport sector and in sport for development. A research fellow with the North American Society for Sport Management, Dr. Welty Peachey has published extensively on sport for development and leadership in key

academic journals. He serves as editor of the *Journal of Intercollegiate Sport*, associate editor of the *Journal of Sport Management*, and on the editorial boards of *Sport Management Review*, *Journal of Applied Sport Management*, *Journal of Sport for Development*, and *Event Management Journal*.

Daniel Yang is a doctoral student in Sport Management at the University of Michigan. His research interest concerns how sport organizations adopt a strategy and make a decision, and what factors at both organizational and institutional levels influence their organizational behaviors. With this question in mind, he currently studies the variation of sport organizations regarding their socially responsible behaviors and collaborative effort (e.g., cross-sector partnerships) to create social impact. Before joining the PhD program at the University of Michigan, he completed both his BA in Economics and MS in Sport and Leisure Studies at Yonsei University.

CHAPTER 1

Envisioning Sport as a Tool for Development and Peace

Laurence Chalip

George Mason University

In recent years, there has been an explosion of interest in the uses sport may have as a tool for development and/or conflict resolution. That growth of interest has been accompanied by an increasing number of organizations that claim to use sport for those purposes—ranging from small local agencies, such as Toronto Youth Development, to large organizations with substantial international clout, including the United Nations, the International Olympic Committee, and the United States Agency for International Development. In a recent review, Svensson and Woods (2017) identified 955 organizations that deliver sport for development and peace programming. There are now entire websites devoted to the topic (e.g., <https://www.sportanddev.org/en/connect/organizations-involved-sport-development>), books that describe and analyze the effort (e.g., Collinson, Darnell, Giulianotti, & Howe, 2019), many dozens of scholarly articles (cf. Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011; Schulenkorf, Sherry, & Rowe, 2016), and an e-journal (*Journal of Sport for Development*).

Given the explosion of interest and activity, one might expect that the uses of sport for purposes of development and peace would have been carefully evaluated and thoroughly theorized. Yet, that is not the case. In fact, the headlong rush into the field by so many stakeholders has rendered a degree of hegemony that makes credible program evaluation challenging to do. The result is that essential theorizing is sorely lacking (Burnett, 2015). Indeed, when theories of pedagogy for social change are brought to bear, it has been argued that sport for development and peace programs are inadequately designed and inappropriately structured (Spaaij & Jeanes, 2013; Webb & Richelieu, 2015). Or, as Coalter (2013, p. 174) put it in his critical analysis of sport for development and peace programs, “Hope is not a plan.”

Sport for Development and Peace is Inherently Multidisciplinary

There have been several efforts to redress the challenges of program evaluation and theorization (e.g., Massey, Whitley, Blom, & Gerstein, 2015; Petitpas, Cornelius, Van Raalte, & Jones, 2005; Schulenkorf, 2017), but nearly all have been grounded in a vision that is narrowly focused on social intervention and/or conflict resolution. Yet, the issues of development and peace are much more multifaceted and complex than interventions typically concede. Social problems are entangled with economic concerns (Smith, Le Grand, & Propper, 2009), as well as challenges associated with environmental justice (Johnston, 2016). Economic concerns extend into the challenges of environmental management (Harris & Roach, 2018), and encumber social issues (King & Auriffeille, 2019). Environmental justice is entangled in social (Burns & Caniglia, 2017) and economic (Chow, 2015) considerations. These are embedded in the ongoing political tension between change and preservation (Esping-Andersen, 1990). That complexity is illustrated in Figure 1.1.

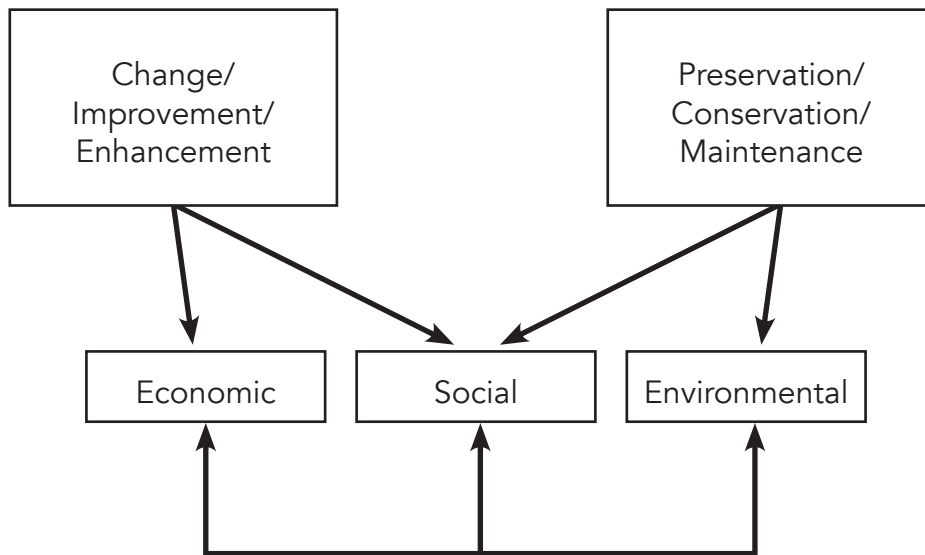


Figure 1.1. Political tensions and multidisciplinary complexities of problems faced by sport for development and peace interventions.

Sport for development and peace programs have rarely taken the systematic and multidisciplinary approach that is required. The most common program targets have been health, social integration (including conflict resolution), and economic development—each tackled separately. Their methods also differ, even when goals are similar. Some programs use sport as a hook to attract participants; some use sport as a source of analogies; some use sport as a distraction from other behaviors that are deemed undesirable. The differences are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1 <i>Programmatic Variations in Sport for Development and Peace Processes and Objectives</i>			
Objective	Process		
	Sport as a Hook	Sport as a (source for) Analogies	Sport as a Distraction (or incompatible behavior)
Social Integration (and conflict resolution)	e.g., sport programs that include group discussion and/or cultural training	e.g., use of teamwork examples and metaphors	e.g., creation of blended teams and leagues
Health	e.g., sport programs incorporated into AIDS education	e.g., using protection of the ball, plate, or wicket as a metaphor for protecting the self	e.g., promoting playful physical activity
Economic Development	e.g., hosting sport events to attract tourists	e.g., using sport teams or events to brand the host community	e.g., creating sport facilities and programs to enhance property values

Despite this range of types, sport for development and peace programs have been heavily weighted toward amelioration of social problems, including public health, but have rarely addressed associated economic or environmental conditions. This has limited what those programs can and cannot achieve, as the resulting approach is circumscribed by the narrow vision. Indeed, the complexity of the problems being addressed cries out for multifaceted intervention and an array of expertise that is not typically found in any single organization. Hence the need for partnerships and alliances.

Of course, recognition of that need begs the more fundamental questions. There are plenty of social, economic, and environmental interventions that make no use of sport. Can sport really add value? What does it offer? Two facets of experiences sport can afford stand out.

Sport's Hedonic Aspect Can Be Leveraged

Sport is made attractive by the opportunities it affords for fun and enjoyment (Wellard, 2014). Consequently, it can be a useful tool for attracting people into programs with development and conflict resolution objectives. Indeed, the intrinsic rewards of sport differentiate it from other physical activities, such as recreation and exercise, which have been shown to be more extrinsically driven than sport (Ball, Bice, & Parry, 2014). The hedonic potentials of sport recommend it as an attractor into intervention programs. Further, when sport's hedonic potential is capitalized upon, it can break down social and psychological barriers in ways that enhance the acceptability of messages an intervention seeks to send (Chalip, 2006).

Nevertheless, the value enabled by sport's hedonic nature is not intrinsic to sport. Sport's value depends entirely on the nature of the program, particularly the demeanor of coaches (McCormack & Chalip, 1988). Too often, sport is turned into another form of work (Rigauer, 1981), and extrinsic rewards become overly salient (Vallerand & Losier, 1999). These can undermine the fun, enjoyment, and learning obtained unless carefully managed (Lepper & Henderlong, 2000). Indeed, although the hedonic value of sport can be an initial attractor, participants' ongoing engagement requires that intrinsic rewards are enabled and made salient (Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, Ryan, & Thøgersen-Ntoumani, 2011), and that participants learn to find individually relevant meaning in the learning that is being obtained (Moen & Vittersø, 2015). Thus, sport's value as an attractor for intervention programs requires those programs to do more than push their messages; the programs must assist participants to find personal significance in the experience.

This is particularly important because the meanings associated with sport experiences are embedded in the cultural ethos within which sport is embedded (McGarry, 2010). Participants enter into sport programs with expectations that derive from the culturally grounded exemplars with which they are familiar, and with goals that derive from what those exemplars display. While the hedonic elements of sport can attract participants, and may even facilitate delivery of the program's messages, it is essential to bear in mind that participants see themselves as doing sport. The ongoing hedonic value of sport depends on perceptions of personal achievement in the context of matching skills against realistic challenges (Wankel & Sefton, 1989). In other words, merely providing sport is insufficient; the program must provide a quality sport experience—one in which skills are developed and challenges are ordered throughout so that they are neither trivial nor prodigious. Sport for development and peace programs have too often been cavalier about this necessity. Programs are hampered when there is an underlying evangelistic attitude about sport—a presupposition that sport is intrinsically beneficial (Giulianotti, 2012). If that were the case, then the quality of sport pedagogy and training would matter less than the mere fact that sport is provided. But it is not the case. If the objective is to use sport to engage and retain participants in a program, then the quality of sport experience matters, even if the program's goals are not about sport. Partnerships between sport providers and agencies seeking to use sport to foster development and/or conflict resolution need to bear that in mind.

There is, however, one aspect of sport that is intrinsic: competition. Although competition can engender challenges that are deemed to be fun (MacPhail, Gorely, Kirk, & Kinchin, 2008), it can also yield negative social, cultural, economic, and psychological outcomes (Kohn, 1992). One of the most understudied aspects of sport competition is the centrifugal social forces that are engendered. The competitive nature of sport has been shown to provoke conflict among families of participants (Watson, 1977), induce participants to disengage (Roberts & Chick, 1984), and cause programs to disband (Sharpe, 2003). Administrative measures to mitigate the problematic consequences of competition need to be put into place in order to minimize negative effects like these, and to sustain the integrity and quality of sport programs (Chalip & Scott, 2005). This is a significant challenge for sport-based interventions, as their sustained impact depends

on managing the downsides of competition. If, as is often the case, sport is treated as if it were intrinsically beneficial, then the risks associated with competition will be ignored (as they too often are). Much more work is needed to delineate the centrifugal social forces associated with sport's competitive aspect, and to determine how to monitor and manage those forces. The need becomes particularly acute when there are partnerships or alliances, as the social downsides of competition could threaten their sustainability.

Sport's Social Aspect Can Be Leveraged

Sport training and competition take place in social settings. The social interactions enabled by sport have been shown to be a pivotal attraction into sport, and can foster continued participation when those social interactions are deemed positive (Allender, Cowburn, & Foster, 2006). Further, social interaction through sport can foster psychological well-being and social health (Eime et al., 2013). That is a key reason that sport is so often advocated as an intervention tool. Nevertheless, the mere fact of social interaction in sport is not what provides value; what matters is the quality of those social interactions. If quality social interactions are not enabled by the program, participants become disaffected (Gunnell et al., 2013).

As commonsensical as that may sound, it needs to be made explicit and salient because so much of the advocacy for sport as an intervention is framed as if the social value of sport were intrinsic. Program designers and staff who are responsible for implementing sport for development and peace interventions bring favorable attitudes toward sport, which is one reason they have chosen to use sport as an intervention in the first place. Indeed, when partnerships or alliances are solicited, the value of sport's social character is too often described as if it were intrinsic. It is not surprising, therefore, that interventions then fail to consider adequately the needs and challenges for monitoring and managing the social experiences enabled for participants. Much more research is needed to identify program features that foster and that inhibit quality social experiences, and to formulate tools and methods to monitor and manage a program's social climate.

The need is vital not merely because the program's social environment affects participants' commitment and engagement, but also because it determines the nature of the program's outcomes. Traditional sport programming places those who are receiving sport training in a role that is subservient to those who deliver the training. Experimental research demonstrates that participation in a traditional sport program can be worse for prosocial development than is not participating at all (Kleiber & Roberts, 1981). When the effects of sport programs are compared, it has been found that sport programs enabling positive peer experiences in a personally empowering social environment can render positive effects on participants' self-esteem (Daniels & Leaper, 2006) and their prosocial behavior (Hodge & Gucciardi, 2015), but that sport programs can worsen self-esteem and render antisocial behavior if the social climate is not supportive or empowering. Once again, sport is neither intrinsically beneficial nor harmful; its value depends on the nature and quality of program implementation. Rather than evaluating

sport as an intervention tool, we need to pay close attention to the variations in program design and implementation that make sport effective, ineffective, or counterproductive.

The competition that is intrinsic to sport is as double-edged for social experience as it is for hedonic experience. We live in a world that is heir to the notion that competition renders social and economic benefits. Competition is said to create what Adam Smith (1776) extolled as “the invisible hand.” Smith’s praise of competition became core to an ideology that is fundamental to modern (capitalist) economic, social, and political systems. Indeed, the claim is often made that competition is rooted in human nature, even though anthropological research falsifies that claim (Rogoff, 2003).

Given the ideologically embedded presupposition that competition is socially beneficial and intrinsic to human nature, it is little wonder that the upsides of competition are so often assumed in program design, and embedded in appeals to partners and allies. Program designers and evaluators rarely contemplate the downsides of sport competition. Yet, the necessity of mitigating competition’s hazards has been known for over half a century. Recall the classic Robbers Cave experiment (Sherif et al., 1961). When boys were assigned to teams that were placed into competition with one another, substantial social friction was engendered—so much so that sabotage by each team of the other became a threat to the boys’ safety. The researchers found it necessary to seek means by which to reintegrate the two groups socially. Their approach was to implant a superordinate goal that required the boys to cooperate if they were to attain it. That worked.

Since that time, researchers have sought additional means to enable groups to come together. It has been shown, for example, that integration and cooperation among groups can be facilitated by breaking down the social categories (such as teams or ethnicities) used to pigeonhole people, especially if differences within groups and similarities between groups are simultaneously explored (Gaertner & Dovidio, 2000). Whether those techniques can be integrated into a competitive sport context needs to be explored. It is possible that jigsaw organization such that members find it necessary to share resources and skills across teams could enable the necessary dialogues. Research in classroom settings demonstrates beneficial effects from jigsaw organization on social climate, group integration, and learning (Aronson & Patnoe, 2011). Although jigsaw learning techniques are not a normal feature of sport settings, there is evidence that peer-assisted learning of physical skills can be employed with good effect (Ward & Lee, 2005). Recategorization and jigsaw learning may be useful tools, and may help to mitigate the centrifugal social forces associated with competition, but the means to apply them in sport settings are yet to be elaborated.

Sport Has a Credibility and Capability Problem

Although sport is increasingly advocated as a development and conflict resolution tool, the bulk of that advocacy comes from sport people who are (or have been) personally engaged with sport. There are plenty of people who have had negative experiences

with physical education and sport (Ennis, 1996), and who have developed negative attitudes toward sport (Thompson, Humbert, & Mirwald, 2003). Some of those people are managers and policymakers. They are unlikely to find arguments asserting sport's beneficial properties to be credible. When popular media reports about doping, injuries, and sexual abuse become part of the mix, sport's credibility problem is exacerbated.

Even among those who love sport, there remains the challenge that sport falls under the rubric of play. Despite substantial research demonstrating the value of play for development, learning, and problem solving (Else, 2009), play is nonetheless constructed culturally as the stuff of childhood—separate from serious things that matter. Sport colludes in this trivialization through its separateness. Sport can boast that it is significant enough to have its own magazines, radio stations, television channels, and sections in the news media. But those facts are essentially indicators of sport's separateness. Sport media place sport into a ghetto that obscures sport's relationships to other facets of the social, behavioral, economic, and political world. Sport is thereby trivialized. If sport is so separate, why should development or conflict resolution agencies take sport for development and peace seriously?

It doesn't help that sport organizations have their own priorities, which have more to do with developing sport than with using sport to develop other things. This problem is nicely illustrated by the inadequate partnerships between sport and tourism organizations for purposes of economic development (Weed, 2003). Sport managers work to develop sport, not tourism; tourism managers know how to build tourism, but not sport. As a result, the two groups talk past one another and fail to form effective and beneficial alliances. Comparably problematic alliances are manifest elsewhere as sport managers rarely have the capacity or interest for using sport for purposes other than sport. They work in a technocratic subculture focused on what is required to produce participation, audiences, and wins, rather than non-sport benefits.

Together the three challenges to sport's credibility and capability are illustrated in Figure 1.2. These fundamental challenges need to be addressed if sport for development and peace programs are to forge sustainable alliances with other development and conflict resolution organizations. It is not sufficient merely to know how to use sport for development and peace; it is also necessary to be credible and to be capable of working with organizations that are not otherwise concerned with sport.

When and How to Proceed

The use of sport for development and peace is still in its infancy. The vast majority of development and conflict resolution interventions make little to no use of sport. As we have seen, bringing sport to bear on a problem might sometimes prove useful, but it could also be harmful. The effect depends on whether sport programs can be designed and implemented in a manner that adds positive and purposeful value. There may be times when sport can be utilized on its own, and other times when sport is only likely to be effective when in the company of non-sport organizations. There are undoubtedly also instances when sport would be superfluous. A flowchart describing the requisite

decision-making steps to determine whether to use sport and whether to seek alliances or partnerships for a sport-based intervention is provided in Figure 1.3.

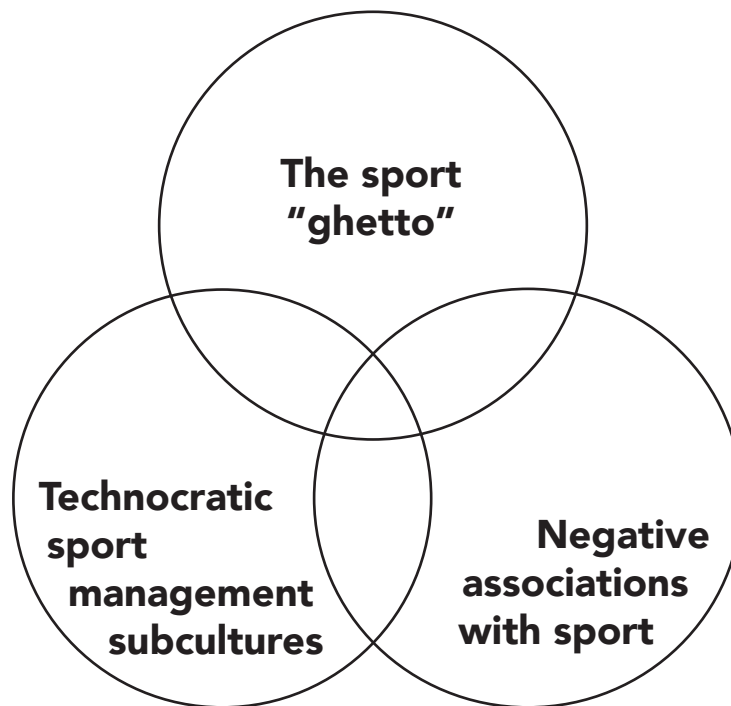


Figure 1.2. Challenges to sport's credibility and capability for contributing to development and conflict resolution interventions.

The process illustrated in Figure 1.3 entails thoughtful deliberation. Effective program formulation requires considered application of theory and formative evaluation (Funnell & Rogers, 2011). Ongoing program evaluation can then enable learning while the program is being implemented, as well as after it has been completed (Mertens & Wilson, 2019). These have become benchmark steps for program design, refinement, and appraisal, yet sport for development and peace programs have made only haphazard use of them (Coalter, 2013). Application of these steps using an action research framework (Chalip, 2015) would contribute positively to program implementation, and could provide the necessary empirical insight to enable formulation of the theory base that is necessary for sport to be used as an intervention tool (cf. Burnett, 2015).

Prospects

There is no question that sport can provide benefits that extend beyond sport, but only if programs are implemented in ways that are conducive to intended benefits. Sport does not routinely foster development or peace. Appropriately designed sport experiences might.

Rarely, if ever, can a sport program go it alone. When sport is intended as a hook, there will be partners delivering non-sport services. When sport is used as an analogy,

the institutions and experiences to which those analogies apply must be envisioned as partners, whether active or implicit. Even when sport is treated as if it were both necessary and sufficient to render desired outcomes, partnerships with facilities, governing organizations, and suppliers of supporting services will normally be essential.

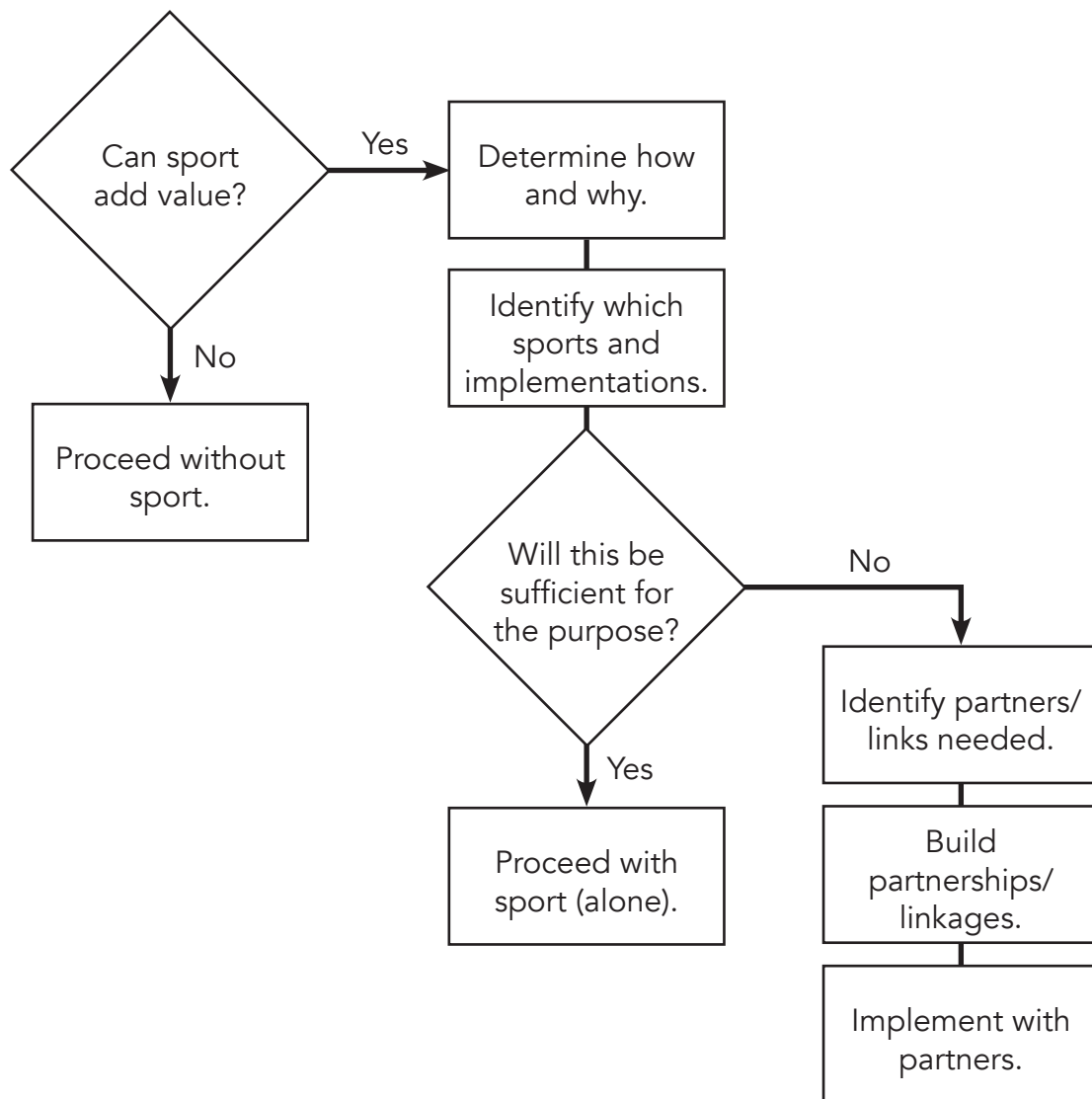


Figure 1.3. Flow chart for determining whether to use sport and build partnerships in an intervention.

In order to deliver appropriately designed and targeted experiences, programs can harness sport's hedonic and social character while being mindful of the centrifugal social forces that sport competition can render. Multidisciplinary program design and ongoing program evaluation are indispensable—not merely to determine whether any

particular program is effective, but also to contribute to fundamental knowledge about sport as an intervention tool. As that effort succeeds, the credibility and capability challenges sport for development and peace programs face will recede.

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