

Palacky University in Olomouc

Faculty of Physical Culture

**THE INFLUENCE OF SPORT AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES ON
YOUTH DEVELOPMENT WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF
DEVELOPING COUNTRIES (THE KIDS LEAGUE, UGANDA)**

Dissertation thesis

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Abstract: The dissertation thesis aims to provide a basic overview of the new and emerging field of "*sport and development*". It describes the use of sport as a tool to solve various development problems. The research focuses on the role of football in the personal development of the children. It was carried out with the NGO called The Kids League that organizes sporting activities for young people in Uganda, which falls in the group of so-called developing countries. The qualitative research used observation, interviews and focus group as methods of data collection. Data were analysed by the use of thematic analysis. Positive as well as negative effects were found. Football and the international tournaments play a very important role in the lives of the youths. It can provide access to education and help them gain new knowledge and skills. On the other hand, due to football the youths miss classes and when abroad they can learn bad behaviour and become disrespectful.

Key words: developing country, development through football, Football for Hope Festival, personal development, role of football, sport and development, The Kids League, thematic analysis

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Abstrakt: Disertace se zabývá tématem *sportu a rozvoje*. Sport je zde chápán jako nástroj, který slouží při řešení nejrůznějších rozvojových problémů. Výzkum se přímo zabývá rolí fotbalu v osobnostním rozvoji dětí. Byl realizován ve spolupráci s neziskovou organizací The Kids League, která nabízí sportovní aktivity mládeži v Ugandě (rozvojový stát ve východní Africe). K zodpovězení výzkumných otázek byl využit kvalitativní výzkum, jehož hlavními metodami sběru dat bylo pozorování, rozhovory a ohnisková skupina. Při analýze dat byla využita tzv. tematická analýza, která prokázala pozitivní i negativní vlivy fotbalu na osobnostní rozvoj mládeže. Fotbal a mezinárodní turnaje hrají v životě zkoumané mládeže velkou roli. Fotbal může zprostředkovat přístup ke vzdělání a také nové znalosti a dovednosti. Na druhé straně kvůli fotbalu mládež zameškává vyučování ve škole a při účasti na zahraničních turnajích se mohou naučit špatné návyky a zpychnout.

Klíčová slova: Football for Hope Festival, osobnostní rozvoj, role fotbalu, rozvoj prostřednictvím fotbalu, rozvojová země, sport a rozvoj, The Kids League, tematická analýza,

Souhlasím s půjčováním práce v rámci knihovních služeb.

I declare in lieu of oath that I wrote this dissertation thesis myself under the supervision of doc. PhDr. Zbyněk Svozil, Ph.D. and with the co-supervision of Dr. María Rato Barrio, Ph.D. All information derived from the work of others has been acknowledged in the text and a list of references is given.

Olomouc, 31st March, 2013

.....

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List of abbreviations

AFFEL	Amputee Football Federation of Liberia
BRICS	Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa
CIA	Central Intelligence Agency
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
FFH	Football for Hope
FIFA	Fédération Internationale de Football Association
FIVB	Fédération Internationale de Volleyball
FoF	Friends of Football
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GDE	Global Development Education
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HDI	Human Development Index
ICE	Intercultural Education
ICSSPE	International Council of Sport Science and Physical Education
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
IFIs	International Financial Institutions
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INSDC	International Network of Sport and Development Consultants
IOC	International Olympic Committee
ISCA	International Sport and Culture Association
IYSPE	International Year of Sport and Physical Education
KKL	Kampala Kids League
LRA	Lord Resistance Army
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MFA	Ministry of Foreign Affairs
MTG	Moving the Goalposts
MoES	Ministry of Education and Sports
MYSA	Mathare Youth Sport Association
MZV ČR	Ministerstvo zahraničních věcí České republiky (Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Czech Republic)

NCDO	Netherlands National Committee for International Cooperation and Sustainable Development
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
OG	Olympic Games
PE	Physical Education
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
RTP	Right to Play
SaD	Sport and Development
SAD	Swiss Agency for Development
SDP	Sport for Development and Peace
SDP-IWG	Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group
SfD	Sport for Development
SHFL	Siem Reap Hotel Football League
TKL	The Kids League
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UN	United Nations
UN-DESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNOSDP	United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USD	United States dollar
WHO	World Health Organization
WB	World Bank
WC	World Cup/World Championship

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1 Introduction

This thesis is devoted to “*sport and development*¹” which is a newly emerging field in sport science and development studies and is gradually starting to be covered in academic literature. I have been involved in this area for several years and have also been trying to connect both fields (sport and development) at Palacky University. I have also actively participated in several events that were organized in the field of “*sport and development*” (such as conferences, festivals and projects).

The world of sport and the field of development have always been interconnected. In ancient Greece the idea of sport was supported by introducing a truce during the Olympic Games. Therefore it is possible to point out that sport and sporting events could help to spread important messages about tolerance, friendship, mutual understanding and peace. Nonetheless, I feel it is very important to mention that sport can also provoke very negative feelings and actions.

Nowadays *sport and development* already have their place in academia and experts from the field of *sport and development* regularly meet and discuss the impact of sporting programs, projects and events on development. The methodologies are being developed and the research gap which existed at the beginning of the 21th century is very slowly decreasing.

Such international organizations as the International Olympic Committee and the United Nations (and the majority of its agencies) are very active in this field and important politicians voice their support for sport in their speeches.

“Sport is increasingly recognized as an important tool in helping the United Nations achieve its objectives, in particular the Millennium Development Goals. By including sport in development and peace programmes in a more systematic way, the United nations can make full use of this cost-effective tool to help us create a better world.”

Ban Ki-moon
United Nations Secretary-General

New NGOs have emerged and they are using the power of sport to enhance economic, social and environmental development. The governments of different

¹ When put in italics as „*sport and development*“ I talk about the whole concept/movement/filed.

countries have started to put sport on their political agenda and sport is also visibly being used in the field of development cooperation. In areas of development where people work with marginalized and unprivileged communities, sport and physical activity have particularly gained more attention and their potential is being harnessed. The question of how sport works in the development field is still unanswered. The discussion about its functions, benefits and impact is still ongoing in academic circles.

This thesis aims to contribute to these discussions with its findings, to spread details of the aforementioned topic around the Czech Republic and to enrich this academic field.

1.1 Organisation of the thesis

I decided to write the thesis in English because my research was done in English and I did not want to lose the exact meanings the participants expressed in the interviews. The other reason is that the whole area of “*sport and development*” is covered widely in English.

The text of the thesis combines the areas of sport science and development studies. Therefore there are many different terms from various academic domains used in the thesis. I consider it important to explain those terms which are used frequently and which are fundamental to an understanding of the thesis. When such terms first appear in the text they are explained in the footnotes.

2 Conceptual framework of the thesis

The first chapter of this thesis provides the theoretical overview necessary for an understanding of the following research. The first subchapter (2.1) is devoted to the field of *sport and development*. It defines the main terms and describes the evolution of the field over time. Research and current criticisms are also discussed. The focus of the subchapter is progressively narrowed down to football because that is the main objective of the research. The situation in the Czech Republic is also described within this subchapter because I consider it important to explain my background and how that has influenced me.

The second part of the conceptual framework (2.2) describes the situation in Uganda where The Kids League (TKL) implements its sport programs. The TKL and the people connected to this organisation were the main participants in the research.

The last part of the first chapter (2.3) focuses on the qualitative research and its basics. This subchapter provides the necessary theoretical background for the methodological chapter 4.

2.1 Sport and development

Sport and physical activity have played a very important role in our society. Currently, it has also started to be used in the *development* domain by people working on solutions to actual *development problems* (such as poverty, conflict, hunger, gender inequity, diseases...) in the economically weaker regions of the world (Kidd, 2008). The whole first subchapter 1.1 gives an overview of the existing knowledge of sport and its use in the domain of *development*. The research in this domain has been slowly achieving its first results because the organisations involved in the field have started to evaluate the impact of their sport interventions (Levermore, 2011b). Quantitative and also qualitative methods are being used (Cronin, 2011).

I am aware of the fact that words such as *development* can be very controversial and therefore they are written in italics and the approach taken to them in this thesis is explained later in this chapter.

2.1.1 Introduction of the concept

At the beginning of the thesis the most important terms are introduced and described. I start with the definitions of sport and development that are brought together later in the third subchapter (2.1.1.3) and merged to define the field of “*sport and development*”.

2.1.1.1 Sport

There are many existing definitions that try to define sport as such. My aim is not to discuss all existing definitions in detail but rather to introduce some of them and to make the term sport clear within the concept of “*sport and development*”.

The first group of sport scientists understand the term sport as “*institutionalized competitive activities that involve rigorous physical exertion or the use of relatively complex physical skills by participants motivated by internal and external rewards*” (Coakley & Pike, 2009, 5). Dovalil et al. (2002, 6) defines sport as “*voluntary physical activity that is motivated by the effort to reach the maximum performance developed during training and demonstrated through the competitions*”. The first definition argues that institutionalization is necessary (see also Sekot, 2006); the second one points out that sport has to be demonstrated in competition.

The second group of sport scientists understand sport in a broader context. They especially emphasize physical and mental well-being and social contacts that can be created through sport. This understanding has become more popular in recent years (Flemr & Vajlent, 2010). It is also reflected in the European Sports Charter (Council of Europe, 2001) that defines sport as “*all forms of physical activity which, through casual or organised participation, aim at expressing or improving physical fitness and mental well-being, forming social relationships or obtaining results in competition at all levels.*” This understanding is very similar to the understanding of sport and physical activities within the whole concept of *sport and development*. The exact definition (UNICEF, 2004, 1) is mentioned and discussed later in the text.

Within sport academic literature, sport and physical activity are said to have many positive as well as negative impacts. According to Bailey (2005) and Bailey and Dismore (undated) sport and physical education are very important tools in the whole educational system because they contribute to the development of five fundamental areas – (a) individual fitness, (b) life style, (c) affective development, (d) social competences and (e) cognitive development. The meaning of all the above mentioned

fundamental areas (a–e) is broadened in the following sentences. Sport and physical education support active and healthy lifestyles (b) and therefore influence the life of future generations. Affective development, (c) according to Bailey (2006), means the improvement of psychological well-being through regular physical activity because it decreases stress and depression. Social interaction is also enhanced by participation in sports and therefore (d) the development of social competences likewise. The last fundamental area, cognitive development (e), when supported by sport, contributes to better academic results.

As already mentioned, sport can also be linked with many negative issues and impacts such as hooliganism, doping and drugs or alcohol. Sekot (2006) mentions the following negative issues in connection to professional sport – violence, aggression, bullying and hostility. Further, health conditions can be threatened, especially at the professional level (Armstrong, 2002; Coalter, 2008; Jarvie, 2011; Kidd, 2011). In some cases it can even create conflict (Sugden, 2008; Schulenkorf, 2010). These effects are not omitted from the thesis and are discussed where appropriate.

2.1.1.2 Development

The term *development* seems very difficult to define. The term is very broad and its definition is extremely complex and ambiguous. However, it is used by millions of people every day, in academic papers, in industry and in all languages all around the world. This thesis does not aim to discuss the term *development* and its criticisms and challenges in a very detailed form. Nonetheless, it is important to describe and explain the evolution of the term and the approach taken to it in this text.

The meaning of the word *development* has been constantly changing and in dispute (Sumner & Tribe, 2008). The term *development* is, according to Newell and Frynas (2007, 676) “*inherently political and conflictual as the actors involved have competing priorities and ideas about how to achieve them.*” Horký (in Dušková et al., 2011, 262) says that *development* could be “*under correction defined as positive social change*”.

Historically the understanding of *development* has been shaped by different authors, approaches and theories. Aristotle perceived *development* as natural and as the genesis of growing things (Rist, 2008). The perception of the process of *development* was also influenced by slavery and colonization. At that time Western society saw itself as superior and therefore felt the obligation to *civilize and develop* the inferior. During

the 17th and 18th century economists (e. g. A. Smith in *The Wealth of Nations*) underlined the importance of economic growth and the free market for the development of a nation. The era after the 2nd World War is labelled as the period of so-called *development*. A speech by US president Truman in 1949 is viewed as the beginning of today's global development business, the period of the creation and implementation of development policies (Potter et al., 2004). Since this time the world has been consciously divided into so-called developed² and underdeveloped/developing³ areas. For these two categories different terms are used in the literature as explained in the footnote. These controversial terms are used interchangeably in this thesis.

The 2nd half of the 20th century is very much influenced by different development projects and interchanging theories. The post-2nd World War period of the 1950s and 60s is known for its focus on economic growth. According to Rostow's theory (*Stages of Economic Growth*) economic growth was an essential condition for the *development* of underdeveloped areas. Economists had the idea that all the so-called developing countries needed to undergo the same process of economic growth that the developed nations had already been through in order to advance. The International Financial Institutions (IFIs; IMF – International Monetary Fund, WB – World Bank, WTO – World Trade Organisation) were also created during this epoch. *Development* particularly occurred through broad development policies on the global and national level. During the 1970s two competing economic schools of thoughts dominated the development arena (Perkins, Radelet & Lindauer, 2006). The first, known as the structural change theory focused on the transformation from agriculture to an industrial economy. As a reaction to the structural change paradigm, the dependency theory was existed simultaneously and was seen as valid in the contemporary world. It emerged from Latin American scholars and was intended to show that the world is influenced by dominance and dependence relations. The so-called developing countries were, according to this theory, caught on the world's periphery by the political, institutional and economic rigidity of the world system and therefore dependent on the so-called

²*Developed countries* are also labelled as Global North/First World/high income countries/Minority World. In common practice Japan, Australia, New Zealand and countries in Europe and Northern America are considered to be developed. (United Nations, 2012)

³*Developing countries* are also labelled as Global South/Third World/low income countries/Majority World. The majority of the world countries belong among the developing ones (especially in Asia, Africa, Latin America, Oceania and several countries of Eastern and South-eastern Europe). According to United Nations data there are 127 countries labelled as developing (United Nations, 2012). They are not very homogeneous but all have only a low level of socioeconomic development. Their economy is mainly based on agriculture and industrialisation is low (Dušková et al., 2011).

developed countries (Todaro & Smith, 2006). It is possible to say that the main emphasis of the development efforts at that time was on the national economy, its transformation and performance. Individuals did not receive any special attention within these theories.

The 1980s and 90s were shaped by neoclassical (also called neoliberal) theories. The role of state policies was criticized and economists fostered the role of a free market with as little state intervention as possible. State intervention in the economy of the developing countries was perceived as negative and it was said that it slowed economic growth. All the measures and strategies already mentioned up to the 1990s were especially focused on economic growth at a national level. Today's critics see these measures as ineffective and having forced the so-called developing countries to do what the so-called developed nations had obliged them to do. In the late 1990s the development paradigm shifted again and social and ecological measures started to be taken into account because the world realized that the policies that had been applied up to that time were not working as they had been expected to. All the big development actors (IFIs, governments) put these measures on their agendas and therefore human development started to focus a little bit more on the human being. These changes in development thinking were embedded into the creation of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in 2000. MDGs are a set of eight goals that aim for the (a) eradication of poverty and hunger, (b) achievement of universal primary education, (c) promotion of gender equity and empowerment of women, (d) reduction of child mortality, (e) improvement of maternal health, (f) fight against HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, (g) ensured environmental sustainability and (h) development of a global partnership. This mental shift with the creation of MDGs followed the general findings that economic growth itself was not contributing to the eradication of poverty. Social and ecological values (till that time absent on the agendas) had to be added. Economic development is said to be important but at the same time it is not enough for *development*.

As already written above, even nowadays different scientists (economists, sociologists, development scholars...) do not completely agree on what *development* is and how it should/or may be achieved. According to Pieterse (in Black, 2010, 122) development is defined as „*the organized intervention in collective affairs according to a standard of improvement.*” This definition follows the mainstream thinking that the *development process* is purposeful, interventionist and intentional. Another existing

definition is in contrast to the first and states that „*development is an immanent process [...] and may be even disrupted and corrupted by well-meant, purposeful or intentional development efforts*” (Cowen & Shenton in Black, 2010, 122). From the above definitions it is clear that *development* has ambiguous meanings. It is an organized process for the majority of mainstream economists and on the other hand there are sociologists and development scholars who criticize this approach.

Another very influential theory that arose in the 1990s and brought new ideas to *development* was the post-development paradigm. This one is also very critical of development practices and challenges the whole concept of *development*. Theorists such as Escobar accuse the countries of the Global North of being guilty of a new form of colonization exercised through Western development agendas and broad state policies. The post-development paradigm uncovers the power relations existing between the North and South. As an alternative, post-development promotes grassroots' movements, local culture and knowledge. The focus on local knowledge and people's capabilities are also shared by Chambers (1997), who is very much in favour of participatory approaches to *development*. He stresses community decision making, local knowhow and skills that enable people to decide for themselves. He also advocates more work focused on the community level, especially through participatory rural appraisal methods (PRA)⁴. In the work of Chambers the active role of the human being in the *development process* is stressed.

Certainly another very influential work in the last 15 years has been Amartya Sen's book „Development as Freedom”. The famous economist has a new approach and defined *development* as „*a process of expanding the real freedoms that people should enjoy*“ (Sen, 1999, 3). By this Sen means freedom of choice and individual capabilities to access five fundamental freedoms - (a) economic facilities, (b) political freedoms, (c) social opportunities, (d) transparency guarantees, and (e) protective security. All five fundamental freedoms are interlinked and they advance the general capabilities of people. Sen not only considers these freedoms as the ends of *development*, but also as the means. He brings ethics into development thinking and the individual is the core actor in his capability approach. The individual is understood to be an agent of his/her

⁴**Participatory methods** are those methods that include the program participants in the discussion of the program aims, the whole implementation and evaluation. Participatory rural appraisal (PRA) is an approach in which the knowledge and experience of rural inhabitants of developing countries should be involved in the planning and management of the development programs and projects. (Dušková et al., 2011)

own success. According to Sen (1999, 285) human development is „*our capability to lead the kind of lives we have reason to value*“. In that way, Sen is saying that *development* should not only be focused on economic growth and industrialization, but it should go beyond that and focus on each person’s capabilities and broaden them. He sees wealth only as something that allows us to do things and achieve the freedoms.

Levermore and Beacom (2009, 7) in their book *Sport and International Development* also discuss briefly the evolution of the term *development* and they argue that even today there is “*a lack of common consensus*”. They define international development as “*...the processes by which there is an attempt to improve life chances⁵ throughout the world but particularly in countries considered to be low income.*” The United Nations (2003, 3) defines *development* as “*process of enlarging people’s choices and increasing the opportunities available to all members of society.*” The opportunities of current and future generations are taken into account and emphasis is placed on human capabilities, such as the possibility of leading a long and healthy life, having access to resources and to be knowledgeable (United Nations, 2003).

2.1.1.2.1 Personal development

As it might be clear from the paragraphs above the term *development* is very broad and hard to research. In this thesis I base my understanding of *development* on the approaches proposed by Chambers (1997) and Sen (1999), who see the human being as a core agent of *development* and the enlargement of people’s choices, knowledge, capabilities and freedoms is central to them. Therefore for the purposes of this thesis I decided to narrow down the understanding of *development* into personal development, where the main focus is on the human being.

Personal development is defined here as positive changes in the structure of the system of mental processes, conditions and characteristics (Kohoutek, 2000; Smékal, 2004) originating in the socialization and restructuring of the inherent qualities of an individual. Personal development is therefore a process that contributes to the improvement of one’s own identity, enhances the abilities, supports the creation of skills for a future profession and therefore improves the quality of life. Through personal development the individual is empowered to realize their personal dreams and

⁵The term *life chances* refers not just to living standards, but is also related to the enhancement of personal welfare, and improved quality of life for individuals and their dependents. The term was used in a British as well as international context (Human Development Report published by UNDP) (Levermore, & Beacom, 2009).

aspirations (Aubrey, 2010). On an individual level we can speak within personal development about such activities as the improvement of living standards, the development of talent and of increasing employability, as well as an improvement in health, the gaining new abilities and skills and the improvement of social intelligence. All these activities are embedded in the social opportunities (see above) defined by Sen (1999, 39) as “*arrangements that society makes for education, health care and so on, which influence the individual’s substantive freedom to live better.*”

In sport literature it is possible to also find other words used in the domain of personal development, as for example positive youth development and the 5Cs model, life skills development and social-emotional growth. Frequently they are used interchangeably without exact definitions. Gould and Carson (2008b) use the term “*positive youth development*” (PYD). They define it as a “*broad notion that includes the development of diverse competencies that can help a young person in sport, in their current life and/or in their future*” (Gould & Carson, 2008a, 59). Youths should obtain competencies that will help them to develop into “*healthy adults in many different aspects of their lives*” (Wells & Arthur-Banning, 2008, 189). When talking about positive youth development the authors often mention the 5Cs model and life skills approach (Camiré et al., 2011; Gould & Carson, 2008a; Jones et al., 2011). According to Lerner (in Jones et al., 2011) these are the following areas among the 5Cs⁶ – competence, confidence, connection, character and caring/compassion. Their development and combination should contribute to positive youth development. To find a definition of life skills is also a challenging issue. Gould and Carson (2008b, 290) describe life skills as “*those internal personal assets, characteristics and skills such as goal setting, emotional control, self-esteem, and a work ethic that can be facilitated or developed in sport and transferred for use in non-sport settings.*” For example under the term life skills different authors (e. g. Eccles et al., 2003; Gould & Carson, 2008a; Hansen, Larson & Dworkin, 2003) refer to time and stress management, character development, decision making, communication, links to positive adult and peer role models, personal responsibility, academic achievement and general confidence and efficacy. This list is not exhaustive at all. For life skills development the transfer from the sport environment to everyday life is fundamental. According to Gould and Carson

⁶**Competence** = positive view of one’s actions, **confidence** = internal sense of self-worth, self-efficacy and self-regard, **connection** = positive bonds with people and institutions, **character** = individual’s respect for societal and cultural norms, **caring/compassion** = person’s sense of sympathy and empathy for others (Jones et al., 2011, 251-252)

(2008a) the success of skill transfer is more difficult in the professional sport setting and therefore the role of coach is very influential (Jones et al., 2011).

In this thesis I work with the personal development approach described above and I want to see how the research participants perceive the role of sport in the life of children. I do not construct any exact categories beforehand but I analyse the data with the personal development definitions in mind. In this thesis I focus on the outcomes that participants believe sport might bring to their lives.

2.1.1.2.2 Measurement of development

Another point of view on *development* is the way it is measured. The question of whether it is even possible to measure *development* is an issue which is also very challenging and controversial.

The first indicator ever used was purely economic and therefore it also contributed to the shaping of our thinking. Gross Domestic Product (GDP) measures only the economic power of a state. But in the 2nd half of the 20th century it was considered to be the best index to describe the level of *development* of a country. Human Development Index (HDI) launched in 1990 by UNDP (United Nations Development Programme) was a reaction to the criticisms of purely economic measurements of *development*. HDI takes into consideration three different components – GDP, level of education and life expectancy. The establishment of the HDI followed general discussions, the shift in perception of *development* in the 1990s and the necessity to place more focus on sustainable development perceived as a combination of economic, social and ecological components. Nonetheless, when measuring *development* the economic component is present at all times. All the indicators issued by IFIs or UN take into consideration some economic measurements and values. For example, when measuring poverty the value of 1.25 USD/day represents the poverty line. 1.25 USD is perceived to be the minimal amount of money that makes people better off. It refers purely to the economic development of a country; this value does not include anything about human well-being.

According to these indexes (GDP and HDI) the countries of the world might be divided into the following categories – so-called developed or so-called developing (as already explained in chapter 2.1.1.2). In the last few years a new category has emerged

– so-called BRICS⁷ countries. This aforementioned division is especially based on economic measures and on the understanding of *development* coming from Western so-called developed countries. Nevertheless, this division is very often used in academic literature and discussions about *sport and development*.

It is not the aim of this thesis to judge this division but I considered it important to briefly mention all the challenges and possible contradictions coming from the broad term of *development*. Personally I do not agree with the aforementioned division of countries but I felt it necessary to explain in order to be able to continue with the next chapters and the research itself.

As mentioned above the focus of my thesis is on personal development. My attention is concentrated on children and their personal development in the context of one so-called developing country (Uganda). Many quantitative tools exist that might measure personal development (e. g. scale of self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-perception...). However, due to reasons mentioned later I decided to use the qualitative research design in this thesis.

2.1.1.3 Sport and development

The concept of “*sport and development*” brings together these two terms and builds on their definitions mentioned earlier. However, it goes beyond the understanding and limitations mentioned in previous paragraphs. Here, the understanding of sport is very broad and the concept emphasizes that cultural differences also influence people’s perception of the term. A clear definition of how sport is understood within this concept is given by the United Nations (2003, 2).

“‘Sport’ are all forms of physical activity that contribute to physical fitness, mental well-being and social interaction. These include play; recreation; organized, casual or competitive sport; and indigenous sports or games.” UNICEF (2004, 1) adds to this that “sport involves rules or customs and sometimes competition. Play – especially among children – is any physical activity that is fun and participatory. It is often unstructured and free from adult direction. Recreation is more organized

⁷**BRIC** is an acronym representing four countries **Brazil, Russia, India and China** that are considered to be the most important new economic forces in the 21st century and who have also become interested in organizing sport mega events. Sometimes they are also called “emerging economies”. In 2010 South Africa joined this group and the acronym became **BRICS**.

than play, and generally entails physically active leisure activities. Play, recreation and sport are all freely chosen activities undertaken for pleasure.”

Here, I find the biggest difference with the first group of sport scientists as already mentioned in chapter 2.1.1.1, because the aspects of institutionalization, rigorous physical exertion and maximum performance as well as regular competition are included. The emphasis within the concept of “*sport and development*” is on well-being and social interaction. Hence, the above definition of sport is very close to the understanding provided by the Council of Europe (2001) mentioned already in 2.1.1.1. When I am using the word sport in my thesis I refer to this broad definition created by the United Nations (2003) and UNICEF (2004), which encompasses play, recreation and all kinds of sports and games.

The concept of “*sport and development*” and the understanding of sport in the *development process* has been constantly developing during recent years and its definition is therefore quite complex. Kruse (2006, 8) says that the movement of *sport and development* is “*intriguingly vague and open to several interpretations.*” Nevertheless, the essence of the concept means that sport and physical activity are being used as tools that might contribute to *development* and therefore improve the life quality of individuals wherever they are in the world (especially in the so-called developing countries) (as mentioned by Levermore and Beacom, 2009). The concept therefore covers many *development* areas.

Sport is used as part of psychosocial aid programs in refugee camps and in post-disaster intervention (ICSSPE, 2008; Ley & Rato Barrio, 2012a), it can contribute to conflict solution and prevention (Ley & Rato Barrio, 2012b; Munro, 2012; Sugden, 2008) and it is a useful tool for prevention of diseases such as HIV/AIDS (Ley & Rato, 2012c; Mwanga, 2012, Tackle Africa, 2010). It helps with access to education and fosters people’s capacities and therefore their empowerment⁸ (Legat, 2010). In divided societies a sports pitch is often the only place where children can interact with peers from a different community (Gasser & Levinsen, 2004; Giulianotti, 2011). Nevertheless, it is also important to mention that in divided communities the sports pitch can be the place to fight (Sugden, 2010). Fejgin (in Bailey, 2006) argues that

⁸*Empowerment* „is the process of enhancing the capacity of individuals or groups to make choices and to transform those choices into desired actions and outcomes“. (WB, 2011a)

through the availability of sport programs school attendance can increase and become more attractive. It also can contribute to the socialization of marginalized people and people with disabilities into mainstream society (Beacom, 2009; Crabbe, 2009). The role of sport in creating social change (Meier & Saavedra, 2009) and its influence on criminality is also described (Foster & Giles-Corti, 2008; Hartmann & Depro, 2006). The use of sport and physical activity is not always only positive and therefore it is important to emphasize that the way sport programs are structured and organized is decisive for the upcoming results (Coalter, 2010; Ley & Rato Barrio, 2010).

Both terms (sport and development) have been put together more and more often in the last few years and recently sport has started to play an important role in the *development* domain. Especially in the last 15–20 years sport and physical activity have been harnessed as tools that enhance social change and therefore *development* (Levermore & Beacom, 2009). Thus sport serves “only” as an instrument. It means that the most significant aim therefore is not the training of elite sportsmen but the single process of participation in physical activities and in all other educational events. Therefore the aim of using sport as a tool is to contribute to the solution of different *development problems* through participation in sporting events.

According to the United Nations’ report (United Nations, 2003) sport is supposed to contribute to the improvement of health, to help create peace, to support economic growth, to facilitate communication between enemies, to eliminate gender inequalities and to foster the education and socialization of child soldiers. Many of the UN agencies therefore use the stated potential of sport and physical activities in their programs. It is also said that sport can contribute to the fulfilment of the Millennium Development Goals set in 2000 (Beutler, 2008; Levermore & Beacom, 2009; United Nations, 2003) by the international community and backed by the United Nations. The governments of the so-called developed states have to strengthen their cooperation and support the fulfilment of the defined goals all around the world with a focus on the so-called developing countries. These goals are supposed to be fulfilled by the end of 2015 but it is very unlikely that all the eight goals will be achieved all around the world, especially taking into account the recent financial crisis (Accorsia et al., 2010; Sánchez & Vos, 2009). However, sport may still be a useful tool in this process (SDP-IWG, 2007).

Development literature also (or “*sport and development*” academic sources) describes the potential role of sport and physical activity in other domains; for instance

economic development or poverty reduction (Beutler, 2008; Coalter, 2007; Fleming, 2009; Hayhurst, 2009; ICSSPE, 2008; Kidd, 2008; Legat, 2010; Levermore & Beacom, 2009). From the political sphere the importance of sport and physical activity is embedded in several international documents. These are the International Charter on Physical Education and Sport (UNESCO, 1978), the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (United Nations, 1979), the Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations, 1989) and lastly the International Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (United Nations, 2006). All the documents endorse politically the idea that sport and physical activity are among the basic human rights and cannot be replaced by anything else in the educational system. All children around the world have the right to enjoy free time and engage in play and recreational activities and national governments should encourage the creation of such opportunities (United Nations, 1989). Access to sport and physical activities should be provided equally to women and men (United Nations, 1979).

Levermore (2009) sees the influence of sport in *development* in three specific areas. These areas are (a) strengthening physical infrastructure, (b) socio-economic development and (c) linking sport and business. In the following lines concrete information for each of the three areas is provided. Within the first area (a) Levermore placed the building of a country's sports infrastructure. It enhances participation in sports and the secondary effect is the building of a physical infrastructure (telecommunications, transport roads, sanitation, hotels etc.). New infrastructure is mainly being built in connection with the bidding for big sport mega-events. Then it is hoped there will be a lasting positive legacy from such events. Unfortunately it is not always the case. For instance, the Commonwealth Games in the Indian capital Delhi in 2010 left a legacy of debt and the newly built infrastructure is not fully used (High Level Committee, 2011). The impacts of the 2010 World Cup in South Africa are also very controversial (Levermore, 2011a). The second area defined by Levermore (2009) is (b) socio-economic development. Sport might contribute to social and economic development and poverty reduction through the acquisition of new skills and abilities taught in the sports programs. Through sport projects capacity building⁹ might be particularly increased and empowerment might be strengthened. The last area discussed

⁹*Capacity building* presents means by which skills, experience and management capacity are developed within an organisation (governmental, private or non-governmental). The main activities cover for instance, workshops, seminars and consultations. (Dušková et al., 2011)

by Levermore (2009) is (c) sport and business. Sport is becoming very popular in today's world and therefore it is also an important tool for public relation (PR) purposes. Consequently companies and multinational corporations have started to create strong links with the sports domain and they finance many *sport and development* programs within their Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)¹⁰ strategy.

In this area we very often hear political proclamations about the use of sport and its successes. These affirmations should bring political attention and money for this field and make sport more visible. As will be mentioned later many scholars question these affirmations nowadays and try to bring more scientific attention to the field, as they say that sport and physical activities are not automatically beneficial (Armstrong, 2004; Coalter, 2009; Darnell, 2012; Giulianotti, 2004; Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011; Rato Barrio & Ley, 2006). The SDP-IWG (2007, 4) also concluded that “*the evident benefits appear to be an indirect outcome of the context and social interaction that is possible in sport rather than a direct outcome of participating in sport.*” The popularity of sport and the uncritical beliefs in positive results are especially caused by the fact that sport is a new, unexplored and potentially uncontroversial area (Kruse, 2006). Notwithstanding, official United Nations proclamations create symbolic legitimacy for the concept of “*sport and development*” and UN websites and UN reports provide sources of information on projects and success stories (Kidd, 2008).

As was mentioned, the concept and understanding of „*sport and development*“ is still being formed. In the 1990s it was especially the term „sport for development (SfD)” that was employed because of its positive connotations (Levermore, 2009). In the course of time authors started to employ other terms, such as “sport and development (SaD)”, „sport-in-development”, „development through sport”, „education through sport” or „sport for development and peace” (SDP). The latter is used mostly within the UN system and the title SDP is officially recognized in many cultural and political spheres (Darnell & Black, 2011). All the terms are used interchangeably in academic literature.

There are also other terms which exist in literature, for instance, “sports development” or “development of sport”. Organizations that use these labels are focused on the development of sporting discipline as such and on developing a sporting

¹⁰*Corporate social responsibility* (CSR) is the concept of responsible behaviour of companies towards society and the environment. At the same time CSR should contribute to an improvement in companies' reputations among the general public. (Dušková et al., 2011)

elite. Very often the elite sportsmen are trained in the so-called developing countries with the help of foreign money and they later emigrate and compete for a different country. This phenomenon is referred to as “muscle drain” and can have similar effects as brain drain¹¹. Many organizations promise to use sport as a tool for development but in reality they support the development of a sporting elite and infrastructure (Kidd, 2008). The topic of “sports development” is not the focus of my thesis.

2.1.2 History and current status of the concept

Here the concept is presented in its broad understanding. The aim of this sub-chapter is mainly to explain the concept, its evolution and the current status. The focus is mainly on the African continent as the research was carried out in South Africa and Uganda. Nevertheless, there might be many examples from other parts of the world. The criticisms of and current challenges to the concept are described later in chapter 2.1.4.

Nowadays, sport and physical activity are used as tools for the *development* of the individual and society as well as tools to overcome *development* problems. Their use for *development* purposes started in antiquity. The first Olympic winners were honoured and became symbols for the rest of the population. An important feature was the guarantee of peace during the ancient Olympic Games (Dovalil et al., 2004).

Historically, sport was for instance, used as a tool during colonization and it contributed to the “*civilizing process*” in colonized regions (Giulianotti & Armstrong, 2004). It was also used as a means of preparing for war (Armstrong, 2002; Armstrong & Rosbrook-Thompson, 2012). Football, cricket and also rugby were historically used to teach rules and self-control and to deepen the inferiority of the nation being civilized, by its colonizer (Wachter, 2010). This approach considered the traditional indigenous physical activities as immoral and inappropriate (Amusa & Toriola, 2010) or even barbaric (Mangan in Levermore & Beacom, 2009). Only nowadays is it possible to see that a few of the formerly colonized countries have reverted to their previous physical activities in the form of traditional dances and games – e. g. the ballgame in Central America (Rato Barrio, 2009).

¹¹**Brain drain** is a term used to describe long-term international emigration of educated people with the focus on the developing countries that were affected the most by the emigration of their elites to the countries of the Global North. (Dušková et al., 2011)

In Africa physical education and sport are understood much more holistically than in other parts of the world. This means that sport and traditional practices are embedded in the way of life in African societies. As Van Deventer (2002) says, this holistic approach is difficult for the Western world to understand and he gives the example of dance that is understood as an event connecting people and the external world. Ubuntu is one example of many expressions that describe a holistic approach to sport in Southern Africa. It means that the human becomes human thanks to other people (Amusa, Toriola, 2010), which characterizes the importance of traditional sports events and dances where people meet and get to know each other.

2.1.2.1 International level

The first intentional and official use of sport as a tool in a post-disaster situation and psychosocial intervention can be traced back to the beginning of the 20th century. At that time the ILO (International Labour Organization) and the IOC (International Olympic Committee) harnessed sports when working with the victims of conflicts in refugee camps (Kidd, 2008). The first sports development projects started slowly before the Second World War and later the IOC created the Olympic Solidarity programme in 1973 (Straume & Steen-Johsen, 2012). These first sport projects were oriented mainly towards elite sportsmen and infrastructure building. The focus in the field has changed, mostly in the last 15–20 years. Sport has been used more intensively in development policy, especially within development cooperation¹² projects whose aim is to find a solution to the *development problems* in the countries of the Global South (Levermore, 2009). Nowadays the situation is characterized by a rapid expansion of organizations, appeals for volunteers and financial support from international sport federations (Kidd, 2011). The recent boom in using sport as an instrument of social change is partially a result of the fact that orthodox development policies¹³ administered by the IMF or the WB during the last fifty years have failed to deliver their anticipated effects (Levermore, 2009). Experts from the sports field could therefore exploit the already existing knowledge in the development cooperation domain and thus avoid all the mistakes that were identified in the development policies of the past (Black, 2010). Nevertheless, Kidd (2008, 376) argues that the use of sport in the development domain

¹²“**Development cooperation** represents an adequate part of the foreign policy of high income countries. It is provided in the form of financial or material support (expert assistance and technical assistance) that should contribute to the long-term sustainable development in partner countries” (MZV ČR, 2011).

¹³as already mentioned in chapter 1.1.1.2

is still in its infancy and remains “*underfunded, completely unregulated, poorly planned and coordinated and largely isolated from mainstream development efforts.*”

Today the use of sport is not only restricted to the countries of the Global South. Kidd (2008) argues that there are also sport projects and programs in the so-called developed countries, especially in the poorer suburbs of big megacities. Sport has been perceived as a new engine that could revive orthodox development policies and promote social change. However, it should never be considered as a panacea for the world's biggest problems (Levermore, 2008b). Coalter (2008) also draws attention to possible positive and negative outcomes of sport programs. On the contrary sport can be a very dangerous weapon as demonstrated during the Olympics in Munich (1972), Moscow (1980) and Los Angeles (1984), where it was misused as a political instrument. Sport's capacities should not be overestimated, but it can provide some resources of hope in the new world order (Jarvie, 2011).

The expansion of the use of physical activities in *development* was supported by several remarkable events. The United Nations proclaimed the year 2005 as the International Year of Sport and Physical Education (IYSPE). A new independent office, the United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace (UNOSDP) was established within the whole UN system in 2001. Its headquarters is in Geneva and it is responsible for the advocacy, facilitation and implementation of sport in the work of all other UN agencies (e. g. UNICEF, UNHCR, UNDP, WHO, UNESCO etc.). In 2004 the Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group (SDP-IWG) emerged from the Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace that produced the report *Sport for Development and Peace: Towards Achieving the Millennium Development Goals* in 2003. The number of similarly focused reports has increased in the last 10 years (e. g. *Sport, recreation and play* – UNICEF, 2004; *Literature Reviews on Sport for Development and Peace* – SDP IWG, 2007; *Harnessing the Power of Sport for Development and Peace: Recommendations to Governments* – SDP IWG, 2008).

2.1.2.2 Grassroots level

The previous chapter described important events on the international level, whereas there are mainly non-governmental organizations (NGOs)¹⁴ working directly in

¹⁴*NGO* is a non-profit organization outside the state structure. Generally the activities of NGOs provide services that are insufficiently covered by the state as e. g. protection of environment, humanitarian aid and development cooperation, creation of free time activities for children and many others. (Dušková et al., 2011)

the field at the grassroots level. NGOs are the most frequent providers of sports programs and they are in direct contact with the local target populations. It is said that one of the oldest NGOs known in the field of *sport and development* might be MYSA (Mathare Youth Sport Association), operating in the Kenyan capital Nairobi. It has used football as a tool for *development* (Ujfaluši, 2007). It started its activities in the 1980s and therefore it is one of the most often described and frequently researched NGOs in the English literature (e. g. in Brady, 2005; in Coalter, 2008 or in Willis, 2000). Its sport activities (football trainings and tournaments) are accompanied by rubbish collecting, educational workshops (on HIV/AIDS, hygiene etc.) and such other leisure time activities as dance and photography (Coalter, 2008; Coalter, 2009). These activities are rewarded by points included in the yearly football rankings. Through football the organization wants to break through the existing gender barriers in society, therefore girls are also integrated into MYSA activities. The young people have the possibility to gain new knowledge and skills through sports which will help them get better positions on the work market in the future. MYSA is very successful in its activities and one of the reasons is the fact that it was created at the grassroots level and was funded as a local initiative (Coalter, 2008; Hognestad & Tollisen, 2004; Rato Barrio & Ley, 2006). At present there are many similar initiatives in existence all around the world.

One of the first international organizations to use sport as a tool for *development* is *Right to Play* (RTP). This initiative arose from the *Olympic Aid* movement in 1992. Afterwards Johann Olav Koss, the Olympic medal winner from Lillehammer, became its chief and the main media figure to represent the organization externally. This organization cooperates with many famous and successful sportspeople while fundraising and implementing sports projects. At the beginning in the 1990s RTP was especially focused on fundraising. Later, the focus changed and the first sport programs took place in refugee communities in Angola and the Ivory Coast in 2001. Today RTP has 20 offices, mainly in various so-called developing countries (e. g. South Sudan, Peru, Jordan etc.) that implement sports programs directly in the field. RTP has its headquarters in Canada, however the major parts of their activities are held in the so-called developing countries.

Similar organizational set-ups are, for instance, *Sport sans frontières* (with headquarters in France), *Red Deporte y Cooperacion* (with headquarters in Spain), *Commonwealth Games Canada's International Development through Sport programme* (based in Canada) or *SCORE* (with headquarters in South Africa). In the target countries

they principally cooperate with local authorities and local NGOs. There are a lot of other stakeholders¹⁵ working in the field (Streetfootballworld, UN agencies – UNICEF, UNESCO), many of them are local NGOs without direct program connections to the so-called developed countries (e.g. *The Kids League*, *Colombianitos*, *Magic Bus*, *Diambars*, *Kick4Life*, *Sport2Build*, etc). These are locally founded NGOs with their headquarters directly in the country of operation. This overview is not at all exhaustive and the mentioned organisations should serve only as examples.

Many organisations use football nowadays. Football has become an important actor worldwide because of its ability to attract people's attention. Therefore it is very often harnessed by the *development* field at the grassroots level (see chapter 2.1.3). But there are also other sports and disciplines used in the development field, e. g. volleyball, basketball, martial arts, table tennis, rugby and capoeira among others. The program, which provided psychosocial help after the earthquake in Bam (in Iran, 2003) used, for instance, basketball, volleyball, gymnastics and taekwondo (Kunz, 2009). The program SportWorks in Yuba (South Sudan) harnessed the potential of handball, basketball and athletics (UNICEF, 2004). Sport in Action is a Zambian NGO focusing on women's empowerment, especially through football and netball. Some of the organizations only use easy games and physical activities (especially in HIV/AIDS education) and therefore there is no need to apply established sport disciplines (e. g. Terre des Hommes, Jambo Bukoba e. V., SCORE, Right to Play, Laureus).

According to Coalter (2009) organizations working in the field can be divided into two subgroups based on their way of using sport. The first group, labelled as “sport plus” organizations, uses sport to support sustainable development as the main focus of their activities. Sport plus organizations support the training of leaders and coaches and the development of basic sporting skills. However, other games and activities addressing broad social issues are linked to these sport activities (e. g. raising awareness about HIV/AIDS, gender inequity, values development etc.). MYSA serves as a good example of such an organization. The second group is represented by “plus sport” organizations. Here primacy is given to non-sporting activities such as social and health programs and sport is mainly used for its ability to bring people together. The long-term development of sport is not perceived as fundamental. Short-term outcomes are (e. g.

¹⁵*Stakeholder* is understood as individual, community, institution or company that is directly or indirectly involved in certain kind of projects (in this thesis *sport and development* programs). (Dušková et al., 2011)

HIV/AIDS education etc.) the main focus. All the UN agencies can be classified within this group. The division is not always clear. However, it is important when defining the main objectives of the organizations (Coalter, 2006).

2.1.2.3 Sharing the experience from the field and research

In the domain of “*sport and development*” it is very desirable and necessary to link theory and practical experience from the field. As already mentioned the NGOs are in contact with local populations and therefore they know best what is happening in the field during sports programs. The findings and experience from the field can and should be shared among the organizations and handed over to academia. The process of sharing should also work other way round – passing knowledge from academia to the field. The web portal www.sportanddev.org was launched in 2005 for the aforementioned purposes. This portal is managed by the Swiss Academy for Development (SAD). Among other ways to share the experience are international workshops and conferences. Two conferences in Magglingen in Switzerland (in 2003 and 2005) were the first to bring together scientists and practitioners from the field. Regular conferences called “Next Step” held in 2005 (Amsterdam, Netherlands), 2007 (Livingstone, Zambia), 2009 (Windhoek, Namibia), 2010 (Cape Town, South Africa) and 2011 (Port of Spain, Trinidad and Tobago) were more practically focused, because the NGOs working in the field met in one place and shared their experiences. Further sites for meeting and sharing among practitioners and academics are, for instance, different seminars such as *Sport in Post-Disaster Intervention*, organized by ICSSPE in 2007, 2008, 2009, 2011 and 2012 and the conference *Sport as a Mediator between Cultures* in 2011. The number of academic conferences dealing with the topic of “*sport and development*” has been progressively growing over the past couple of years. The topic also appears on the agenda of international bodies such as the International Sociology of Sport Association (ISSA). One of the reasons is the fact that big sport mega-events such as the Olympic Games (OG) and World Cups (WC) are held in so-called emerging economies or BRICS countries (e. g. OG 2008 in Beijing, football WC 2010 in South Africa, future football WC and OG in Brazil etc.). These sport mega-events are perceived as feasible engines that can bring large amounts of financial resources and thus support a country’s development. BRICS countries see the potential in the organization of the major sports events. It might enable them to fight poverty and to finance development programs

targeted at improving the quality of life, and not only in slums (or favelas and townships) (Curi, Knijnik & Mascarenas, 2011).

New materials and methods have been developed in the last few years in order to share experiences from the field. They describe how sport can be used, they call attention to possible difficulties and offer recommendations for program and project proposals. These materials cover a range of sporting activities that can be used in formal and non-formal education, such as *Sport and Physical Activity in Post-Disaster Intervention* (ICSSPE, 2008), *Toolkit sport for development* (NCDO, 2008), *Moving forward Toolkit* (INSDC, 2008), and *HIV Education through Football Coaching' Manual* (Tackle Africa, 2010). These manuals can be employed by field workers and organizations that want to use sport and physical activities in the field of development and help solve the different problems attached to it.

2.1.2.4 Role models

Role models might play a very influential role in the life of teenagers. Therefore this topic is also mentioned here as it is significant for this thesis. The focus is on sporting role models.

Scientific literature about role models in sport is not very rich (Patton et al., 2003). Therefore evidence of their effectiveness in changing behaviour is still slim (Meier & Saavedra, 2009; Payne et al., 2003). A role model is supposed to inspire and to have an impact on an individual's actions and beliefs. It is someone perceived as exemplary and worthy who others would like to imitate or be like (Vescio, Wilde & Crosswhite, 2005). Role models can vary from a foreign, distant individual to a nearby person living in the neighborhood. Such people can be "*teachers, spouses, parents, peers and sporting heroes*" (Payne et al., 2003, 4) and they might change over time (Glover in Payne et al., 2003). Role models might demonstrate to others how to achieve goals (Meier & Saavedra, 2009).

It is important to note that role models do not only have positive influences on children and adolescents (Lockwood et al., 2004). Sporting role models might be positive due to their hard work. However, they might be negative as well, due to inappropriate behaviour often covered by the media (Globus, 1998). According to Lockwood and Kunda (1997) sporting role models, superstars, can provide inspiration and self-enhancement, nevertheless such role models should be relevant (to have some similarities with the child) and their successes attainable. Boys tend more often to

choose their role models from the sporting area than girls, who prefer people from their surroundings (Payne et al., 2003; Vescio, Wilde & Crosswhite, 2005).

The role models in the projects where football is being used as a tool for personal development might arise from different areas. Firstly, many children dream about becoming professional football players, especially in the countries of the Global South, where football can be seen as a path from poverty. Football stars are personalities and role models to be followed in the dreams of youths. But it is very rare for these dreams to become reality and often they remain only as illusions. This dreaming can have two different consequences. For some children it can even cause them to drop-out from school (Rato Barrio & Ley, 2006), for others if well and properly exploited it can serve as a motor for further education and personal development. This effect depends on the family very much (Kay & Spaaij, 2012) and also on the organization where the child participates in the football program. Secondly, if properly brought up, the teenager can become a role model him/herself and then play an important role in his/her community or school. Peers as role models can be more effective because of such similar characteristics as age and experience (Vescio, Wilde & Crosswhite, 2005). However, there is little research to prove this (Payne, 2003). The peer role can evolve in two different directions. Either the teenager is respected, might motivate others to work and becomes a positive role model for his/her peers or he/she becomes hated in their community because of arrogant behaviour.

2.1.3 Football

“For all the sound and fury the game of football generates it is essentially a meaningless exercise that means so much to so many.”

(Armstrong & Rosbrook-Thompson, 2012, 371)

This subchapter describes the role of football within the concept of “*sport and development.*” It focuses on the possible use of football in the field and its challenges.

Today football is a social phenomenon. It is a very popular game and a universal and simple language all around the world (Armstrong & Vest, 2012; Borkovic & Wyszynski, 2012). In Africa football was introduced during colonization and in the beginning it was used as a cheap tool to control people. Gradually it attracted the local

population, especially in townships and slums and it became part of the physical culture as it was adapted to local conditions by African people. African football is influenced by traditional belief systems which are manifest through religious practices during football matches. The level of professional football is affected by poor infrastructure, chemical pollution, serious injuries and by international transfers of elite players outside Africa. However, nowadays it is one of the most frequently used sports in the “*sport and development*” domain. (Giulianotti & Armstrong, 2004)

Football has many advantages as simple rules and the basic skills are easy to master (Giulianotti & Armstrong, 2004; Rato Barrio & Ley, 2006). It is cheap, it can be played almost anywhere and it requires only minimal equipment (Borkovic & Wyszynski, 2012; Meier & Saavedra, 2009). Therefore it is used within formal and non-formal education at the grassroots level. Football matches can gather many people in one place and these moments are especially used for raising awareness about many development topics. On the other hand, among football’s disadvantages are male domination and risk of injuries, and at the professional level it implies large amounts of money and hence it is often associated with corruption. According to Armstrong and Giulianotti (in Armstrong, 2002, 472) football “*can be divisive and cohesive at the same time.*”

Many non-governmental organizations use football as a tool to promote education, to raise awareness about diseases and to achieve other MDGs. This kind of activity is labelled as “education through sport”, or more specifically “development through football”. Here, it is important to note that football itself would have only very restricted impacts. Therefore it should be accompanied by other activities that support personal development such as talks, workshops, seminars and campaigns, which is not always the case (Borkovic & Wyszynski, 2012). This specific concept can be identified in the programs carried out by many different organizations such as UNESCO, Commonwealth, IOC, ISCA and Streetfootballworld. The organization *Tackle Africa* has actually developed an educational manual where all the football drill exercises are designed in a way that describes and explains HIV/AIDS infection. There are many other initiatives and programs with similar aims, for instance *Grassroot Soccer*, *Kicking AIDS Out* or *Kick4Life* operating in the region of Southern Africa.

Football is supposed to have positive impacts in such different areas as health, education and personal development. Nevertheless, its negative impacts should not be omitted. It is fundamental to be aware that “*football cannot solve all of today’s*

problems and that 'Development through Football' cannot readily address many of the institutional inequalities that precipitate a range of social problems" (Borkovic & Wyszynski, 2012, 427). But as noted by Armstrong (2002, 491) in his article focusing on the use of football in post-war Liberia *"the game might offer a useful form of mediation [of the past conflict]."*

2.1.3.1 Football as a tool in development

Many initiatives that harness football as a tool for development (or more closely for education) are linked under the umbrella organization called Streetfootballworld. It was founded in 2005, has its headquarters in Berlin and more than 100 different NGOs from all around the world are its associated members (Borkovic & Wyszynski, 2012). The aim of Streetfootballworld is *„to support a worldwide network of organizations that use football as a tool to empower disadvantaged young people by engaging private and public partners to create social change“* (Streetfootballworld, 2011). Each of its members works directly in the field at the grassroots level using football mainly with unprivileged and marginalized youth. For instance *Colombianitos*, working with youth from the Colombian streets, *Magic Bus*, supporting street youths in India, *Peres Center for Peace*, bringing together Palestinian and Israeli children, *The Kids League*, working especially in Kampala and Northern Uganda, *SARI (Sport Against Racism Ireland)*, handling racist situations through football and *Spirit of Soccer*, working with victims of landmines.

Jainer, a young boy and a former member of Colombianitos says (in Fleming, 2009, 70): *“At Colombianitos I learned how you can really make something of yourself. Without them I would probably still be out on the street, getting into bad stuff without direction or purpose.”* Football is considered as a tool for education in these organizations. Therefore Streetfootballworld very often uses the term “development through football”. It develops various manuals and it prepares a number of workshops and festivals for its member organizations.

FIFA is also a very important stakeholder in this field. It has a share in many football projects with *development* aims under its corporate social responsibility (CSR) strategy. Through its program named *Football for Hope* it supports the construction of 20 football centres around Africa whose aims are promotion of football, health and education. Six out of 20 centres have already been opened in Africa (FIFA, 2012). On

the other hand FIFA has been already criticised for its policies and neo-colonial approach (Levermore, 2011c).

An interesting and influential phenomenon is football in the lives of people with physical disabilities, especially in the low income countries. Many soldiers became handicapped in long-lasting and large scale conflicts (e. g. in Liberia, Angola, Cambodia, Sierra Leone and Bosnia and Herzegovina). They found themselves on the edge of society after the conflict was finished. Many of them lost one of their limbs in the war. Afterwards the amputee football leagues started to be founded, e. g. the Amputee Football Federation of Liberia (AFFEL). It helped players to once again find respect in society. Eastman (in Lindner, 2010) the secretary of the Amputee Football Federation says: *“Nobody was interested in us after the conflict. [...] We had the reputation of those who caused the war hell.”* Parker, his teammate, adds (in Lindner, 2010): *“Our successes [meant the football ones] became famous. People started to take us into consideration and we are back as part of society.”*

2.1.3.2 Football festivals and tournaments

There are many different amateur football tournaments organized all around the world that are focused on youths and marginalized populations, such as the Norway Cup, the Gothia Cup, the Tivoli Cup, the Homeless World Cup and the Amputee World Cup. Thanks to these events the participants can travel abroad and get to know people from different countries with different cultures. They have the possibility to encounter new challenges and compare themselves with others.

The Football for Hope Festival is a tournament of that kind, organized by FIFA in cooperation with Streetfootballworld. I describe it here in detail because this festival was an important part of the research and it is later discussed and analysed.

All the youths who participated in my research took part in this festival. In 2010 the Football for Hope Festival was an official part of the Football World Cup in South Africa¹⁶. This festival brought together 32 different NGOs from all around the world. All of them use football as a tool in their work with unprivileged youths in their respective countries. In South Africa each organization had a team of eight players (four girls and four boys aged 14–18) with a delegation leader, coach, coordinator and young

¹⁶*The Football for Hope* Festival was organized for the first time in 2006 in Berlin during the FIFA World Cup, under the name of “Street Football World Championship”. Twenty-four organizations that use football as a tool for development took part and Streetfootballworld was the main organizer. MYSA celebrated the victory.

leader. All 32 teams were invited to South Africa for two weeks and the program was prepared in such a way that the youngsters got to know each other and could share their life experiences, knowledge and culture. There were 13 teams from Africa, 8 from America (1 from USA and 7 from South America), 6 from Europe, 3 from Asia and the Middle East and 2 from Australia and Oceania (see Annex 1). The program was intended to contribute to the personal development of each individual through the concept of “development through football” used by Streetfootballworld. The first week of the festival was devoted to getting to know each other. The participants had the opportunity to participate in different activities and workshops, meet their foreign counterparts and share their experiences. Safaris and visits to Johannesburg and the local community in Alexandra¹⁷ were also organised for them. All the delegations lived together in a local school 30 minutes by private bus from Alexandra. For each activity that did not take place at this school almost 400 people (participants, volunteers and organizers) had to be transported to the intended destination. This was logistically very challenging and took a lot of time.

Each foreign delegation had its own volunteer who was recruited either from the local population or from international applicants. I was one of these international applicants. The football tournament was organized during the second week of the stay in South Africa. It was played according to the fair play rules. It means that no referees were on the pitch. The youths had to be responsible for themselves. Each game was 12 minutes long. They could stop it if there was any problem, discuss it and find a solution. If necessary mediators who were outside the pitch intervened. There were two discussions connected to each match. During the first one before the match the two teams got to know each other and they had to establish the rules of the game. After the match there was always a second discussion used as talk time. The participants shared their opinions about the match and they could award one fair play point to the other team. The fair play rules were applied in such a way that would foster the responsibility of the youths. There were four players on the pitch, one goalkeeper and 3 substitutes. At any given time at least two girls and two boys had to be on the pitch.

2.1.4 A critical perspective on the field of “sport and development”

As a relatively new, emerging concept “*sport and development*” has undergone a very fast evolution. The field starts to be under permanent investigation thanks to the

¹⁷*Alexandra* is the oldest township in Johannesburg, where the festival was organised.

slowly emerging cooperation between sport and development researchers that was omitted for a long time. These days theories from development studies enrich sport studies and vice-versa. The initially prevailing positive reception for sporting activities has been completed by new perspectives and development theories which have also brought negative impacts to light. The following paragraphs analyse the ongoing discussions in academia and the possible negative outcomes of sporting programs, especially in the area of development cooperation.

Darnell and Hayhurst (2011) and Coalter (2009) mention that the use of sport only supports classical neoliberal economic theories and hence current world power relations are strengthened. Therefore the dependency of poor countries on rich ones is deepened. Darnell (2010b) argues that the use of sport and the understanding of *development* only support the current hegemonic relations and therefore maintain the competitive social and economic relations in the world. Sport thus also faces the fact expressed by Collier (2007) that the division between the rich world and the poor world is getting worse. Certain tensions still exist between the demands of the rich and poor countries (Jarvie, 2011).

The concept is very often accused of bringing new, unoriginal activities to so-called developing countries. On many occasions the target population is not even asked if they want to participate in the sports programs. Foreign project workers are said to have only a weak understanding of the environment (Giulianotti, 2004; Schulenkorf, 2010). The major part of the projects is administered by the donor agency¹⁸ that is providing the financial resources. Thereby it is essential to fulfil the objectives defined by a donor¹⁹ who very often does not even know the local conditions. These objectives are not necessarily always consistent with those defined by the target community. Authors with a development background (Hayhurst, 2009, Darnell, 2010a) argue that sport is just another neocolonial tool used to control developing countries. Therefore the activities of FIFA, especially football infrastructure building, have also been accused of being neocolonial in their principles. This approach is denoted as “top-down²⁰” and

¹⁸**Donor agencies** (also development agencies) are the institutions that provide the development cooperation. Generally it is the state institution responsible for the development policy of a certain country (e. g. American USAID, British DfID, Norwegian NORAD or Czech development agency). (Dušková et al., 2011)

¹⁹**Donor** is the person or institution that donates something. Here, in this thesis it represents the countries that provide the development cooperation represented by their donor agencies.

²⁰**Top-down approach** is a way of cooperation where the decisions are made only at high levels of government and civil society and local communities cannot participate in the decision making process. This traditional approach in development (or development cooperation and SaD) is perceived negatively

many academic authors criticize it (Darnell, 2010a, 2010b; Giulianotti, 2004; Levermore, 2008a, 2008b). According to Kidd (2008), representatives of the so-called developing countries often complain that the programs are popular for donors but make little sense to recipient²¹ communities.

Darnell (2007) very critically looks at the work of volunteers within the sports projects in the countries of the Global South. Based on Foucault's discourse analysis, critical race theory and Said's theory of the construction of the Other²², he argues that "*encounters and experiences within development through sport serve in the (re)construction of particular knowledge: Whiteness as a subject position of benevolence, rationality and expertise, confirmed in opposition to marginalized, unsophisticated and appreciative bodies of colour*" (Darnell, 2007, 560). The author's point is to underline that through *sport and development* projects a position of superiority and privilege can be recreated unintentionally between volunteers and recipients. These relations might be reconfirmed in the field when working with the project participants who are perceived, based on Darnell's critical discourse analysis of volunteers' testimonials, as less powerful, less knowledgeable and those who should be thankful. Likewise, negative stereotyping within the *sport and development* movement is addressed by Amusa and Toriola (2005), Clark (2010), Cornelissen (2004), Giulianotti (2004a), Hartmann and Kwauk (2011) and Tiessen (2011). They point to the fact that mainly negative messages and pictures are created and published about Africa. This continent is still portrayed as dark, wild, exotic, barbaric and infantile, which only deepens the wealth/poverty divide (Amusa & Toriola, 2005; Levermore, 2009).

Giulianotti (2011) identifies technical weaknesses in the implementation of projects because short-term funding can cause financial and sustainability problems. Kidd (2008) adds that many programs are carried out in capitals and big cities while rural areas are ignored.

Current critical analysis also says that sport is often taken for granted. The popularity and novelty is being harnessed and new projects and organizations are being created without a clear understanding of the role that sport can play in *development*

nowadays because it does not take into account the needs of the local community. The reverse approach is called *bottom-up* and it emphasizes the grassroots activity. It means that the development effort is coming directly from the local community (Dušková et al., 2011).

²¹**Recipient** is the person or institution that receives the donation. Here in this thesis it represents the local population - participants in the *sport and development* program.

²²as used in Said's book *Orientalism* (1978) where Said describes how the knowledge about the Orient was created based on Western perceptions. The Other refers to something/someone that is different from the self, it is often written in capitals.

(Darnell & Black, 2011). Sugden (2008) and Sugden (2010) also remind us not to take sport and physical activity as value-neutral if they are employed in the situation of social and political reconciliation. That is to say that sport has the potential to ameliorate but also to worsen the situation. The limitations and possibilities of sport should therefore be clearly stated.

Sport and development is also accused of creating different inequalities (Spaaij, 2009). Hargreaves (in Levermore, 2009) argues that the majority of the programs generate gender inequality because more funding is available for male sports such as rugby, cricket or football. As youth development in particular is promoted through *sport and development* projects, other populations are therefore ignored (adults, elderly, people with disabilities etc.).

As the previous paragraphs suggest there are still many issues to be tackled when using sport as a tool for *development*. The politics of *development* still penetrate the field of *sport and development* (Coalter, 2009) and influence the equilibrium in cooperation and the mutual relations. More work and research need to be done in order to clarify the role of sport within the broad development initiatives (Darnell & Black 2011).

2.1.5 Research in the field of sport and development

This sub-chapter serves as an overview of the different research that is being done in the *sport and development* domain. The evolution and ongoing research in the field of *sport and development* are described. The methods and results of different projects are discussed and analysed.

For a long time scientific literature from the field of *development* did not mention any findings about the use of sport in development (Levermore, 2009). Nonetheless, academic research has gradually been developing over recent years and therefore more critical perspectives have been brought into the field. Academic research questioned the potential of sports and physical activity and the discussion on the negative impacts has also been opened. The first studies to describe the use of sport in international development came from the sport scientists in particular (mainly sport sociologists). The attention of development scientists is being gained very slowly. Nowadays scientists from both fields (development and sport) have started to share the different perspectives and approaches. This was acknowledged for instance in a special edition of the journal *Third World Quarterly* (Volume 32, Number 3, 2011) subtitled

Mainstreaming Sport into International Development Studies, and which is devoted to the theme of sport in development. The topic is also sometimes covered in sport science journals such as *International Review for the Sociology of Sport and Sport in Society*. However, the potential for further cooperation between sport and development researchers could be further harnessed in the future.

The predominant opinion among field workers is that sport has a positive influence on youths and therefore it has a direct impact on *development*. Some authors call these opinions “evangelic” (Levermore, 2011b). As already mentioned academia perceives the impact more critically, arguing that there is only a small amount of research and results describing this field in detail (Coalter, 2009). However, the body of academic literature has been growing over the last 5–7 years and the situation in 2012 is completely different from 2008 or 2009.

The *sport and development* field represents a very challenging research area because it is generally very hard to measure the aims of sports development projects, such as changes in attitudes, opinions and behaviours and the impact on *development*. It is also very difficult to prove that the changes and results (if there are any) are caused only by the researched sports program.

2.1.5.1 Concrete results of the sport projects

The research gap that existed in the late 1990s and early 2000s has decreased. There is already a range of new methods being employed and new results describing the successes or failures of sport and physical activities. Regarding the methods, quantitative as well as qualitative approaches can be found. However, the qualitative methodologies prevail and attract more attention because of the emerging critics (see chapter 2.1.4). Nevertheless, the empirical research on sport and its role in so-called developing countries still remains very modest. Most papers are written about African countries and the situation in Asia and Latin America is largely under-reported (Okada & Young, 2012).

Many organizations and universities are involved in this research area, for instance the British universities and NGOs (Loughborough University, the University of Brighton, UK Sport and others), universities in South Africa (the University of Johannesburg and the University of Western Cape) and such other NGOs as the Swiss Agency for Development (SAD). Monitoring and evaluation (M&E) have become the key words when talking about the outcomes and impacts of sports projects. The

research is mainly focused in this direction in connection to the defined aims of sports projects. The following lines sum up and describe some of the results that have already been found in the field. However, the aim of this sub-chapter is not to be completely exhaustive but to create a short informative and comprehensive overview of the research in the area of *sport and development*.

Concerning monitoring and evaluation, which is one of the main topics in the research, there were new manuals created and proposed for use, such as “*Sport-in-Development. A Monitoring and Evaluation Manual*” prepared by Fred Coalter (2006) for UK Sport, “*S-DIAT (The Sport development impact assessment tool)*” developed by Burnett and Hollander (2008) at the University of Johannesburg, “*Guidelines for the evaluation of Girls Sports Projects*” by Women Win or “*Monitoring tool*” by Street Games. From the overviews of research that have already been created by Levermore (2011) and Cronin (2011) it can be seen that a growing number of organizations are undertaking research in the form of evaluation. The range of different methods is very broad with a central point on the log frame methodology²³ (Levermore, 2011b).

Gender equity has been particularly studied by Martha Saavedra (2009) and Martha Brady (2005). They both focus their research on the empowerment of women in society through sport. Access to public spaces is forbidden to women and girls in some of the so-called developing countries and their free movement is restricted by society. In these cases sport and a sporting environment can therefore offer a space where the female community can meet and an identity outside the conventional ones (e.g. mother, future wife) can be assigned to girls (Brady, 2005). Based on the qualitative and quantitative data collection from two different sport projects (MYSA in Kenya and Ishraq in Egypt), Brady (2005) argues that security for girls in sport spaces has to be ensured, which requires very careful planning and it is very often overlooked by organizations. The success of the female boxer Esther Phiri from Zambia contributed to a break down of stereotypes and to a fostering of the role of women in Zambian society (Meier & Saavedra, 2009). Kay (2009) adds that participation in sports can support women's empowerment, confidence and relations with peers and teachers.

²³**Log frame methodology** is a tool used for the planning, implementation, management, monitoring and evaluation of international development projects. It was developed in the 1960s by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). Nowadays the majority of development agencies use this instrument. It is an integral part of project cycle management. It structures the main elements of a given project and explains the logical linkages between them (Dušková et al., 2011).

As already mentioned sport and physical activities have been also utilized in post-disaster situations (after conflict, earthquake, tsunami, etc.) in different parts of the world (ICSSPE, 2008). Sports programs were organized in Bam (Iran) after the earthquake in 2003 that completely destroyed the whole ancient city. Coaches were trained in psychosocial issues. The results of the program, based on reports and interviews (Kunz, 2009), showed that the physical and mental well-being of the participants improved after the sport interventions. However, the role of trainers and their relationship with children also played a very important role. Similar results showed programs that used dance and movement therapy with Sudanese refugees in the USA and with former combatants from Sierra Leone (Harris, 2007). In both cases the participants enjoyed traditional dance as way of expressing their feelings and experience. The Sudanese refugees in Pennsylvania claimed better cohesion in the group and improvement in solidarity. The former child soldiers in Sierra Leone reported *“reduction in symptoms of anxiety, depression, intrusive recollection, elevated arousal and aggression”* (Harris, 2007, 134). The influence of games and physical activities used in intercultural programs in post conflict situations in Guatemala was evaluated by Rato Barrio (2009). Her research combined different quantitative and qualitative methods and concluded that there were significant improvements in attitudes towards diversity in Guatemala. A decrease in prejudices and better acceptance and cooperation with other cultural groups was also found (Ley & Rato Barrio, 2010). The influence of sport on the reintegration of child soldiers into society after the civil war in Northern Uganda has been studied by Ravizza (2008). However, the conclusions of his study show that there are no clear indicators proving that the participants in sporting programs are able to transfer the skills gained through sport into their daily lives. Other research was done in post-disaster situations in Sri Lanka after the tsunami in 2004. Under the sport project of Terre des Hommes the animators of recreational centres were trained to deliver cooperative games to the children and to develop their social and personal competencies in this manner (Gschwend & Selvaraju, 2005). The broad evaluation that also included these sport activities in recreational centres was later carried out by the Centre for Humanitarian Psychology. The questionnaires showed the effects on the well-being of children; their dysfunctional behaviour decreased and they felt better. Colliard and Baggio (2007) attributed over half of the good results to the activities provided by Terre des Hommes.

Cora Burnett (2006) describes community sport clubs in South Africa in one of her research studies. She concludes that active participation in these sport clubs can increase the social capital²⁴ of people and therefore it can contribute to the establishment of new relations. On the other hand Coalter (2007) argues that sport clubs only play a very insignificant role in social capital formation.

As visible from the previous statements the results of sports projects are not only positive. There has now been much more research carried out in the field that should shed more light on the “*sport and development*” field (Levermore, 2011b).

2.1.5.2 Research focused on football and its role in development

This small sub-chapter is especially devoted to the research that was carried out with a focus on football programs.

Quantitative research has been recently carried out on a project called Moving the Goalposts (MTG) in rural Kenya that uses football to empower women (Woodcock, Cronin & Forde, 2012). It is one of the few quantitative research studies that have been done in low income countries (such as Kenya). The research used surveys whose main variable was the duration of membership in MTG. The results showed that the longer participation in the project had greater impact on the girls. They declared themselves able to make important decisions, to develop more life skills, to acquire sexual health information and to change attitudes to HIV/AIDS and that the football project was perceived less negatively in society.

Qualitative ethnographic research that was carried out by Armstrong in the post conflict situation in Liberia concluded that football cannot really solve poverty (in the form of lack of education, food and shelter) but it can improve health conditions, offer a form of mediation between different groups and contribute to an individual’s development (Armstrong, 2004). Armstrong and Rosbrook-Thompson (2012) describe in detail the role that football has played in this war-torn country and underpin that during the civil war it was the only place where arms were put aside. However, football itself cannot prevent the potential for future conflict. It is important to bear in mind that during the conflict, football was funded on one side by the don Bosco foundation and on the other by Charles Taylor, former president who supported mass killings, murders and cannibalism during his rule (Armstrong & Rosbrook-Thompson, 2012).

²⁴*Social capital* “refers to the institutions, relationships, and norms that shape the quality and quantity of society's social interactions.” (WB, 2011b)

The ongoing case study is particularly based on interviews and observations and it is being done by Okada and Young (2012) in Cambodia. Their aim is to examine the role of the Siem Reap Hotel Football League (SHFL) in general development and its contribution to the daily life of participants. Football in Cambodia is also becoming an important phenomenon in that society. According to data analysis the SHFL contributes to the creation of new relationships between individuals, hotel staff and hotels themselves. Knowledge and experience from the tourism field was also shared during the SHFL matches. Problems were also found. The league encounters little corruption and competitive rivalry, especially on the pitch and a lack of cooperation. But the authors conclude that the league enables its participants to acknowledge social problems and to meet different groups (Okada & Young, 2012).

MYSA was already mentioned as one of the often researched organizations in the English literature. Its successes are based on a grassroots approach and huge local involvement (Coalter, 2007).

2.1.5.3 Challenges with the research in the field

As already described in chapter 2.1.4 there are many critics challenging the whole “*sport and development*” concept. Similar critics are also addressed in the research. Development research is part of multidisciplinary development studies. Mostly the researchers work in a different country to the one they grew up in (Desai & Potter, 2006). This country can have different cultural and social values. Even this topic is very important for this thesis. Therefore the possible challenges to be encountered in the field are described in the following paragraphs.

It is necessary to note that quantitative research predominates in high income countries and qualitative research in low income countries (Cronin, 2011). Some authors (e. g. Kay 2009; Levermore, 2011; Nicholls, Gilda & Sethna, 2011) also argue that the classic evaluation techniques based on the logical framework (log frame) methodology are not adequate and traditional quantitative methods are not suitable for initiatives that are realized in the communities in the countries of the Global South.

Log frame methodology might also be considered as a top-down approach and it shows evidence of being colonialist (Kay, 2009). Furthermore Levermore (2011c, 341) also questions “*the fundamental assumption that evaluation can be a rational and objective process.*” Completely opposing views exist in the field. On one side it is said that *sport and development* field is not a good instrument to be evaluated by using

standard quantitative data, on the other side researchers say that the sport's proclaimed "evangelic" role has to be evaluated (Levermore, 2011b).

The methods applied should be more appropriate to the local settings. Therefore it is necessary to employ more participatory methods²⁵ coming from qualitative research (Levermore, 2011b). They might provide a deeper understanding of the researched phenomenon (Newell & Frynas, 2007). On the other side the evaluation then becomes more subjective and influenced by the interviewer. This is criticized by supporters of classical more quantitatively based evaluations. The validity and reliability decreases and it lacks random sampling (Paul in Levermore, 2011b).

It is also important to see who is doing the research (evaluation) and for whom. This fact already influences the research design and the methods used. Very often the implementing organizations have to report back to their donors and they prefer a positive evaluation (Armstrong in Rato Barrio & Ley, 2006) that can assure other financial resources. The donors also prefer having the research based on the quantitative data (Woodcock, Cronin & Forde, 2012) and the thick description of processes coming from qualitative data is not so decisive for them.

Other researchers from the field (Nicholls, Gilda & Sethna, 2011) mention that there is not enough space for discussion and explanations among field workers, academics and the producers of development policies in the domain of *sport and development*. The young people are often omitted in this process (Nicholls, 2009). Nicholls, Gilda and Sethna (2011) add that the knowledge and experience of local workers and participants in the sport programs are only rarely integrated into the academic research and therefore they call for major integration of local knowledge into the research.

Development research which also encompasses the domain of *sport and development*, if being done directly in low income countries, encounters many challenges in the form of the personal bias of the researcher. For instance Chambers (2006) lists spatial, project, personal, seasonal, diplomatic, professional and security bias. The research is predominantly carried out in urban areas and mainly in those where a project is implemented. Researchers usually do not go to the distant places if there is no specific project implemented. The researchers tend to talk generally with elites, men and with the users of services provided. As a result older adults and children

²⁵as already described earlier in chapter 2.1.1.2

are marginalized. Scholars prefer the dry season when doing field research. Some research questions might be left out due to politeness. Professional bias means that the researcher looks for what fits his ideas (Chambers, 2006). Security represents another bias. The research is mostly carried out in secure areas and therefore the researcher does not have a personal experience with insecurity. As can be perceived development research is very challenging and therefore there are many criticisms of it. Those criticisms also have to be addressed by the researchers in *the sport and development* domain.

I consider all the previously mentioned criticisms and challenges described here in my research design. They influence the whole research process and therefore they are also discussed in the following chapters (3 and 4).

2.1.6 Sport as a tool in intercultural education and global development education

Sport and physical activities are also used very often in intercultural education and global development education²⁶. I mention these two educational domains because I think they are also very closely linked to the research topic and sport grounds provide a unique space for intercultural and global learning.

I understand intercultural education (ICE) as defined by Buryánek (2002, 13) as a process that “*enables the individual to understand and accept diversity as a positive phenomenon and to value differences among different cultures as beneficial. Otherness should not be understood as a source of potential conflict but as an opportunity to enrich the self.*” Intercultural education contributes to create respect and understanding within today’s multicultural society. Its aim is to educate the individual to appreciate their culture and at the same time respect the differences in today’s globalized world. It contributes to break down the existing prejudices and stereotypes. The personal experience is valued very much (Varianty, 2008). New encounters and meetings with different cultures and values can happen through physical activities. When playing all the people have the same objective regardless of their cultural and social origin (Fialová, 2008). Gieß-Stüber (2008) argues that sport, physical activities and physical education dispose of various advantages that facilitate intercultural education, as for

²⁶*Global development education* is a term used specifically in the Czech Republic because of the historic evolution of the whole educational area. At the European and global level the terms global education, development education or global citizenship can be encountered.

instance the immediate physical experience, the authenticity of movement, the visibility of results of the motor learning process, space for personal encounters, small language barriers and the possibility to personalize the tasks in a way that can be attained by anyone.

Concerning global development education (GDE), the definition given by the Czech Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MZV ČR, 2011, 5) says “*GDE is a lifelong process that contributes to an understanding of the differences and similarities in the lives of people from developed and developing countries. It facilitates the understanding of the economic, social, political, environmental and cultural processes that influence their lives.*” Therefore GDE helps people make sense of the interconnected world with a focus on the links between the Global South and the Global North. Both, intercultural and global development education blend together and hence contribute to the creation of knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that are important for understanding and responsible behaviour in today’s world.

In sports and physical activities intercultural and global development education can occur on two different levels. The first level is learning about cultures and global issues by actively playing games and experiencing physical activities from foreign countries (Fialová, 2008). The second level is the direct encounter with foreign children and youths from different cultures through sport and physical activities. This might happen worldwide through various programs and festivals such as Football for Hope Festival, European Streetfootball Festival, Gothia Cup and TAFISA World Games. In these programs the youths of different countries with different problems have the opportunity to meet and discover each other. Therefore I would argue that many organizations when using the concept of “*sport and development*” also provide intercultural and global development education, especially while participating in international meetings and festivals.

2.1.7 Existence of the topic in the Czech Republic, Czech literature and academia

For the Czech Republic the topic of sport and its use in *development* is quite new. However, development cooperation already has a long tradition in the Czech Republic. Development cooperation has been provided since the 1950s, especially to the partner socialist developing countries. Afterwards Czech development policy was revised in the 1990s with the end of the Cold War (Hokrová & Táborská, 2008), but

sport and physical activities have never been harnessed in the whole history of the Czech Republic. The last revision of the Czech development policy was done in 2010 by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA) and therefore the new conception for the period 2010-2017 is actually valid (MZV ČR, 2010). According to this, the geographic priorities of Czech development cooperation are particularly focused on Afghanistan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Ethiopia, Moldova and Mongolia. For these countries there is an exact program cooperation description existing with specific aims. Environment, agriculture, social and economic development belong among the sector priorities in each of the countries. Sport does not have any special role in Czech development policy because of its only recent introduction. Nor do the biggest Czech NGOs (People in Need, ADRA) in the field of development cooperation use sport and physical activities in their programs abroad. Hence, sport makes only a very small contribution, especially in the area of global development education (GDE), which is also supported by funding from Czech MFA. The only project that unites sport, GDE and *development* is called “*Football for Development*” (see 2.1.7.1).

Therefore there is almost no academic literature in the Czech Republic that would cover the topic of sport and its use in *development* or development cooperation. Occasionally, information from this field appears in magazines such as “*Respekt*” (Respect) or “*Mezinárodní politika*” (International Politics) and in newspapers articles; mainly in connection with bigger sport mega-events such as Olympic Games or World Championships. One popular science book written in Czech covering the field of football and development is “*Jak se hraje fotbal v Africe*” (How is football played in Africa) by Robin Ujfaluši from 2007. It focuses on football and its use in MYSA in Nairobi (Kenya). It also covers the function of street football and it describes the first Streetfootball World Championship in Berlin in 2006.

Projects that have been carried out in the Czech Republic focus especially on the use of sport in intercultural education and also global development education (as explained in chapter 2.1.6). Programs as “*Pohybová kultura různých kontinentů*” (Physical culture of different continents) and “*Po stopách Julese Verna*” (Following Jules Verne’s footsteps) were already running at primary schools in the Czech Republic with the help of PE university students (Fialová, 2008). Sport and games in global development education were also used by the foundation “*Divoké husy*” (Wild Geese) in its project “Change the Game”, where local games and activities from Brazilian favelas were introduced. ADRA also uses simple physical activities in its GDE project

called PRVák. Another project implemented in the Czech Republic is called “*Football for Development*”. This project enables Czech youth to meet their Kenyan counterparts through football. Even though this project is officially under the label of global development education and it is funded from the Czech Ministry of Foreign Affairs, it embodies various elements of intercultural education.

The objectives of intercultural education and global development education are very similar. Both contribute to personal development. That is why they are important for the cultivation of each individual in society and thereby it is also part of the educational system in the Czech Republic.

As is evident from the previous paragraphs, there is only a small amount of experience with the use of sport in the *development* field and the education system in the Czech Republic. Hence the academic coverage of this topic is very restricted. This small experience from the field of intercultural and global development education is described in several edited manuals. The manual “*Globální rozvojové vzdělávání trochu jinak – outdoorové a zážitkové hry*“ (Global development education done a bit differently – outdoor and experience games) (Štěpničková & Tillová, 2011) is focused on global development education through physical activities. The methodology offers a few activities which are intended to mediate and bring global problems and topics closer by using physical activities and games (for example human rights, microcredits or infectious diseases). Experience from the project “*Football for Development*” is available in the manual *Football for Development: A practical manual for teachers and youth workers on development education through football* (Belhová et al., 2011). It offers several activities and games focusing on global problems that are introduced and discussed through football.

2.1.7.1 The project „Football for Development“ in the Czech Republic

„*Football for Development*“ is a project focusing on global development education. Since 2006 it has been financially supported by the Czech MFA within the grant for “Global development education.” The project is implemented by INEX-SDA, a Czech NGO whose main activity is to organize volunteer exchanges in the Czech Republic and abroad. Recently it has carried out GDE and ICE projects too. “*Football for Development*” gives the opportunity for Czech youths to meet their Kenyan peers through football. The Kenyan partner is MYSA (in chapter 2.1.2.2). The project “*Football for Development*” runs for the whole year when Czech youths get acquainted

with the idea of football as a tool for development. The biggest emphasis of the project is focused over a one month period (in June/July), during which Kenyan teenagers from MYSA come to the Czech Republic. During this time various meetings with Czech youths are organized. Although football plays the main role; if it wasn't complemented by discussions and interactive workshops on different global topics, the project would be pointless. Therefore football is not the only activity of such a project and a big focus is placed on mutual meetings off the football pitch. The Kenyan team is composed of 8–10 teenagers who actively play football and are involved in other cultural and educational activities of MYSA. Here the project itself goes beyond the objectives of ICE and GDE and it enters the area of the personal development of each teenager, because through participation, personal knowledge, skills, values and attitudes are enriched.

The publications described above and the events, are the main experiences that exists in the Czech Republic concerning the topic of “*sport and development*”. It is especially through GDE and ICE that the theme of “*sport and development*” is being brought to the attention of the public and also slowly to the attention of academia in the Czech Republic.

2.2 Uganda

The main focus of the thesis is on Ugandan youths and their perception of football in their lives. The whole research was undertaken with youths and adults from Uganda and therefore it is important to introduce this country, and the situation in education with a focus on physical education (PE) and sport and the challenges they face.

2.2.1 Basic characteristics of the country

Uganda is a land-locked developing country situated in Eastern Africa. It gained its independence in 1962 and since then it has been through the dictatorships of Idi Amin and of Milton Obote, under whom more than 400,000 people died. The country has been ruled by president Yoweri Museveni continuously since 1986. He has contributed to its economic development even though the north of the country was under the control of the LRA (*Lord Resistance Army*) until 2005. The LRA terrorized the population and founded the child soldiers' army. The conflict lasted for 21 years and there were more than 50,000 abductees (Pham, Vinck & Stover, 2009). The consequences of this conflict will be felt by Ugandan society for a long time because society has to take care of the returning child soldiers and the children born in captivity. Despite this situation, Museveni was able to open up the country to the world, boost the development of tourism and attract foreign investments. However, Uganda currently faces many economic problems; specifically rising fuel and food prices which have led to increasing living costs (Suchánek, 2011).

With its GDP of 1100 USD per person the country falls into the category of one of the economically poorest in the world and one quarter of the population lives below the poverty line²⁷ (UNDP, 2011). Uganda occupies 161st place in the world according to HDI and therefore it is among the countries with the lowest human development (UNDP, 2011). Even though school attendance is now obligatory the youth literacy rate is only 87%, the total literacy rate decreases to 73% (WB, 2010) and more men than women are literate.

²⁷ *Poverty line* is defined as the percentage of the total country population living below 1.25 USD.



Figure 1. Map of Uganda (World without Walls, 2012)

The Ugandan population is 34 million at the present time and it is ethnically very diverse. It is still predominantly rural (Mushengyezi, 2003). Ugandan society is multi-ethnic and culturally very rich (Mirembe & Davies, 2001). The most numerous ethnic group is Buganda, followed by Banyakole and Basoga (CIA, 2011). The official language is English but many other local languages (Luganda, Luo, Swahili etc.) are spoken. The imbalance between men and women persists and males enjoy a hegemonic position in the society (Mirembe & Davies, 2001).

According to UN-DESA (2009) the birth rate was 50‰ in the 1970s and it had decreased only slightly to 45‰ in 2005. Therefore Uganda has one of the most rapidly increasing populations in the world and has been undergoing massive urbanization in recent years. The population living in cities doubled between 1969 and 2002 and rose to 12%. UN-DESA (2009) predicted that the Ugandan population would be 90 million in 2050 and almost 34% would live in the cities. Another very important demographic feature is that according to the Census 2002 (UBOS, 2006) almost 55% of the population is 18 years old or younger. The predicted increasing population, caused by a high fertility rate, is going to raise the infrastructure and education demands all over the

country. Nonetheless, in the National Development Plan only 0.6% of the national budget is allocated to the development of the cities (Kahunga, 2011).

2.2.2 Educational system, sport and physical education

The educational systems in the so-called developing countries are challenged by several problems. Some of the teachers do not even have a secondary education and those who reached tertiary education lack the pedagogical knowledge (Levin & Stuart, 2003). The salaries are generally low and there can be a lack of textbooks. Often the students do not speak the official language and then the classes focus only on memorizing and repetition (Benson, 2004). Due to the problems mentioned above education is not only guaranteed by the state, but also by private and religious schools and international NGOs that support the state system through various programs (Vegas, 2007).

Ugandan education has to face these problems also. Primary education lasts 7 years but drop-outs are not unusual and therefore teenagers might be found in schools doing the primary leaving examinations (Kavuma, 2010). Officially primary education has been free since 1997 and therefore school enrolment increased (Byamugisha & Ssenabulya, 2005). However, especially in rural areas, children can lack school materials (books, pens), meals and have to walk long distances to school. Secondary education takes another 6 years. The fees were abolished in public schools in 2007 but only the best students can be accepted into those schools (Kavuma, 2010). Secondary education is followed by two to five years of tertiary education.

The Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES) is the main Ugandan governing body in charge of education, sport and physical education. The Ugandan Olympic Committee (UOC) founded in 1953 is the second most important body in charge of sport. It is independent of the government and therefore financed through the Olympic Solidarity Fund of the International Olympic Committee (IOC). The IOC also cooperates very closely with the National Council of Sports (NCS) established by the Ministry of Education and Sports in 1964 (MoES, 2008b). NCS' activities have been defined in the National Physical Education and Sports Policy from 2004. This strategy aims to improve the standard of sport, to seek new financial possibilities, to improve sport infrastructure and to enhance the development of elite sportsmen (MoES, 2008b). The NCS supports the activities of 30 sport federations but its budget of 250 000 USD is absolutely insufficient (Chappell, 2007). The most important sport federations

supported by the NCS are the Uganda Amateur Athletic Federation (UAAF), the Fédération Uganda Football Association (FUFA) and the Uganda Amateur Boxing Federation (UABF). But it was often the case that the money assigned to support sport was used differently by the government or was divided only between the several sport federations that had the biggest power (e. g. FUFA or UAAF) (Dowding in Chappell, 2007, 121). The poor participation of Ugandan sportspeople in international competitions is caused by the limited financial resources and therefore Ugandan sportspeople are generally semi-professional and beside their sport career they have to work. Hence, the private sector has become a very important part of the funding.

In Uganda football, athletics, boxing, rugby, netball, volleyball and basketball are amongst the most popular sports. Football is the most important sport (Chappell, 2007). Ugandans particularly follow the Ugandan league and then also the Premier League. Musoke (in Chappell, 2007, 17-18), the assistant of Procurement, points out the importance of football in society when saying that “... *watching or playing [football] takes people out of their environment; it is a diversion from their daily lives, and an association with the rest of the world.*”

In Uganda in 1990 PE disappeared from curriculum due to political and economic problems and so today sport and physical education face many challenges (Chappell, 2007). The model of PE and sport and their school curriculum in primary and secondary education still copies historical colonial patterns. In 2006 the Department of Physical Education and Sports was created under the Ministry of Education and Sports, which was the first step in the newly developed National Strategy of Physical Education and Sports. PE is therefore institutionalized and its teaching is carried out in the school system. Sport is also guaranteed by other institutions and organizations at the community level. Physical education is taught in all primary schools according to the national strategy. However Amusa and Toriola (2004) argue that in reality the teaching is not of a good quality, even though PE is scheduled in the primary schools curricula. In secondary education PE is not obligatory at all. The aim of the strategy is to change the above situation. Obligatory PE classes should exist at all levels of primary and secondary education and space for other extracurricular physical activities should be provided in the future (MoES, 2008a). In places where it is not currently taught in classrooms, at least schools hire sport referents to organize sports activities in leisure time. Nonetheless, the African school system has to face other challenges in the domain of physical education. This subject is perceived as less academic; therefore it is often

marginalized and other subjects are prioritized (Hardmann & Marshall, 2005). Other problems hindering the development of PE and sports in Uganda are insufficient knowledge and infrastructure, lack of high-quality teachers and inadequate coordination within the whole educational system. Sport grounds are very often exploited for non-sportive purposes. Nowadays sport science can be studied at several universities around the country (e. g. Kyambogo University in Kampala) and PE is taught at the tertiary level which serves as the preparation for future PE teachers (MoES, undated).

Sport and physical education are also mentioned in the National Development Plan from 2010 (IMF, 2010, 215) stating that ... *“[sport and physical education] contributes to national development through promotion of fitness, teamwork, discipline, patriotism and social harmony. It is also a profession that creates opportunities for self-employment and livelihood, as well as providing entertainment and amusement.”* Sport and physical education at the grassroots level are provided by public, private and community organizations; the government therefore cooperates with international NGOs (e. g. Land O Lakes Inc., International Alliance for Youth Sport or Right to Play) (MoES, undated). The budget specified for education and sport has been decreasing over recent years and in 2009–2010 it accounted for only 17% of the whole state budget (IMF, 2010).

All the above mentioned problems within the whole educational system are addressed by different NGOs, charities and religious associations that try to increase the opportunity for young people to play sport and take part in physical activities at the grassroots level, such as The Kids League, Friends of Football, Right to Play and Whizzkids United. These organizations' aims is to fulfil the vacuum that was created in the 1990s when there was no offer of free time sport and physical activities. Therefore this space was taken by different NGOs. The first organizations that started to provide the space to play football were Friends of Football and The Kampala Kids League in the 1990s.

2.2.3 The Kids League (TKL)

“Improving children’s lives through sport.”

TKL’s slogan (TKL, 2012)

The Kids League is one of the *sport and development* organizations that have addressed the lack of sports activities in Kampala. It was funded as Kampala Kids League (KKL) in 1998. The main reason was the very restricted availability of sport activities and sport classes in the 1990s. Physical education almost disappeared from schools due to the focus on academic results (Chappell, 2007; KKL, 2012). The Kids League (TKL) built on its successes and spread the activities of KKL to Northern Uganda in 2003. According to Coalter (2009) TKL is one of the sport plus organizations. In Kampala it organizes sports training, leagues and tournaments for youths and one of its main objectives is to bring together different Ugandan ethnic, religious and social groups and therefore contribute to breaking down the existing barriers. Its aim is to improve the lives of youths through education and life skills development. Health messages are used during the football training and tournaments (Coalter & Taylor, 2010). TKL has also used its sport activities in the socialization programs of former child soldiers. It spread from Kampala into the former conflict zones in Northern Uganda in 2003. Football and netball programmes for internally displaced people (IDPs) were organized there (Gschwend, Selvaraju, 2005). Local communities, families and volunteers are generally involved in the activities of TKL. Parents, teachers and care-givers are often trained as coaches and they help with the running of the league (TKL, 2012).

The Kids League also brings other sports to the society, such as basketball, baseball, cricket and netball and has also adapted physical activities for children with physical or mental handicaps. The so called A-league (A for adapted) was created in the the last few years. The population with disabilities tends to be neglected in developing countries. TKL tries to get beyond the sole provision of sporting activities and therefore it has also cooperated with other organizations (e. g. Straight talk) in various educational campaigns. It continues its work in educational activities where youngsters can gain new knowledge and experience and learn about HIV/AIDS, malaria and tuberculosis, whose eradication remains a problem in so-called developing countries. TKL particularly focuses on youths aged 4–14. It also includes girls in its activities and works with social integration and post-conflict rehabilitation. There are usually three

league seasons organized during the year. Each one lasts around 6-7 weeks and one month's preparation is needed²⁸.

TKL has already provided programs with physical activities to more than 20 000 children and over 1000 volunteers have been involved since 2003 (TKL, 2012). Some of the former abductees and child soldiers who participated in the TKL activities are described in the ICSSPE handbook (2008). All these are positive examples that demonstrate improved well-being, behaviour, communication and new bonds with other children (ICSSPE, 2008).

The organization is aware of the need to monitor and evaluate its activities therefore it has become part of different research projects. One of them is this thesis. Another was a broad three-year research project with other nine *sport and development* organizations whose results were published in 2010 in the “Sport-for-development impact study” (Coalter & Taylor, 2010). Here, Coalter and Taylor (2010) found significant increase in self-esteem and self-efficacy within gender and ethnics. TKL also supports the development of various research tools and more students and professionals carry on different research²⁹.

Since their creation the functioning of the KKL and TKL has been supported by sponsors such as UNICEF and WHO and corporate funding. Since 2002 TKL has participated in many international tournaments abroad, especially in Europe (the Tivoli Cup, the Norway Cup, the Gothia Cup).

²⁸ R. Clague, personal communication, July 16, 2010.

²⁹ A. Dudley, personal communication, August 18, 2011.

2.3 Qualitative research

The third part of this chapter is devoted to qualitative research, which was chosen as the main approach for the investigation in this thesis. Therefore the main characteristics are described and discussed here. This chapter serves as a theoretical overview that is applied practically in chapter 4, devoted to concrete research methodology.

Qualitative research has gained in importance over recent years. It does not necessarily need to be defined as a contrast to quantitative research and therefore to seek for its justification in the science. Even though some preconceptions still exist, qualitative research is now methodologically well established and consolidated. There are many authors who support the pertinence of qualitative research in the social sciences (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Creswell, 1994; Disman, 2008; Hendl, 2008; Miovský, 2006; Silverman, 2005).

Creswell (1994) says that *“qualitative research is the process of searching for understanding based on different methodological traditions of exploration of an existing social or human phenomenon. The researcher creates complex and holistic picture, analyses different types of documents, informs about the participants’ opinions and carries out the research in natural conditions.”*

Qualitative research is very specific because the data collection and analysis can take place at the same time. In general data collection prevails at the beginning of the research process and further, during the research process the analysis intensifies. This approach enables the researcher to integrate the preliminary analysis into further research. Therefore the interplay between data collection and analysis exists (Bryman, 2008).

For qualitative research it is possible that the main questions could be enriched by new ones and modified in the course of research. Therefore this kind of research is considered to be flexible because changes in research design are possible.

Qualitative research has strong practical applications and especially in the social sciences, there is hardly any area where it would not be used at least partially (Flick, von Kardoff & Steinke, 2004). It is strongly oriented to understanding the everyday life of people. *“The aim of the qualitative research is to create new hypotheses, new*

understanding or new theory (Disman, 2008, 286).” The research discovers and describes the social reality. In qualitative research it is necessary to say that no data are “*untouched by the researcher’s hands*” (Silverman in Peräkylä, 2005). It means that qualitative research is always influenced by the researcher to a certain extent.

2.3.1 Data collection

For qualitative research a broad spectrum of data collection methods are being used. I describe here theoretically those used later in my own research.

2.3.1.1 Observation

Observation is one of the fundamental methods in qualitative research and Švaříček, Šedřová et al. (2007) describe it as the most difficult one. It is an obvious part of the qualitative exploration. Some authors (Bryman, 2008, Tenenbaum & Driscoll, 2005, etc.) use the term ethnography to talk about observation. The purpose of the observation is to see people’s actions and behaviour and the researcher wants to understand what is happening in reality (Hendl, 2008). Observation can be covert or overt, depending on whether the observer informs the participants about his/her activities. Observation can then be divided into direct or indirect. Direct observation happens directly in the field in real time, the indirect form happens when the observer explores only the footage of the activities. Structured and unstructured observation is another typology of observation. Structured observation is based on a set of questions and the answers to them are being sought. Unstructured observation is more open to unexpected situations because there are no exact questions prepared beforehand. The observer/researcher can have several roles in the process of observation as shown on the figure 2. These roles can change over time. Hendl (2008) describes 4 phases of the observation – contact, observation, data registering and closure.

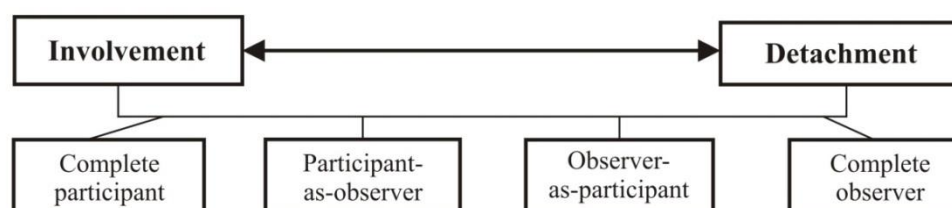


Figure 2. Gold’s classification of participant observer roles (in Bryman, 2008)

2.3.1.2 Semi-structured interviews

The second and the most important method implemented during qualitative research is the use of semi-structured interviews. In this study they were the main source of collected data. Qualitative interviewing is very flexible and brings rich data. The other person's perspective is brought into the research (Tenenbaum & Driscoll, 2005; Willis, 2006). Bryman (2008, 196) describes the semi-structured interview as "*a context in which the interviewer has a series of questions that are in the general form of an interview schedule but is able to vary the sequence of questions.*" Hendl (2008) describes in his book "the interview with the help of the guide" that should assure the coverage of all the questions and topics. It helps the researcher to conduct the interview with several people and compare them. Švaříček, Šed'ová et al. (2007, 159) use the term in-depth interview and understand it as a "*non standardized form of questioning carried out [...] by the researcher with the help of several open questions.*" They divide the in-depth interview into semi-structured and non-structured. A semi-structured interview is also a very good tool for novice researchers (Tenenbaum & Driscoll, 2005). The order of questions (or interview topics) can be changed and the follow-up questions asked when it seems necessary to the researcher, according to significant replies. Questions and topics are generally described in the interview guide that serves as a checklist.

2.3.1.3 Focus group

The last method that was carried out within my research is the focus group. It is a relatively new method in social research that has often been used (Lloyd-Evans, 2006), especially in market research. One of its main theoreticians is David L. Morgan. This method provides the possibility to put together several selected participants and let them share their experience with the help of the facilitator (Bryman 2008; Morgan, 2001). The focus group is also called a group discussion or a group interview. Some authors distinguish among these terms depending on the form, topic, interaction, discussion guide and involvement of the facilitator (Hendl, 2008; Morgan 2001). In this thesis the terms are used interchangeably. In focus groups the participants can listen to what others say and react with their own opinions (Tenenbaum & Driscoll, 2005).

In a focus group (Morgan, 2001) the facilitator is less or more active during the discussion, depending on the aims of the research and on the group itself. Focus group method allows continuous discussion and it strengthens the creation of new ideas and

topics that could have been omitted in the semi-structured interviews. The group is supposed to collect more ideas than a single interview session (Hennink, 2007). The atmosphere of focus group discussions should be relaxed with enhanced social interaction, where people want to share their opinions and experience (Hendl, 2008). Morgan (2001) mentions homogeneous and heterogeneous focus groups. Each focus group follows a set of rules. At the beginning the researcher presents his/her aim and the rules of the discussion. The participants are introduced and the warm-up question is asked. Then the discussion itself can start. The group also undergoes group dynamics. The focus group is finished with the facilitator summarizing the whole discussion. The recommended number of participants is 6–10 people. Usually the focus group discussion takes around an hour or more.

2.3.2 Sampling

Sampling is a very important feature for any kind of research. In quantitative research sampling should enable a certain level of generalization. On the other hand qualitative research does not aim to generalize and therefore the strategies of sampling are different. The aim of sampling in the qualitative research is to represent the problem and all its relevant dimensions (Disman, 2008). Flick (in Hendl, 2008, 148) mentions that “*decision about sampling is done on three different levels in qualitative research*” - (a) during the data collection, (b) during the interpretations and (c) during the presentation of the results. The researcher decides who is addressed in the interview, which interviews are analyzed, which paragraphs are decisive and which quotations are presented (Hendl, 2008). There are many different types of possible sampling – theoretical, random, snowball, etc. Qualitative researchers apply purposive sampling very often (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2007). It means that participants are being sampled according to the research questions (Bryman, 2008) therefore only people who can answer the research questions and who want to be involved are selected (Miovský, 2006; Silverman, 2005). Sampling can also be done on different levels (site, event, process and participant) (Creswell, 2007). Purposive sampling does not allow the researcher to generalize. Within purposive sampling the snowball method is often applied which means that one participant can recommend other participants. The sample in qualitative research is not statistical nor personal but it has to be theoretically grounded (Silverman, 2005).

2.3.3 Data analysis

A detailed and precise description of the collected data is essential for qualitative research (Hendl, 2008). Hendl (2008, 223) says that qualitative analysis means “*systematic non-numeric organization of the data with the aim to discover themes, regularities, qualities and relations.*” Therefore this part of the research is always the most demanding and as Tenenbaum and Driscoll say (2005) the scariest one. Silverman (2005) also underlines that data analysis in qualitative research is a process which is part of the whole research. Generally qualitative research generates a lot of data and therefore it is very rich. To find the path through the data is one of the challenges of qualitative data analysis (Bryman, 2008). The researcher has a lot of unstructured material that has to be systematically analyzed and interpreted (Švaříček & Šed'ová et al., 2007). The strategies of qualitative data analysis in comparison to quantitative data analysis are not so well established and accepted. Bryman (2008) even argues that this is not the most desirable in qualitative research. The purpose of qualitative data analysis is not to exactly describe the distribution of the phenomenon in the population but to persuade others about the existence of it and analyze its structure (Švaříček & Šed'ová et al., 2007).

Thematic analysis is nowadays the most widely used approach in interpreting collected qualitative data (Flick, 2009). Among others content analysis, discourse analysis, semiotic analysis and grounded theory can be named. Some researchers (Boyatzis, 1998; Bryman, 2008) do not consider thematic analysis as a separate method, but as “*something to be used [...] in the search for insight*” (Boyatzis, 1998, vi). Thematic analysis allows the researcher to interpret and analyze the content of data in relation to research questions and the researcher's interests. The interpretation can be on manifest or latent level.

At the beginning the collected data is organized into a comprehensive form. The analysis generally starts with data reduction in the form of coding. This process is sometimes called indexing or open coding within the grounded theory approach. The transcripts are read several times and the researcher creates codes step by step. Coding is an iterative process of revisiting and re-coding the data (Tenenbaum & Driscoll, 2005). The thematic coding starts at the level of each case (Flick, 2004). The transcribed texts are divided into smaller parts and each gets a “new name” in the form of code. The researcher is searching the data for the “codable moments”. Good code captures the

qualitative richness of the data; explains its aspects and it is usable in the analysis. Each code has a label that has a meaning to the researched phenomenon (Boyatzis, 1998). The nature of coding can be inductive and also deductive. When using the deductive approach the codes are principally created in relation to the research questions. The researcher knows what kinds of variables to search for in the data, based on the theory and literature. In the inductive coding the process is based on the data itself and on what emerges from it (from specific codes to general themes). Both procedures can happen at the same time. Memos or mottos help the researcher to describe the created code.

Afterwards the categories or themes as referred to by some authors (Boyatzis, 1998; Tenenbaum & Driscoll, 2005) emerge from the individual codes. A category represents several codes that belong to the same feature. It describes the patterns that can be observed in the data. Matrix can be constructed in thematic coding (Bryman, 2008; Švaříček & Šed'ová et al., 2007) where one axis represents each case and the other axis represents the themes. New information and new understanding of the data is produced during the process of thematic analysis – new codes, new categories and new concepts. These are used to mutually create new connections, relations and dependencies.

Authors such as Hendl (2005) and Boyatzis (1998) consider interpretation as part of the whole analysis. Boyatzis (1998) considers the first part as descriptive and the interpretation matches it with the theory. According to Švaříček, Šed'ová et al. (2007) the interpretation of the coded and categorized data is the next step that again leads to the broadening of the material. But usually it is very hard to separate both processes because they often happen at the same time. Švaříček, Šed'ová et al. (2007) distinguish primary and secondary interpretation. The first goes parallel with analysis and stops at the level of data. The latter emerges during the writing process and interprets what our data says and how it relates to the theory, to other research and to the conceptual framework.

2.3.4 Quality indicators in the qualitative research

Qualitative research is very specific; nevertheless its quality has to be guaranteed. However, it is not possible to apply the absolutely same criteria as for the quantitative research. LeCompte and Goetz (in Bryman, 2008) try to adapt the quantitative criteria to the qualitative research. They use the terms of external and internal reliability and external and internal validity. On the other hand Guba and

Lincoln (in Hendl, 2008; in Bryman, 2008) establish alternative measurements of the quality in qualitative research because they consider reliability and validity as irrelevant. They describe trustworthiness and authenticity. Trustworthiness is made up of four other criteria – credibility, transferability, confirmability and dependability. Maxwell (in Hendl, 2008) argues that there is not just one correct description existing in reality. Therefore he describes the validity on the level of the research report.

The discussion on the quality criteria within the qualitative research is still ongoing, new perspectives have been brought, new proposals have been made, new terms have been employed and different checklists have been proposed (Guba & Lincoln, 2001; Patton, 2003; Spencer et al., 2003, Tenenbaum & Driscoll, 2005). The overview and comparison is proposed, for instance, by Creswell (2007, 203) in his recent publication. For validity in qualitative research he suggests the researchers “*employ accepted strategies to document the ‘accuracy’ of their studies*” (Creswell, 2007, 207). He calls this “validation strategies” and proposes eight of them. In chapter 4 I use his approach and discuss several of his strategies important for my research.

3 Aim and objective of the thesis

3.1 Aim of the thesis

The main aim of this thesis is to enrich the domain of *sport and development* by presenting new findings directly from the field. This new emerging domain is quite new to the Czech Republic and therefore I would like to also introduce this field to Czech academia. The main objective of this work is to describe and research the role of sport in the development process in the context of developing countries. With my research I would like to contribute to a broadening of the existing knowledge in the field because as mentioned already earlier, there remains a lack of evidence and studies in this field.

3.2 The principal research question

Thereby the main objective of the thesis had to be narrowed down. The principal research question therefore focuses on the role of the selected sport discipline in children's personal development: **“What is the role of football in the personal development of the children?”** (see the discussion of personal development in chapter 2.1.1.2.1).

The aim of this research is to get a comprehensive insight into the role of football in the life of youths participating in the programs of The Kids League and to analyze their perception of football.

This principal research question is embodied in the three following subsidiary research questions.

3.2.1 Subsidiary research questions:

1. What does the experience from international football tournaments bring to the personal development of each individual?
2. What does football itself bring to the personal development of each individual?
3. What transfers from the football experience into everyday life?

3.3 Commentary to the aim, objectives and research questions

This thesis is not intended to evaluate the “*sport and development*” project of The Kids League. Rather, its aim is to analyze different people’s perceptions of the role of football in the life of the children taking part in the programs of TKL. These research questions are answered and analyzed through the qualitative research design described theoretically in chapter 2.3. The following chapter 4 builds on this theoretical background and explains in details the research design.

The conceptual framework of chapter 2 serves as the starting point for the above mentioned main objective. Within the framework of “*sport and development*” (see chapter 2.1) I critically approach the understanding of *development*, the actual academic discussions, the research and its results. However, the main objective of the thesis is too broad and therefore I had to narrow it down to the principal research question and the subsidiary questions.

As a researcher I was independent of any donor and therefore not tied by a donor’s requirements. Donors usually prefer quantitative analyses but on the other hand qualitative research is more participatory and gives space to the researched population, as mentioned by Newell and Frynas (2007) and Levermore (2011) (in chapter 2.1.5). I wanted to give space directly to the youths and their care-givers because their voices are often omitted from the development programs and academic research (Nicholls, Gilda & Sethna, 2011) (see chapter 2.1.5). Levermore (2011) mentions that “*sport and development*” field is not a good instrument to be evaluated by using standard quantitative data. But on the other hand it is said that the sport’s proclaimed “evangelic” role has to be evaluated (Coalter, 2009; Cronin, 2011; Levermore, 2011).

These are the main ideas that influenced my research methodology. They were taken into consideration while preparing the research methodology and during the whole research process. The details are explained in the following chapter 4.

4 Methodology of the research

In this chapter I introduce in detail my research methodology and the whole research process. This chapter builds on the theoretical background described in chapter 2.3.

4.1 Type of research

My research is qualitative and exploratory by its nature. Its aim is to explore and describe existing social reality. I wanted to contribute to the clarification of the researched phenomenon by use of data collection directly in the field. In this case the qualitative research design is very advantageous. Its flexible structure enables the researcher to find the individual opinions of the people involved in the football programs in a given locality. The fact that I was researching the phenomenon directly in the field was very convenient because it was possible to react to the local environment and its conditions.

The conducted qualitative research is influenced by a variety of different factors which needed to be taken into consideration during the whole research process. All the factors are described and analyzed in this chapter. The researcher's biases as described by Chambers (2006) are also made explicit in this chapter. The research was done in a completely different social and cultural background and therefore all the time I had to keep in mind the different cultural values and patterns which existed between me and researched population (e. g. male hegemony, different social roles between genders, taboo topics...) (see also chapter 2.2). Therefore it is important to take into consideration that the results can be biased and it is not possible to generalize from them onto a global level. The results are valid for the given population in a given environment, which is one of the main characteristics of qualitative research. Yet the results are intended to contribute to the exploration of the relationship between football and personal development.

The main objective of the thesis is to get a comprehensive insight into the role of sport in the life of youths involved with TKL in Uganda. This objective was, for the purposes of the thesis, narrowed down to the principal research question of what is the role of football in the personal development of the children. Less standardized methods were used for sampling and for the data collection within this qualitative research which was appropriate for the local setting and enabled me to get a better understanding of the

researched phenomenon (as noted by Levermore, 2011; Newell & Frynas, 2007). I was not backed by any donor agency and therefore I was not influenced by this kind of stakeholder. Space was particularly given to the local population (the youths and their carers) as they are rarely included in research (Nicholls, Gilda & Sethna, 2011).

4.2 Research sample

The research sample in this study is purposive and is set up from current and former participants, coaches and staff of football programs held by The Kids League (TKL) in Uganda. The snowball method was used when searching for the close carers (parents, teachers and coaches) of the youths involved in the football programs. Each teenager was asked if his/her relatives and teachers can be visited, and some of the teenagers agreed with the meetings which were organized later. Some of the parents were unfortunately not available because of time and geographical constraints. TKL works with youths, especially in Kampala (the capital) but it also had programs in different provinces of Northern Uganda (see chapter 2.2). This organization was selected after email correspondence and discussion with its main coordinator Mr. Trevor Dudley.

Also included in the research sample were the youths who took part in the Football for Hope Festival (chapter 2.1.3.2) in South Africa in 2010, their carers from Kampala and also the coaches of TKL working in Gulu in Northern Uganda. I was able to interview 6 (4 boys and 2 girls) out of the 8 teenagers who participated in the Football for Hope Festival in South Africa. The two remaining participants were not included because of logistics and time problems. All the six teenagers were aged from 14 to 18 and regularly took part in the activities of the TKL. Even though TKL focuses on youths under 14, the conditions for the FFH were specifically set up for youths aged 14–18. Nevertheless all the selected youths were still involved with the activities of TKL. They were living in Kampala, either with their families, or apart from them. All the teenagers were studying at secondary schools at the time of the research. Two boys not living with their families were staying in the youth hostel because they came to Kampala from Northern Uganda to study at school on a scholarship through football. One girl was living in the orphanage. The youths came from families with 3 and more children. One research participant was not of Ugandan origin; his family had moved to Kampala due to the father's job. The family's origin was Thai.

I included the parents, teachers and coaches in the research because they have an important role in the lives of the youths and therefore they can contribute to the exploration of the role of football in the lives of their children. I was not able to reach all the parents of the teenagers because of different reasons. One girl (TA6, see Table 1 on the next page) was living in the orphanage and therefore I spoke to her carer (CO7) who fulfils the role of the parent. Two boys from Northern Uganda were living in the youth hostel and therefore I also spoke to their carer. I successfully reached the mother of participant TA5. One participant did not agree to his family being interviewed (TA3) and one family was not reachable at all due to the distance (TA2).

Finally there were 22 people (see the Table 1) included in the research sample. Three persons were interviewed twice – in 2010 and then in 2011. This sample represents a homogeneous group of people who have been in long-term touch with TKL and therefore have experience with football and are in a relationship with TKL. Concerning the age, this group is made up of teenagers (6 participants) and adults between 30 and 50 years (16 participants).

All of the research was conducted in English. It is the official language in Uganda and therefore all the research participants should have been able to understand it. Despite this it is necessary to take into consideration that English is not the mother tongue for any of the interviewed people (nor for me, the researcher). All the participants use the local languages at home, therefore it was crucial to explain the questions and if necessary ask follow-up questions. It was only necessary to provide a translation in one case. It happened with the mother of one player who spoke luganda and the translation was provided by her daughter (the player). An overview of the research participants is provided in the Table 1.

Table 1. Overview of the participants in the research

(TA – teenager, TE – teacher, CG – care-giver, CO – coach, PA – parent, FFH – Football for Hope, SSI – semistructured interview, FG – focus group, M – male, F – female)

No.	Explanation	Label in the text	Gender	Date and form of the research interview	Place of the interview
1	Teenager, FFH Festival participant	TA1(10)	M	2010 (SSI)	Johannesburg, South Africa
	Teenager, FFH Festival – a year later	TA1(11)	M	2011 (SSI)	Kampala, Uganda
2	Teenager, FFH Festival participant	TA2	M	2010 (SSI)	Johannesburg, South Africa
3	Teenager, FFH Festival participant	TA3	M	2010 (SSI)	Johannesburg, South Africa
4	Teenager, FFH Festival participant	TA4(10)	M	2010 (SSI)	Johannesburg, South Africa
	Teenager, FFH Festival – a year later	TA4(11)	M	2011 (SSI)	Kampala, Uganda
5	Teenager, FFH Festival participant	TA5(10)	F	2010 (SSI)	Johannesburg, South Africa
	Teenager, FFH Festival – a year later	TA5(11)	F	2011 (SSI)	Kampala, Uganda
6	Teenager, FFH Festival participant	TA6	F	2010 (SSI)	Johannesburg, South Africa
7	Coach and care-giver of No. 6	CO7	F	2010 (SSI)	Kampala, Uganda
8	Teacher of No. 4 and No. 1	TE8	M	2010 (SSI)	Kampala, Uganda
9	Teacher of No. 5 and No. 6	TE9	M	2010 (SSI)	Kampala, Uganda
10	Teacher of No. 3	TE10	M	2010 (SSI)	Kampala, Uganda
11	Coach of TKL team	CO11	M	2010 (SSI)	Kampala, Uganda
12	Coach and administrator of TKL	CO12	M	2010 (SSI)	Kampala, Uganda
13	Care-giver of No. 4 and No. 1	CG13	M	2010 (SSI)	Kampala, Uganda
14	Parent of No. 5	PA14	F	2010 (SSI)	Kampala, Uganda
15	Coach of No. 6	CO15	M	2010 (SSI)	Kampala, Uganda
16	Coach of TKL	CO16	M	2011 (FG)	Gulu, Uganda
17	Coach of TKL	CO17	M	2011 (FG)	Gulu, Uganda
18	Coach of TKL	CO18	M	2011 (FG)	Gulu, Uganda
19	Coach of TKL	CO19	F	2011 (FG)	Gulu, Uganda
20	Coach of TKL	CO20	F	2011 (FG)	Gulu, Uganda
21	Coach of TKL	CO21	F	2011 (FG)	Gulu, Uganda
22	Former participant, coach and administrator in TKL	CO22	M	2011 (SSI)	Kampala, Uganda

4.3 Timeframe of the research in the field

The first part of the research took place in South Africa in June and July 2010 during the Football for Hope Festival, where I participated as a volunteer. The observation was carried out during the first week of the festival. The interviews with six teenagers from the Ugandan team were conducted in the second week of the festival when we already knew each other. Afterwards in Uganda nine interviews with the carers of the youth were implemented and training sessions were observed. Many informal talks took place at that time. The information was captured through field notes.

The second part of the field research happened one year later in Uganda in August 2011. More interviews and focus groups were carried out. I managed one focus group in Gulu where all the participants cooperated with TKL as coaches in their football programs. They were not in direct touch with the teenagers who took part in the FHF, but they had long-time experience with football and therefore they were able to contribute to the research and describe the role of football in the life of the youths. Six people took part in the focus group. In Kampala I contacted the participants of the Football for Hope Festival again and other former members of TKL. Four interviews were held there – three teenagers were interviewed again, one year after the South African experience and one adult who was a former TKL member was interviewed for the first time.

4.4 Methods of data collection used in this research

Qualitative research methodology involves a variety of methods. This research makes use of observation, semi-structured interviews and focus group. The application of each method in my research is described here. Based on the theoretical background (chapter 2.3) I provide the concrete information on how the methods were used in the field.

4.4.1 Observation

In this research observation was used, especially at the beginning of the process, in order to get familiar with the researched team and its members and to understand how the team works. My aim was not to be perceived by the youths as a complete outsider or as somebody who comes to take data and leaves without truly engaging with them. The research results would be available to the participants and therefore building a close

relationship was important. Mainly the participatory unstructured observation was done during that time because I worked as a volunteer at the Football for Hope Festival. Therefore I was able to observe the researched team in everyday situations and to be in touch with the participants. This kind of observation enables the researcher to approach the explored subject and disclose the inner perspectives of participants (Hendl, 2008). In this way stronger contact and greater confidence was ensured between the youths and I. In 2011 in Gulu and in Kampala (during the field research in Uganda) both forms of observation were applied – participatory and non-participatory. All the findings were written down in a field diary. Thanks to observation and informal talks, a certain amount of trust was built between me and the researched population. During the observation all the details were observed and described – forms of communication, the environment, and the interaction between the participants and so on.

4.4.2 Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews were chosen as appropriate for this study and they were implemented with chosen teenagers and their carers. Through the interviews I was able to cover all the research questions and topics and at the same time add new questions and explanations when needed. This especially happened with the adult participants of the research. In total 19 interviews were carried out for the purpose of this study with participants No. 1–15 and 22, participants No. 1, 4 and 5 were interviewed twice (see the Table 1).

The interviews with the youths (No. 1–6) in 2010, during the Football for Hope Festival were carried out at the football stadium and in the players' dormitory away from other people. In 2010 interviews with their carers (parents, teachers and coaches) took place in Uganda/Kampala at schools, at home and at the students' hostel. In 2011 three teenagers were interviewed again (No. 1, 4 and 5) and one research participant was new (No. 22). Each interview took from 25 minutes to 50 minutes. The longer interviews were usually carried out with parents, teachers and coaches. The teenagers were generally closed at the beginning but during the interview they became more open. At the beginning of each interview the aim of the research was explained to the interviewee and each participant was asked for oral informed consent. The adult interviewees were asked for signed consent. All the interviews were recorded and transcribed. Each participant agreed with this procedure. The interview guide of the semi-structured interview was prepared in advance (see Annex 2) and adapted for

different types of interviewees (youths, parent, coach and teacher). With the three participants who were interviewed for the second time in 2011 we particularly focused on their experience from 2010. The majority of questions were open, only the demographic questions were closed.

4.4.3 Focus group

The focus group held in Gulu in 2011 was made up of with a homogeneous group of trainers who all knew each other. There were 6 participants in the discussion. All of them had their own jobs and worked as football coaches in their free time on the projects of TKL. This focus group was implemented in the form of a facilitated group discussion (Morgan, 2001) with a range of questions prepared beforehand. The focus group guide was elaborated in advance and modified during the discussion. It means that the primary questions were enriched by new ones that built on the on-going discussion. The guide can be seen in the Annex 3. I was especially interested in how the group saw the role of football in the lives of children, therefore this was the main topic of the whole discussion. I was the moderator of the discussion and one American student took part as a passive observer. The student was introduced at the beginning of the discussion as she was unknown to the group. She did not intervene actively in the process of the focus group. As a passive observer she took notes for herself during the discussion. Her notes were not taken into consideration in the analysis.

The focus group took place in a small local restaurant. This method was chosen because it was appropriate for the situation, I did not know the participants and it was easier to meet them all together in one place. The contact with all the participants was arranged through one local sport leader who also participated in the discussion. Three females and three male individuals took part in the discussion. The whole process took around 1.5 hours and it was recorded. I also took notes during the discussion. Drinks were offered and the transport cost was refunded to the participants. I introduced myself and my research at the beginning and then the rules of the focus group method. All the participants were asked to sign the informed consent. The discussion started with the introduction of the participants and they were asked to explain their involvement with football and TKL. Then I brought the prepared topics one after another and I let the discussion to flow. However, my moderation was needed because several times the discussion stopped as the participants were only answering the questions especially at the beginning.

4.5 Analysis of the collected data

I have chosen the thematic analysis as the method of data analysis. This analysis was chosen as the most appropriate because it offers the opportunity to freely create the codes and categories based on the data and research questions. In this subchapter I describe the process of the thematic analysis in detail based on the conceptual framework (chapter 2.3.3) and the research questions (chapter 3). During the analysis all the collected data were triangulated – field notes from observation, semi-structured interviews and focus group.

All the semi-structured interviews and focus group were recorded and later transcribed. The transcription was verbatim. After the transcription was finished the analysis of the data started. I started to systematically classify, structure and analyze the data. First the field notes and interview transcripts were read several times. Then data reduction in the form of the first coding was applied. The codes were gradually created, based on repeated listening, reading of the interviews and constant comparison according to the subsidiary research questions. I searched for the “codeable moments” (Boyatzis, 1998) in the transcripts. The codes were created first at the level of each transcript. After having the first codes I started to compare the transcripts and organize the codes into categories. The codes that appeared to belong to the same feature were put together. Codes and categories were created deductively as well as inductively - deductively mainly in connection to the research questions. The inductive codes emerged from the data itself.

I analyzed all the transcripts together (No. 1–22) with the exception of the three interviews that were taken with three participants a year later in 2011 (No. 1, 4 and 5). These interviews were analyzed separately because the purpose was to see the impact one year after the festival.

The interpretation and discussion of the created codes and categories was the next step in the analysis. Here the data again gets rich as they are being interpreted. The graphs are used in order to structure and organize the created codes and categories (see the following chapter 5).

The transcripts are stored away and no-one else can access them therefore confidentiality and anonymity is assured. The transcripts were used in anonymity by three other students who participated in the process of the thematic analysis.

4.6 Quality indicators in the research and research limits

Theoretically the quality indicators were mentioned in chapter 2.3. Here I discuss them in connection to my research. I base my justification of the research quality according to the “validation strategies” as proposed by Creswell (2007, 207). He describes 8 strategies out of which at least 2 should be applied. In my research I applied the following – **prolonged engagement, triangulation, clarifying my bias and rich, thick description.**

I established a **prolonged engagement** in the field especially with the youths who participated at the Football for Hope Festival. At the beginning I used participatory unstructured observation in order to get familiar with the group of the teenagers. We stayed together for 2 weeks and before I started to interview them we got to know each other. This is what I was able to manage by taking into account my time and financial possibilities. The prolonged stay is supposed to guarantee the better validity of the collected data, according to del Villar Alvarez (1994). During the interview my aim was also to create a physically, socially and psychologically secure atmosphere.

Triangulation has been used in order to support the quality of the research. I used the methodology and data triangulation. During the research various methods were used – observation, semi-structured interviews and focus group. Data were gathered from different sources (youths, parents, teachers and coaches) and in different places (Johannesburg – South Africa, Kampala and Gulu – Uganda). Triangulation offers strategies to reduce bias and to strengthen the findings of the qualitative research (Tenenbaum & Driscoll, 2005).

Here I also **clarify my own biases**. All the possible researcher’s biases within development research, according to Chambers (2006), were already mentioned theoretically in chapter 2.1.5.3. Here I describe and acknowledge the project bias because I only researched the people who were involved with the programme of TKL. Hence, this bias is a consequence of the purposive sampling. My spatial bias was decreased by the fact that I brought people from different places to the research and I travelled directly to them in order to interview them. Concerning the personal bias, I wanted to get away from it through the inclusion of children and women into the research sample. Nevertheless the majority of research participants are males. I was able

to reach only a limited number of females in the research. Seasonal bias does not apply much as Uganda lies on the equator and the weather is almost the same all year round. Diplomatic bias was not applied to my work as I did not ask many sensitive questions. Professional bias certainly applies to the type of research I carried out. However, during the interviews there was space to also discuss the topics I was not primarily searching for. I think that security bias does not apply in my research as the situation in Uganda is stable nowadays and there are no security concerns in any region of the country. The researcher can move freely without any concerns about being threatened.

As already stated the represented research is very specific in its nature because among the participants there were teenagers aged from 14 to 18 and adults who are from a very different cultural environment than mine. Therefore there were other biases caused by the differences between me and the participants – age, mother tongue, gender, cultural values and skin colour. These features certainly had an influence on the research. The power structures could cause people to have been afraid of negative and open answers. This issue is quite important in connection with the teenagers who took part in the research. I did not want to be a foreigner (as described earlier) and therefore we got to know each other before the interviews took place. I prepared myself for these challenges by adequately reading about *sport and development* and the specifics of development research. Before leaving for Uganda and South Africa I went through several readings on the cultural background and values in both destinations. During the work in the field I used my previous experience from working with children and youths in Mexico and Mongolia.

The last of the quality indicators I apply here in this thesis is **rich and thick description**. All the research process is documented in detail, which also corresponds with Maxwell's descriptive validity (in Hendl, 2008). I have described the researched population and all the places where the research was carried out.

In the previous paragraphs I have described the quality indicators in the form of "validation strategies" and I have explained in detail my own biases. However, I am very much aware that the presented results cannot be generalized and are valid for the selected population and in a given environment.

4.7 Research ethics

The official agreement with TKL was signed. This agreement defined in detail the rights and responsibilities of the researcher and TKL.

To each participant the aim of the research was explained in detail and the process was described very closely at the beginning. All the participants in the research were told that they would have the opportunity to see the results of the research when the final report was produced. After the explanation of the aims all the adult interviewees were invited to sign the paper version of the informed consent. The informed consent for the under 18s was signed by the people responsible for them (parents or carers). However, the youths had all the details explained and were asked for oral consent at the beginning of each interview. Participation in the research was benevolent and the participants could stop at any moment. The “do no harm³⁰” principal was applied during the whole research process.

The anonymity and confidentiality on the side of the researcher was reaffirmed every time. Real names have not been used at any time during the analysis and writing of this thesis.

³⁰*Do no harm* means that any kind of intervention (project, program, research) should be planned and constructed in a way that does not harm the population in question.

5 Results and discussion

In this chapter I introduce the results that came out of the thematic analysis of the collected data. This chapter is divided into several parts:

1. *General thematic analysis* (5.1),
2. *Thematic analysis one year after the festival* (5.2),
3. *Two case studies* (5.3).

In each part the results are described and analysed depending upon the specific group of participants. During the thematic analysis the “codeable moments” (Boyatzis, 1998) were searched first. The categories were created as the next step of the analysis due to the iterative process of repetitive readings of the transcripts and filed notes. The data was reduced. Here in this chapter I describe each particular category and its codes. At the same time I use this chapter to discuss the results and therefore the data is again rich up to the level of secondary interpretation (Švaříček & Šed'ová et al., 2007).

The data were triangulated as different methods of data collection and different sources of information were used and compared during the thematic analysis (Tenenbaum & Driscoll, 2005). This process is shown through different quotations that appear in the following text.

When I use quotations from the interviews each participant is labelled with a unique label (see Table 1, column 3). In the table those people who substitute in the role of parents if these are not present are labelled as care-givers (CG). This is especially the case with participants 1, 4 and 6, who do not live with their parents. In the following text I use the word care-giver as a label for all those people who are in direct touch with the teenagers (parents, teachers, coaches and carers in the hostel).

5.1 Results of the general thematic analysis

This sub-chapter is devoted to the general thematic analysis based on all three subsidiary research questions; and the principal research question³¹ is answered later in the conclusion (chapter 6). All the collected data were taken into account (observation, semi-structured interviews and focus group), with the exception of the focus group data

³¹ What is the role of football in the personal development of the children?

(participants CO16–CO21) that were not included in the first subsidiary research question because of their irrelevance.

The categories and codes presented here were created deductively (according to the three subsidiary research questions) or inductively (emerging from the research). The results for each question are first presented graphically – followed by the exact explanation with quotations.

5.1.1 Results emerging from the first subsidiary research question³²

From the first research question three different categories were created, with several codes. The following figure 3 shows the categories and their codes. I describe and analyze each category with its codes and give concrete examples of quotations from the interviews. As already mentioned above I also discuss the results here. First two categories (**expression of significance** and **learning through the tournaments**) could be considered as positive influence; the third one is directly named as **negatives impacts**.

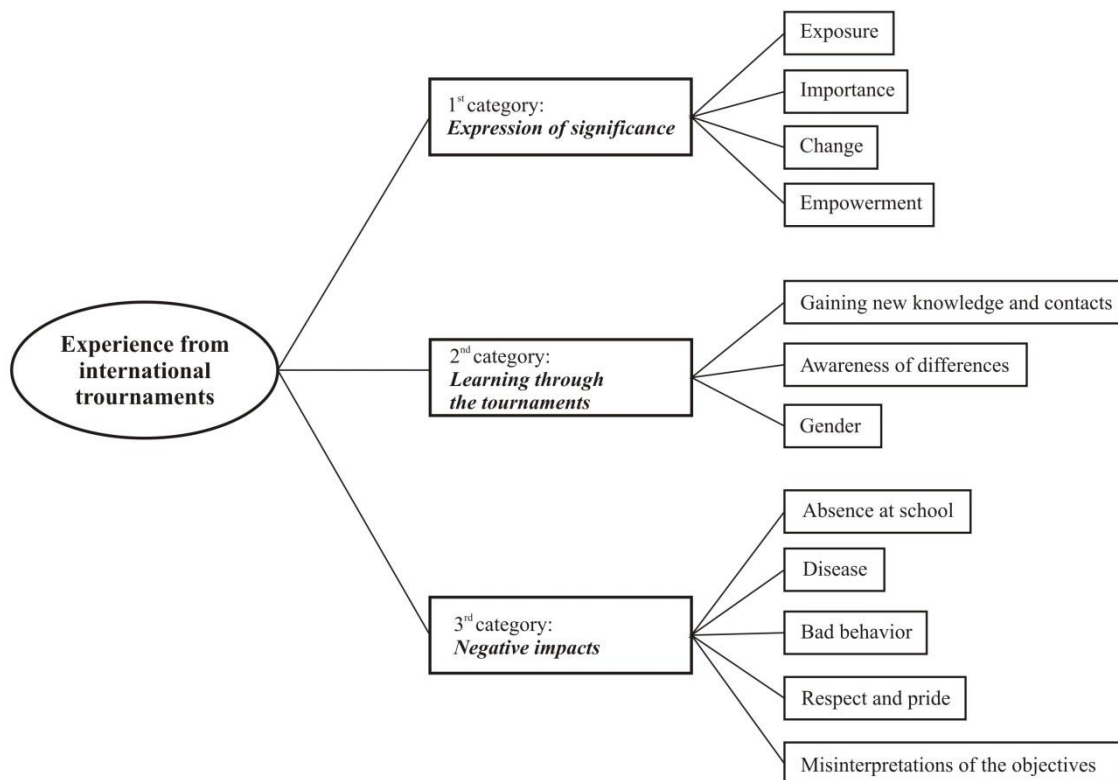


Figure 3. Categories and codes for the first subsidiary research question

³² What does the experience from international football tournaments bring to the personal development of each individual?

5.1.1.1 1st category: Expression of significance

This category describes the significance of having the possibility to go abroad. It encompasses four different codes – (a) **exposure**, (b) **importance**, (c) **change** and (d) **empowerment**. The category was described in depth by all the children and their carers; however this category remains at the general level without concrete outcomes that would explain the direct transfer to the daily lives of the young people. The most specific in this category are the codes empowerment and exposure where the discussion gets more concrete. This category is very rich in quotations.

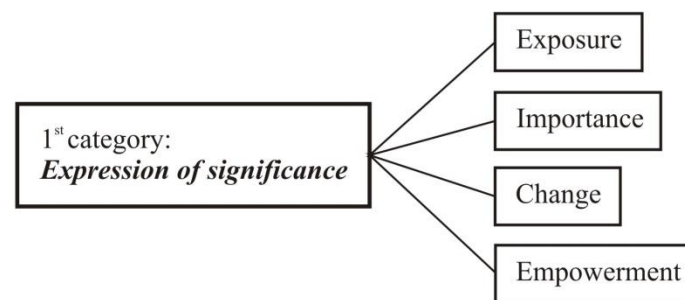


Figure 4. 1st category with its codes – 1st subsidiary research question

The code **exposure** was found to be very important during the research. The youths, participants in the Football for Hope Festival, considered it very influential and prestigious that they were exposed during the festival. Many of them, especially the researched boys, would like to start a football career in the future and be employed as professional footballers. Therefore the festival represented an opportunity for them to show their skills and abilities, even though they were aware that it was not the main aim of their trip to South Africa and that football should not be everything in their lives. Some of the participants have already travelled before and they received exposure during different tournaments in Europe (see chapter 2.1.3.2). The possibility of receiving exposure is therefore seen as very important for their future. Consequently they might overestimate the role of football in their personal lives. Here the TKL is on the scene because the coaches and trainers explain the importance of education and support the kids in studying. Participant TA3 talked about the exposure in the following way. “*Our chairman, he has made me to be exposed outside the country to play in big tournaments like Gothia cup, in Sweden, Tivoli Cup in Denmark. To be exposed, it helps*

me to explain my talent better.” Participant TA4(10) also added the following, [travelling], it’s meaningful; because once you get travelling it can become your future, your future. OK, it’s also exposures of own physics. You get more new experience.”

All the research participants, in connection with the international tournaments, talked about the **importance** of being able to participate and to travel abroad from Uganda. The girls going with TKL to South Africa were travelling for the first time in their lives and the fact of having passport was also very special for them. All the teenagers used words such as having a big opportunity, passing through a lifetime experience and living a very special event. All of them were quite excited about the tournament. Participant TA2 used the following words. *“It’s very special. Lifetime experience to be here, because it’s opportunity, it doesn’t come alone and we are very lucky to be chosen.”* Participant TA3 used similar words. *“It’s great, it’s really a great experience for me.”* Coach CO7 describes the feelings of one participant in FFH Festival. *“When [she] heard that it is going to South Africa she was very excited, one of the thing she was really excited she didn’t have a passport or at visa but the Kampala Kids League it enabled it to access it. That was very very important.”*

Another key code when talking about the experience gained from international tournaments was **change**. The fact that the young people were able to go outside Uganda was labelled by the research participants as bringing change into their personal lives. The FFH Festival was also perceived as a mind opener about the world and to the fact that football is not the only important thing. The tournament was played according to fair play rules (explained in chapter 2.1.3.2) which made it very different. This code encompasses the participants’ feelings that are expressed in relation to the significance of international tournaments in the area of change. More concrete outcomes attributed to participation at the international tournament (e. g. **gaining new knowledge and contacts**) were put under a different category (**learning through the tournament**). Therefore this code remains only at the abstract level in significance. One of the teachers TE10 said in connection to his student, that *“above all, his whole life has changed because of this travel to South Africa. [...] So I think football’s been a good open up for him.”* Participant TA6 expressed, the opinion that *“this travel makes me ... It changes my life. It helps me to know other people.”* Participant TA2 said directly, in connection with the Football for Hope Festival, that *“this is different because it’s not about football. It opens our minds a lot to the fact that football is not everything in this tournament. [...] It will be always in my memory, because it changes the way I act. I see*

people living in Alexandra. Life is very difficult here. So we should make the most of what we have.” Here, it is possible to conclude that some kind of change was discussed in each and every interview which was manifested also during the observations (e. g. the Ugandan teenagers became more open and talkative during their stay in South Africa). Participants were aware of the fact that this festival is played according to fair play rules and that it is different from other tournaments. Participant TA3 expressed it in the following way, *“This tournament is all about fair play, and making friends, that’s all. It is a fair play tournament.”* At the same time they express the will to win and to play at their best because of the exposure (see code **exposure**).

The last code that emerged deductively as an expression of the significance of the international tournaments was named **empowerment**. The youths said that thanks to the travelling and thanks to the South African experience they felt themselves to be examples for their community and role models for other children and their peers at home. They represented their home country as ambassadors. They felt that their success in being selected could motivate and encourage others back home to achieve their hopes and dreams. The participation in the international tournament made them more self-confident, with the belief that anything is possible and their families became proud of them. Participant TA5(10) expressed her attitude towards being in South Africa and playing there: *“Well, it’s like ... a big example that we can do it. Because as for me I grew up in poor family, not a rich family, but I was encouraged to start playing soccer by my friends there ... now I’ve started and achieved ... now it’s like a good example to other people. [...] Like when I travel to many countries, I start getting confidence of being an ambassador”*. Coach CO7, when talking about the teenager said, that *“other children are really admiring her, they are feeling so sad, because they didn’t get the chance to go with [her] ... but they’re performing better because they want next time to go where [she] went without them.”* Participant TA4(10) expressed his attitude as *“I am so proud of myself to be here in South Africa.”* The borderline between increased self-confidence and being disrespectful or too proud (see category **negative impact** and code **respect and pride**) is very hard to define and as participant TE9 emphasized, it depends on the character of each teenager and the involvement of teachers and coaches.

5.1.1.2 2nd category: Learning through the tournament

This category emerged deductively way as well as inductively. During the FFH Festival (and other international tournaments) the young people had the opportunity to meet new people, to share their life experience and exchange their own stories. Throughout the festival they stayed in an intercultural environment for two weeks, learning formally and informally about each other during different workshops, meetings, gatherings and informal talks. The intercultural encounters were mentioned by children and their care-givers in every interview. From the observations it was evident that the children used the time to meet their peers from different countries. Nevertheless, these meetings were influenced by their knowledge of language. Therefore different language groups were created informally (Spanish, English and French speaking).

There are three codes in this category – (a) **gaining new knowledge and contacts** (created deductively as direct answers to the research question), (b) **awareness of differences** and (c) **gender** (created inductively).

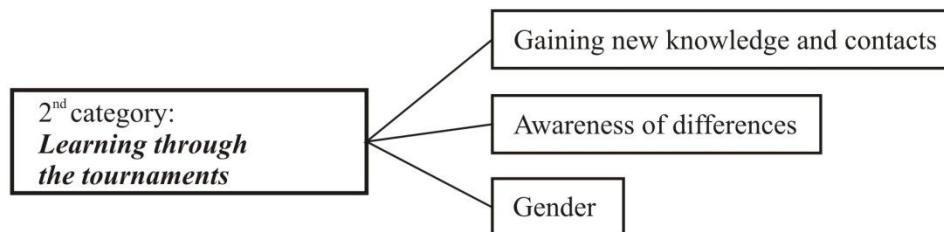


Figure 5. 2nd category with its codes – 1st subsidiary research question

At the international tournaments mutual exchange happens constantly and hence the participants gain **new knowledge and contacts** all the time. They have the opportunity to informally learn from each other. They meet new friends and exchange information about foreign cultures, languages and habits. The teenagers felt that the new friendships and contacts are important for the future. While playing in the international environment the youths encounter people of different colour and of different thinking. This seems to be very important, especially if the child has never met anyone of a different colour before. Participant TA1(10) noted that, “*we’ve had time to talk about*

our cultures, to talk about our countries and we've learned from all ... all the countries". Another, participant TA3, added, *"I've seen many faces that I've never been seeing, I've seen many people, I've made many friends"*. Participant TA4(10) explained why it is useful to meet new people and see new things, *"... the more you have friends the more rich you'll be in future."* Coach CO11 added, that *"sometimes when we travel, we meet other children and as I said the African cultures are different from the European cultures but when we mingle ... we start to learn their cultures and they also start to learn our cultures."* Teacher TE9 expressed the opinion about the colour differences and the fact that Ugandan children can fear the white players and lose to them, *"because they are not used to them, [...] but once you take these kids out and the kid grows up to know that we are the same except the colour, we have the same brains, we play ... when they come back they play differently."* Thereby the international tournaments can contribute to the breaking down of the stereotypes existing in different societies, which is the aim of global and intercultural learning (see chapter 2.1.6).

Through talks with their peers the youths became aware of the differences that exist among different countries and cultures. That is why the code **awareness of differences** was created. The Ugandan youths started to compare their situation with other countries, especially with South Africa, where they spent 2 weeks. *"I get to know, what is in this country and what is not in this. Now I can understand what is in South Africa and what is in Uganda. [...] I can see that South Africa is what? More developed than Uganda,"* said the participant TA6. Thanks to the talks with other young people from different countries and with the locals in Johannesburg (mainly in the township of Alexandra) they started to compare their life experiences and their perception of their own problems has changed. The participants spent the whole second week of their stay in Alexandra while playing in the tournament and therefore had the opportunity to talk to the locals. The locals were also working within the festival as volunteers. Each team had its local volunteer who stayed with the team all the time. Therefore there was space for sharing. The teenagers started to see their own problems in Uganda in a different way as noted by research participant TA1, *"it is through this Football for Hope, that we have learned that at least each, from each and every country, there is a problem. Not only in Uganda. We've learnt that everyone has got a problem and every problem has got a solution."*

The last code that belongs to this category is **gender**. The young people in the FFH Festival had to play in mixed teams according to the fair play rules – boys and girls

together. They started to be aware of their different roles in the team. The boys were those who wanted to win and were encouraging the girls and the girls were the ones who calmed down the situation in the team. Female participant TA5(10) noted that *“they [boys] also support us because we are usually weak in some cases and they also encourage us.”* Male participant TA4(10) said that *“when we’re in the pitch, we put the soul of us. The girls have to put the soul as the boys, the girls have to work as hard as the boys.”* The participants were aware of differences between the genders in the team and that they needed each other in order to be able to play and win. At the same time they acknowledged that there was certain barrier existing between the boys and girls in the team which was also noted during the observation, especially at the beginning of the tournament. This barrier confirms the general cultural environment (male domination) existing in Ugandan society and it was also confirmed by observation.

The aim of this category and its three codes is to emphasize that the informal meetings and talks among the youths contribute a great deal to intercultural and global awareness for each individual and therefore to their personal growth. Hence, it is possible to say that tournaments like the FFH Festival (and others) have the potential to fulfil the aims of intercultural learning and global education as mentioned in chapter 2.1.6. The FFH Festival was quite special in this way because there was a big emphasis on mutual exchange and the schedule was created with the aim of giving time and space to the youths to get to know each other.

5.1.1.3 3rd category: Negative impacts

This category was created deductively from the interviews and observations and it contains 5 different codes – (a) **respect and pride**, (b) **bad behaviour**, (c) **misinterpretation of the objectives**, (d) **absence at school** and (e) **disease**.

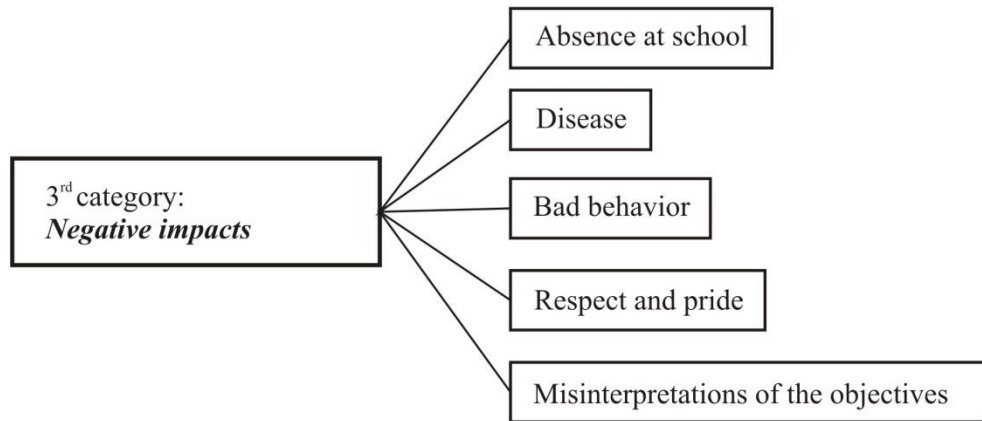


Figure 6. 3rd category with its codes – 1st subsidiary research question

It was very hard to talk about negative impact with the youths; they saw very little negative impact arising from participation in the international football tournaments. They perceived it mainly very positively. The negative impacts emerged while talking with the care-givers – especially teachers and coaches. One of the possible negative impacts in the form of respect and pride was described by participant TE9. According to him the disrespect and pride can be observed in some of the kids who come back from some international tournaments. After coming back the situation might be as in the following (according to this teacher, who here imitates such a teenager), “*Which system is this? When I was to Europe the system they are using is this and the team was winning. What are you telling me?*” [teacher talking as the teenager] *That’s the negative part of it, because he moved widely and cannot respect his coach. Because he is local coach. [...] The negative part of it again is pride. When one comes back here, becomes too proud, doesn’t want to listen anyone, because has been with the white people.”*

Coaches and teachers describe other possible negative impact coming from participation at the international tournaments. They explain that young people can learn **bad behaviours** abroad. While abroad they are exposed to situations, talk and behaviour that can be very new to them and which can be very negative as well as positive. Participant CG13 is saying, “*when you interact with other peers, you know, the peer pressure like some people are smoking and drinking alcohol and when they are youths, OK, so that kind, why don’t you also attempt to do it? Because I’ve seen some of*

the players, of course, taking opium [...] but they do not learn it from here.” Participant TE10 pointed out other possible problems, *“they tend to copy what is happening there. [...] I think that is only negative part of it, copying behaviours which may not apply in their country.”*

Coaches (CO11 and CO12) explain other negative side effects that happen with the youths from Uganda who go abroad. Some of the kids, if not well prepared, may **misinterpret the objectives** of the trip abroad. This can especially happen when the kids are travelling for the first time and they have never been outside their country before. During the trips they mainly discover countries that are better off and they may be very excited and they may not want to go back home. Coach CO11 explains, *“you can, you know imagine if you come from very poor place and I take you to spend a week in New York city or Amsterdam [...] you may think, hmm, I'd like to live in this place to rest of my life you know. Why do I have to go back to the place where I come from?”* The coaches agree on the importance of preparation before going abroad. Therefore they talk with the youths about the possible negative and positive effects the international tournament might have on them. Both of the coaches (CO11 and CO12) also mentioned that the youths should continue their hard work and be patient but that life has to continue after coming back home. *“You have to be patient ... and live life according to yourself and believe your hard work”* (participant CO11). *“You are going to see some wonderful places, some wonderful things but, you know, life must go on”* (participant CO12). All the trainers have to be aware of this possible negative aspect and the children should be prepared for some culture shock and be willing to return home after the tournament is finished. As teacher TE9 added, *“you can counsel them [...] make them know that if they are moving out, it's not the end. [...] It's the responsibility to come [back] and change these ones.”*

The last negative effect that was identified by coaches and teachers was the **absence at school**. The school year in Uganda is different from other countries and while the youths took part in the festival in South Africa, the school year was still going on. Therefore the children missed 2 weeks of classes shortly before the exam period. This also happened when the young Ugandan footballers were participating with TKL at different tournaments in Europe. Missing classes presents the main concern of the coaches and teachers of the kids involved with TKL at the international tournaments. One of the comments on this problem was made by teacher TE8. *“They move out during school time. For example those who have been to South Africa, they went when it*

was still the school time and they missed some exams.” Participant CO12 is the administrator of TKL and sees it similarly. “*The negative things are ... that ... that I see is that I’m always very concerned about taking them away from school.*”

The kids themselves did not identify anything negative concerning their participation at the international tournaments. Generally they were very excited about the participation. When we talked specifically about the FFH Festival they only mentioned that the whole team got cold because of the different weather in South Africa and they got sick. My observation confirms this claim. Therefore they were not able to perform at their best. The disease caused by the weather was therefore the only negative impact mentioned by the youths. Participant TA1(10) just commented that “*only that we had some problems. We just got sick, but we are really liking it. We are fine.*”

5.1.2 Results emerging from the second subsidiary research question³³

From the second research question four different categories were created, with several codes. The following figure 7 shows the categories and the codes. Each category with its codes is described, analyzed and discussed and concrete examples of quotations from the interviews are presented.

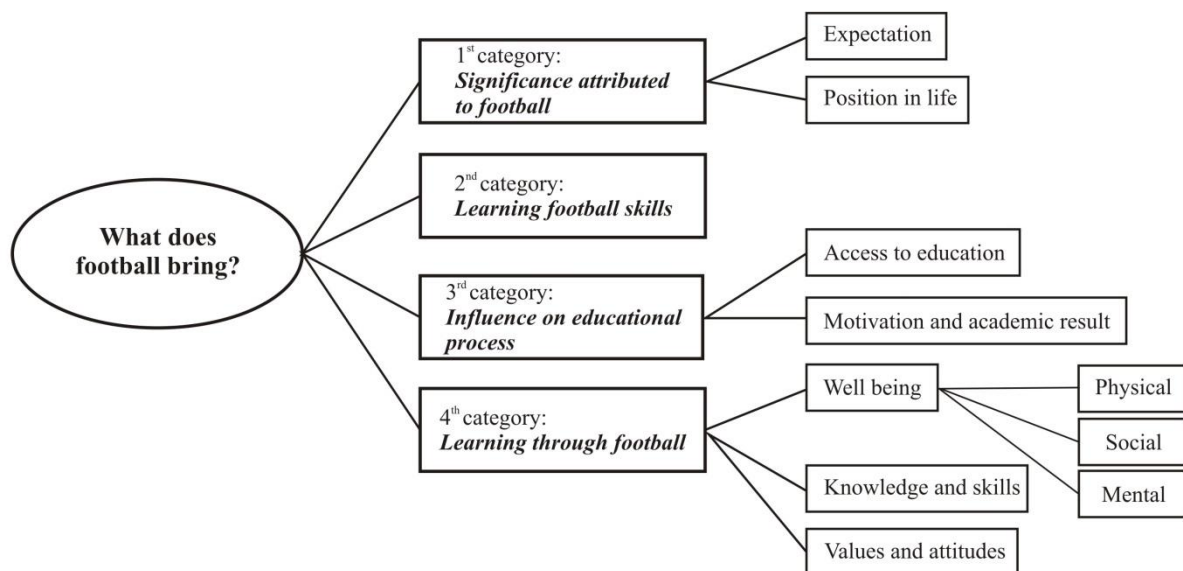


Figure 7. Categories and codes for the second subsidiary research question

³³ What does football itself bring to the personal development of each individual?

5.1.2.1 1st category: Significance attributed to football

When talking about football with the youths, it was very clear that they attribute to it a very important role in their personal lives. This category contains two different codes that explain the attribution given to football by the youths and their care-givers – (a) **position in life** and (b) **expectations**.



Figure 8. 1st category with its codes – 2nd subsidiary research question

Football has a very diverse **position in the life** of the researched population. It ranges from football being a hobby to football being everything in life. However, each expressed position is very important for each person. Participant TA1(10) said the following: „*Well, football as a whole has done a lot to me. [...] And now I am thinking that football is my life.*“ And participant TA5(10) added: „*Well, it’s one of my favourites ... I like it, that’s why I’m playing it. [...] It’s ... football, it’s like my leisure time, cause whenever I want to rest, I come and play soccer and I enjoy, laugh and this is the thing.*“ Also the care-givers commented on the position of football in the young people’s lives. Teacher TE8 mentioned in the discussion that the kids like playing because, „*they want it first of all for enjoyment.*“ Care-giver CG13 disclosed that, “*they play football because they have passion about it. They like it since their childhood*”.

The second code of **expectations** gets more concrete and it shows directly what is expected from football. The significance of football in life is getting even stronger and it is connected with a professional career in the future. Here, the connection to gender division is again pronounced as it is especially the researched boys who dream about being professionals and being famous and see their future in the national team. This code is very much connected to the code **exposure** described already in the previous part. Participant TA3 said that, “*afterwards I would like to be a professional player.*” Also participant TA4(10) used the same words to express his wish: “*I want to be a professional footballer because you know I love it and that’s taking much of my*

time.” Teacher TE8 also sees that his boys may want to become professional footballer because he was saying: *“they want to build up their career in football, because in The Kids League, some of the students who were here at the beginning of the Kids League, they are now in the Uganda national team.”* Trainer CO11 sees the expectations as a major problem saying that, *“they have very high expectations that football will do everything for them ... which is a big problem.”* However, it is necessary to mention that TKL’s aim is not to train future professional football stars. Its aim is to provide football and other sports as free time activities. In this case the role of all the care-givers is very important. Teacher TE10 said that it is necessary to combine school and football. *“At least at our college here ... because once you don’t go to class because of your football then you have no place here ... that’s why we encourage them to take both two talents ... you have to go to class, in the evening you go for training.”* The same is being done in TKL, the kids are encouraged to go to school and it is explained to them that football is not everything, as trainer CO11 confirmed: *“[We] try to talk to them and say that football is one of the ways that can help them change ... their life ... but it is not ... the only issue.”*

5.1.2.2 2nd category: Learning football skills

The second category created under the second question directly describes the specific skills that are needed to be taught in the first place when playing football. The category remains alone, without any specific codes. The research participants described the skills and knowledge that are linked directly to football performance and are necessary in order to perform well. Care-giver CG13 gave the following examples of the skills learnt. The youths learn *“One, the skills of playing football. OK. How do they ... you know ... handle the ball ... how do they, you know, manoeuvre, you know ... yeah to score, those skills, you know, the field skills when they’re in the field ... on the pitch.”* Coaches described the whole range of particular technical skills that are needed by a football player. Coach CO18 gave the following description: *“The technical skills involve a lot of different drills around – passing, dribbling, shooting, goal keeping and whatsoever assisting this kind of play and analysis.”* Coach CO17 continued and added that *“there are so many, even the skill of just control and the skill of kicking the ball. [...] You have to first read the ball, how the ball is coming...”* These technical skills were discussed as the first ones every time we talked about any skills connected to

football and the coaches emphasized that the sooner the child begins to learn these skills the better he or she can handle them.

5.1.2.3 3rd category: Influence on the educational process

This category aims to describe, analyze and discuss the connections found between football and the educational system. It is created by two different codes that emerged deductively from the research interviews – (a) **access to education** and (b) **motivation and academic results**.

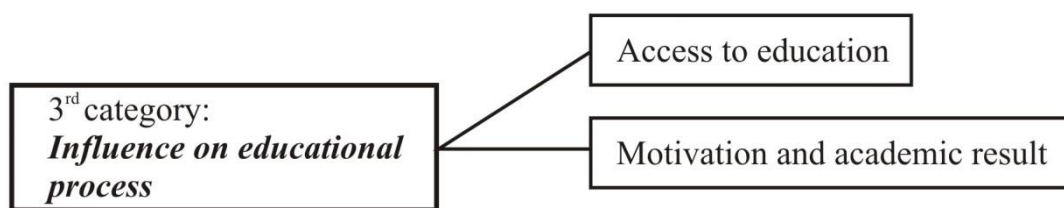


Figure 9. 3rd category with its codes – 2nd subsidiary research question

Playing football enables some of the kids to **access education**. The family situation (as mentioned in chapter 2.2 and 4) can be very difficult and not all kids can go to school in modern day Uganda. The youth literacy rate is only 87 % (WB, 2010). Playing football is one of the ways to have the school equipment, uniforms, and especially the fees, paid. The teenager plays football in the school team and his/her fees are paid by the school or college. Their parents therefore do not need to pay anything. The opportunity to have access to education this way was mentioned, especially by the boys and their care-givers. Participant TA1(10) confirms that, *“I don’t pay school fees, I have a scholarship.”* Participant TA3 also explained his family situation. *“I play football, there is only thing that I played football, yes, because, my parents couldn’t pay for my school fees. Because we had a big ... a bigger family, so I managed to get scholarships in several schools, since then I have been studying for free.”* Participant TA4(10) even explained that his parents hadn’t wanted him to play football but had changed their opinion. *“They [parents] never wanted me to play football ... they just wanted me to be at school [...] so ... me playing football has even helped them ... they’re just giving me the ability to go to school while playing soccer so....they’re not paying*

school fees, not doing anything [...] I think they're proud of me because I don't give them much burden.” Teacher TE8 also disclosed this topic. *“Some of those boys who live in the hostel here they came from very poor background, but because of football they have got now education, free of charge. The school is paying for their accommodation, because some of them are from very far, Gulu, Arua, Kitgum³⁴ [...] so I think they are benefiting from that.”* Girls did not mention it, because football is generally considered as a male domain in Uganda. Therefore the female teams are almost non-existent. Hence, gender plays an important role when arranging access to education through football.

The second code belonging to the above mentioned category is labelled as **motivation and academic results**. This code offers insight into the relationship between youth's football and their academic results. It is not possible to conclude (according to the interviews) whether football has had positive or negative impacts on the academic results of the young people. The opinions of the care-givers are ambivalent. As already mentioned above (category: *negative impact*, code: *absence at school*), due to football the youths miss some classes at school through training for the tournaments and therefore they have to catch up later. According to Bailey (2006) (already mentioned in chapter 2.1.1.1), sport and physical activity support cognitive development and therefore contribute to better academic results. This generalized narrative was also used by the care-givers. The word “academic/s” was used in the meaning of academic school results. Teacher TE9 said that the role of the individual's character was important in studying. *“The football motivates them more to study? [...] Hmm, generally it does not. That one works on individuals. Then the character comes in.”* Teacher TE10 added, *“of course, he has improved his academic. He's able to perform. You know, here we normally train in the evening, later after the classes, so because of his organization he's able to cope both, the academics and the football.”* The peer pressure also plays its role in the school, as noted by teacher TE8 when talking about the boys who play football. *“The results? They are average students and some are good. [...] I don't have anyone who is below average. [...] Their results are better because of playing football. One reason, because they are known, the school has three thousand students [...] so each one knows them. They want to know how they perform. So that makes them read hard.”* Today the trend is changing and therefore the

³⁴ Regions in the northern part of Uganda (close to the border with South Sudan)

footballers are aware of the need to be educated as said by participant CG13. “Now they are beginning to realize that, you know, not only football, but you need also to have knowledge, you need also to be educated...”

The direct influence on the educational process can be seen therefore in providing access to education for those who play football well. The school results might also be influenced but according to coaches and teachers it depends on each person’s character and also peer pressure.

5.1.2.4 4th category: Learning through football

The benefits gained for life that are learnt through football is the fourth category that emerged as a topic under the second subsidiary research question. In comparison to the previous category (*influence on educational process*) this one focuses on the outcomes that are achieved through playing football. Therefore this category does not take into account the educational system itself, and at the same time it does not consider the features connected directly to specific football knowledge and skills (as that is a separate category). Three codes were put into this category – (a) **well-being** that is divided into three different parts (physical, social and mental), (b) **knowledge and skills** and (c) **values and attitudes**.

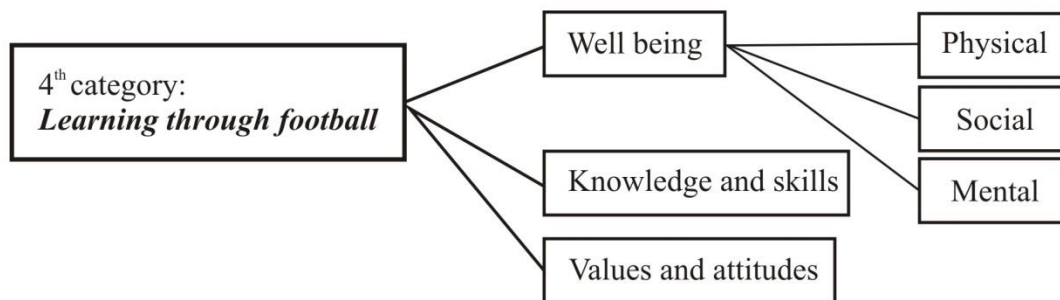


Figure 10. 4th category with its codes – 2nd subsidiary research question

The code **well-being** came out through the interviews when all the participants were asked about the different reasons they have for playing football, and about how football influences them. It is possible to divide this code into three interconnected areas. Bailey (2006) (in chapter 2.1.1.1) mentions similar areas also. The first was labelled as *physical well-being* and it could be compared to Bailey’s “individual

fitness". The youths mentioned that football keeps them healthy and fit. As participant TA2 expressed, *"it [football] gives you good health."* Participant TA5(10) added that, *"football has helped me to become fit, also physically fit because ... also I never get tired and I don't usually doze in classes."* The participants were aware of the physical impacts on their body. This was also confirmed by coach CO18 as he said, *"I have seen [...] great improvement, actually in terms of physical ... physical health."* **Social well-being** (Bailey's "social competence" in chapter 2.1.1.1) represents a very rich code. The social dimension of playing football was expressed very clearly in connection to the organization of KKL's and TKL's league where different social groups of people can meet. Meeting new people, bringing them together and making friends, were considered to be the important reasons for and influences of playing football. Participant TA1(10) expressed it in the following way: *"It was through football that I have made a lot of friends. [...] I am using football to make friends."* Parent PA14 noted that through football her daughter *"has got friends [...] and that football enabled [her] to get good friends instead of getting these bad ones that behave badly."* Teacher TE9 said that *"football can help them to be social"* and according to coach CO18 *"... if somebody comes from different destination, comes from a different school ... they now begin socializing ... easily they now begin making friends"*. The last area of well-being that belongs under this code is **mental well-being** (Bailey's affective development). It was not pronounced as clearly as the social area and it was particularly connected to the fact that football makes the youths busy and mentally fit. Parent PA14, when talking about her child, said that *"football makes her busy"*. Talking about the problems in Uganda, participant TA5(10) said that *"[football] makes you forget all about it."* Participant TA3 also stated that *"football has helped me not to join the bad groups ... like ... there are some groups who smoke, take drugs like alcohol ... cigarettes ... and they get addicted to those drugs. I don't wanna be like them."* Participant TA2 also expressed the view that football *"keeps you out of trouble."* Similar thoughts concerning the girls in Northern Uganda came out from coach CO21. *"Keeping them in sports sometime or training them like that makes them [...] busy concentrating on sport activities and peace building, not going to do other things out where girls can get spoiled, they may conceive at early age..."* Football might give the youths the space to rest mentally and forget about everyday problems and keep out of trouble. There were no negative impacts pronounced in connection to playing football itself. On the other hand all the negative

impacts attributed to football were mentioned only in connection with the international tournaments (category: *negative impacts*).

The second code created under the category “*learning through football*” was labelled as **knowledge and skills**. The research participants spoke about different learning outcomes that could come under the umbrella of gaining new knowledge and skills through football. The adults, especially, were able to name several new pieces of knowledge and acquired skills. Aside from specific football skills, trainers saw it as important that through football they can disseminate information about malaria and HIV/AIDS. This information is not directly connected to football but the football training sessions and tournaments are used as space to get across different messages. Trainer CO11 said that “*when we get to the fields we give an opportunity of talk time. When we are going to train the kids when we are training them, there is a time ... for talking ... before and sometimes after*”. Discipline was mentioned as one of the most important skills that the young people acquire through football. It was specifically mentioned by the care-givers. “*I think football can give them discipline*”, explained teacher TE9. Participant CO22 who used to play in TKL when he was teenager said that “*what I learned through football fist was discipline. Football helped me develop my discipline.*” Trainer CO18 said that “*discipline is something too paramount. [...] When one is disciplined you realize that the chances of one progressing to different levels in term of the game are very high. The children are taught to be disciplined through playing football. Trainers also acknowledged the way in which discipline is required. Children who are not disciplined are put aside and cannot play. “There are some indisciplined kids. [...] When he or she does not hear or understand the second time you put that child on bench,*” explained trainer CO19. Also time-keeping was mentioned as one of those skills acquired through football. Participant TA2 described the role football plays in learning teamwork: “*Being in team, you have to work with people, so it teaches you team work.*”

The last code that belongs to this category was named as **values and attitudes**. Under this code I put all the different values and attitudes that came out of the interviews. Here again, the statements of the adults in particular contributed to the creation of this code. The participants said that football gives them the chance to learn how to be both respectful and respected. The role of coach seems fundamental at this moment. Coach CO20 explained in her narrative that “*we tell them how they should respect one another, respect themselves ... and how to behave in the community.*”

Coach CO11 also mentioned respect as a value that *“they can get from playing football with other people. Playing football, wherever, there is a lot of respect, football gives that essence of respect into an individual.”* Coach CO7 when talking about the teenager said: *“When she joined sports ... it changed her life that she’s competing with other kids [...] that now respect her more than they used to respect her before.”* When playing football it is likely that they will encounter moments of disappointment and happiness. Participant TA2 explained that *“it’s also in football; you lose a game, so it teaches you disappointment as well as giving you happiness when you win.”* According to teacher TE9 football is still considered to be a male domain in Uganda, especially in traditional families. But nowadays people are starting to change their attitudes. *“We have different cultures here. One of the cultures like Buganda³⁵ culture ... in Buganda culture here, the typical Buganda never never wanted women to play men’s games. When they see now, girls are playing, they say hey that’s forgotten playing football ... but now things are changing.”* Hence, the stereotypes existing in the Ugandan society have been slowly changing via football.

This category aimed to explain how the youths and the care-givers perceive the role of football in the lives of the children. Football plays an important role in the life of every researched teenager. It starts as a hobby and finishes as being everything. It is even more important for the boys who see their future in football, which can be very problematic. But all of the individuals are encouraged to study and not only rely on football for their futures. Boys who are talented can get scholarship which enable them to study. Technical skills are taught to the kids in the first place. Other skills and knowledge are covered less intentionally through playing football. Kids are aware of their well-being and that they are acquiring new knowledge, skills, values and attitudes.

5.1.3 Results emerging from the third subsidiary research question³⁶

Results under this theme are directly connected to the first two previous subsidiary research questions and already take into account several existing categories. Here I have grouped together all the features that were assigned to have direct benefits

³⁵Subnational traditional kingdom in central Uganda

³⁶What transfers from the football experience into everyday life?

in everyday life. The categories therefore encompass the experience gained through football and the international encounters as explained in the previous parts. Figure 11 shows an overview of the categories and codes. Two different categories emerged from the analysis of the codes – **present** and **future**.

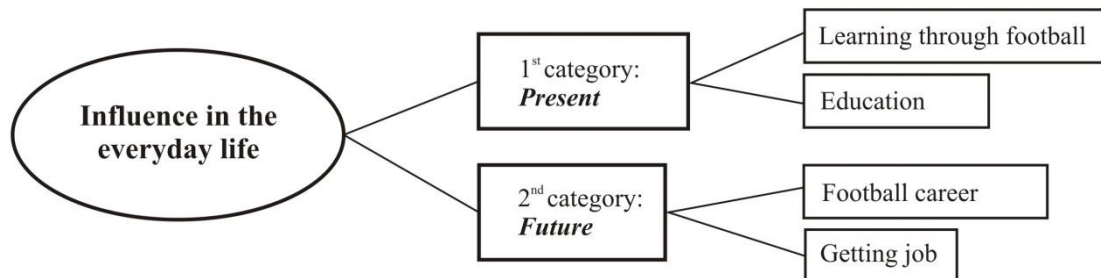


Figure 11. Categories and codes for the third subsidiary research question

5.1.3.1 1st category: Present

All the codes that have a direct impact on the present were placed in this category. I have identified two broad codes that encompass the transfer into everyday life – (a) **learning through football** and (b) **education**. The codes were already discussed and analysed but here I merge the international experience with the experience of football itself, into the higher level.

Learning through football happens in formal and informal ways. Well-being is influenced and the youths acquire new knowledge and skills, foster their values and cultivate attitudes. This process leads to changes in life and develops empowerment. Through formal means the youths can get new knowledge about the different diseases and protection against them. Informally the youths (and also their parents) get to know each other when participating in the league and therefore contacts through different social, religious and ethnic groups are made. Through the international tournaments the youths started to personally learn about different cultures, they made new contacts and gained a new perception of the world. The FFH Festival proved to be a good tool for intercultural and global education. Participant TA5(10) who was travelling for the first time outside Uganda described the South African experience here in the following way. *“I have even learnt some other languages. [...] I’ve never eaten something like that it was OK ... I was surprised [...] it even shocked me to see that the other places we are*

going really have other kinds of things I've never experienced. They told me the kinds of things what other countries do and what they don't do [...] I get know to ... like ... how they behave themselves.“ Through such encounters intercultural and global awareness is fostered. Building self-confidence through football was another important outcome that directly transfers to everyday life. Participant TA1(10) said, in connection to playing football in the international tournaments that, *“it has given me the confidence that however much you are in a situation where you feel you are down, like, you feel, you are unprivileged, you can still go, you can still make it. Because we have had teams, with much more problems than we have and in the beginning we used to think our problems were worse than all the other problems, but then it is quite different. However much you have a problem ... we now have the confidence that problems can be solved.”* Coach CO18 expressed the opinion that the youths learn how to control themselves in football which directly influences their behaviour in everyday life. *“You realize these boys and girls get the skills which actually help them to control, then begin knowing how to control their tempers, which is so healthy.”* Another feature mentioned by the youths was that their family also profited from their travel abroad. Even though it only lasts a short time participant TA5(10) considered the outcome to be important. *“Well my family is lifted up [...] They started giving us some respect.”* The situation in football was compared to the situation in life and teacher TE9 said that through playing in different systems *“they can learn how to approach different situations in their lives.”* The value of respect was already mentioned in the previous text in connection to football. The border line between respect and disrespect is very thin and it depends on the personal character of the child and the intervention of the care-givers if the youths are taught respect or disrespect. Being a role model for the other children in the school or in the community also has a direct impact on the everyday lives of the youths. The South African experience also encouraged other kids, as explained by coach CO15. *“So getting the opportunity to go to South Africa, it encouraged other kids and for her, she was ... this was the first stay and a dream.”* Coach CO11 gave a similar example when saying that *“they can become leaders within their societies by using the cooperative skills that they have acquired from football.”*

Education was already mentioned in before. The direct impact of football on everyday life can be seen in the mediating role of accessing education. I see this impact as a positive one in their long-term personal development. The selected participants are able to access the educational system because their costs are paid by the school. On the

other hand only the talented players have this possibility. The negative impact of playing football is connected to absence in the classes at school. Ambivalent impacts were discovered on school results. I did not find any consensus when talking about this topic with the research participants. In order to attain good school results the role of the care-givers and each person's character was emphasized.

5.1.3.2 2nd category: Future

This category was created because there was a hope expressed in the interviews that football can facilitate future jobs for the children. This category is connected to the code expectation and exposure as discussed in previous parts. Here in this chapter in connection to the third subsidiary research question, I argue that the research participants see their future facilitated by football in two ways – (a) **professional football** and (b) **other jobs facilitated through the football experience**.

The topic of **professional football** has already been debated (category: *significance attributed to football*; code: *expectation*). The hopes and dreams of being professional players exist among the youths, especially for the males the international tournaments are taken as opportunities to gain exposure. These feelings have to be tackled very carefully by the care-givers because it depends on them to what extent the youths will only see their future in football. The preparation before going abroad is also emphasised by the coaches, as coach CO11 states: *“It is important that in the organizations ... like me ... as I said ... we are delivered to talking with these children and so that we prepare them ... for these negative aspects of the trips and also the positive aspects of the trips.”*

If they do not directly see the youths' futures in football the research participants hope that they can acquire **other jobs facilitated through the football experience**. They hope that the football experience might help them to find other possibilities for employment because the footballers are known in the Ugandan society and therefore they are privileged. Participant TE8 expressed the following view: *“They can now even start coaching. They can make money out of it, playing and they are paid or they go for coaching courses and then they are paid or they go for refereeing. So there are so many opportunities. Coaching, refereeing, playing. [...] Not only in football, even other jobs ... they can acquire anyway. Because, let me give an example. If you go for an interview and you were even a footballer and you are known and there is me who has not been*

playing football, we have the same qualification, yet here in Uganda the footballer will get the job first.” Coach CO11 confirmed that being a former footballer made it easier to find the job and gave the example of one of TKL’s former members. *“So he was given an opportunity by the Uganda revenue authority because he was a football player. Another one is an engineer.”*

5.2 Thematic analysis one year after the festival

Here, in this subchapter I present a very short analysis of the interviews with three participants whom I was able to meet and interview one year after the FFH Festival. Due to time constraints and logistical problems I could interview only three out of six. These were participants TA1(11), TA4(11) and TA5(11) (see Table 1). These three interviews were not included in the previous analysis. In this analysis I again describe, analyse and discuss the results in relation to the subsidiary research questions 1³⁷ and 3³⁸. The codes were created deductively. At the same time I have to acknowledge that the research sample is very small and I cannot make any generalizations.

The results that have emerged from the thematic analysis are presented in the following paragraphs. I stayed at the level of codes because the research sample is very small. The codes that were created from 2011 data and based on the experience from the FFH Festival in 2010 are the following – **memories of FFH, football skills and learning through the tournament.**

All three participants had very positive **memories** connected with the FFH Festival. They liked it very much. The festival was fun for them and they shared their memories, especially about the people from Alexandra, about the fair play rules, the World Cup match they attended live, the weather and the festival schedule. As mentioned in chapter 2.1.3.2 each football delegation had its own volunteer who was helping with the organization of the team. The majority of volunteers were local people from Johannesburg and especially from Alexandra. Through these volunteers the FFH participants had the opportunity to get in touch with the locals in Alexandra. Participant TA1(11) remembered that *“they were very welcoming and they liked football.”* He was

³⁷ What does the experience from international football tournaments bring to the personal development of each individual?

³⁸ What transfers from the football experience into everyday life?

very surprised when back in Uganda they were told that Alexandra is one of the poorest townships in Johannesburg. As he said “*we didn’t see that in the time when we went to South Africa because they [people in Alexandra] are really happy people. They didn’t show it to us. [...] They were just excited about everything and we too got excited about them.*” The fair play rules were another feature that the participants remembered and they found them important for the whole atmosphere of the tournament. As participant TA4(11) explained, “*it was our first time to play such a tournament. [...] It was very different compared to ones we are playing.*” As they had the discussion meetings before the game where they had to introduce themselves it was easier to get to know the other young people. Participant TA1(11) especially liked “*the fact that we make the rules.*” On the other hand he also noted aspects of the fair play rules he did not like. “*When we disagree on that rule ... sometime it’s a problem ... but you have to take it ... because it was meant to be like that [...] Sometimes it does favour the other team.*” They started to compare the fair play rules and the whole festival to different tournaments and to the regular football rules. They found it very different. Once back from South Africa only participant TA1(11) used the fair play rules in his home district in the Northern Uganda but later in Kampala he gave up. He gave the following reason for not using the fair play rules. “*I don’t have friends I could play with ... It’s always with my club... but the club it is always business.*” Here, the distinction between the festival and the football club is expressed clearly. This participant acknowledged that the reality in the football club is different to the FFH Festival. Another important memory that emerged in the interviews was the fact that all the FFH participants had the chance to watch one World Cup match. They found it very important to see their role models in reality on the pitch. Participant TA5(11) said that during the match she could see “*even the volley ability of these star players like Iniesta, Messi ... those ones seeing them by your own eyes ... it’s really interesting.*” Participant TA4(11) appreciated that “*even I got a chance to watch my role model in football ... it’s Fernando Torres.*” The weather was mentioned again because due to it they got ill. The same result was found in the previous analysis (code *disease*). Participant TA4(11) said: “*We fell sick ... I remember.*” Participant TA5(11) noted that “*the bad thing about South Africa was the weather ... the weather that’s all.*” Participant TA1(11) especially did not like the schedules. In his opinion the schedules were very tight. Due to the programme visits, and the fact that tournament location and the location of accommodation were far away from each other, FFH participants have to be transported almost every day. Participant TA1(11) explained it in the following

words. *“What I didn’t like honestly was before the ... the football ... there was a tight schedule of travelling; moving places ... it was ... it tires someone. [...] We could go in the morning and come back later in the evening ... we were not given time to rest.”* All the three teenagers were positive about the FFH Festival. The only negatives they described were the weather, mentioned already in 2010, and the tight schedule that appeared as a new negative effect pronounced by the FFH participants.

Football skills represented the second code that emerged from the data. Participant TA1(11) said that *“football wise I learnt teamwork. [...] Like the boys we thought we could do all the things ... we needed the girls as well ... you know ... so it was ... we didn’t have the time to again prepare the girls and do ... like become a team.”* Here it was acknowledged that the boys needed the girls in the team because without them they wouldn’t have been able to play but at the same time there was not enough time to become a team. The code **gender** above in chapter 5.1.1 describes the situation between the teenagers in the Ugandan group. Participant TA1(11) added that he learnt *“skill wise not that much.”* This statement is in complete opposition with the facts that were expressed by the female participant TA5(11). She was travelling for the first time abroad and could compare herself to foreign youths. Concerning her football skills she noted that *“I gained confidence since we were playing amongst boys. Now when I came back here I used to play confidently. I am playing with other skills in the game.”* The fact that she could compare herself with the boys was important in her case.

The last code that emerged from the data was labelled **learning through the tournament**. The participants met new friends and they shared their own life experiences as participant TA5(11) described when talking about her new friend from Senegal. *“She used just to tell me about the things in their country ... and I was also ... I was also able to tell her about the things that happen in our country.”* During the cultural presentations and informal talks the participants gained new knowledge about each other. This feature was already described in the previous chapters (5.1.1 under the category **learning through the tournaments**) and the interviewees just repeated the same in 2011. Participant TA1(11) also emphasized that *“it was meant to make friends and we made friends. [...] The most important part of the festival was not on the pitch to me ... It was in the conversations, bringing the teams together.”* These interviewees, one year after 2010, stayed in touch with their friends via email or facebook. Participant TA5(11), when talking about the new friends said *“when in the future I get a chance to go to these countries and I get a chance to meet them they can help me to ... get what I*

want in that country.” This idea of meeting the friends in the future and using the contacts, has been described before in the general thematic analysis (chapter 5.1). Participants also said that they acquired new knowledge through the different workshops they participated in during the Football for Hope Festival. Participant TA5(11) said: “I went in for art. [...] For me I learnt how to operate the graphics in art ... just the best colours, to design colours and that stuff.” Participant TA4(11) shared the experience from a different workshop. “I learned how to operate photography. [...] and now I can now operate photocopying, editing.”

5.3 Two case studies

In this subchapter I describe in detail two selected teenagers. This chapter is in the form of two case studies – participant TA1(10,11) and TA6. It was possible to include 2 carers for each of them in each case study as explained in the following figure 12. I describe here these two case studies in order to be able to provide more detailed information about the selected participants and discuss more precisely the role of football in their lives. I chose one male and one female participant.

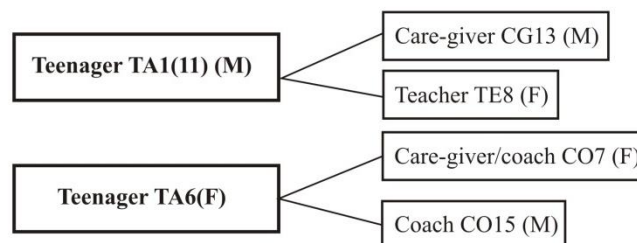


Figure 12. Distribution of the children and their care-givers

5.3.1 Specific case study – PARTICIPANT TA1(10, 11)

Participant TA1(10,11)³⁹, who was interviewed twice – in 2010 and 2011, is 17 years old, comes from Northern Uganda and therefore has to live in a hostel in Kampala. He has four siblings and he is the oldest. He goes to secondary school, where he was able to get a scholarship due to playing football for the school team. He was the

³⁹ When generally talking about this teenager without direct connection to a specific year I use in chapter 5.3.1 the abbreviation TA1.

captain of the Ugandan team during the FFH Festival. It was not his first trip abroad. He has already participated in other tournaments in Europe.

Football plays a very important role in his life. He is aware of the fact that through football he can get the scholarship paid because he said *“I don’t pay school fees I have scholarship.”* The same was confirmed by his teacher TE8, *“because of football they now have education free of charge.”* He also added that the boys *“want to build up their careers in football.”* Care-giver CG13 stated that the boys want to follow their role models, *“they’ve been inspired. So they also want to be the same as these footballers.”* He explained that through football the boys can learn to be disciplined, *“because in football, I believe, it’s only the football way, discipline is exhibited.”*

Both the teacher TE8 and the carer CG13, noted that the international experience made the boys more humble and they had the opportunity to learn from the others. Care-giver CG13 was able to mention some negative sides too – mainly peer pressure and the import of bad behaviour. *“When you interact with other peers, you know the pressure like some people are smoking and drinking alcohol [...] but they don’t learn it from here.”* The participant TA1(10) increased considerably his cultural and global awareness, because when talking about the FFH Festival he stressed that *“we have learned at least each, from each and every country, they have a problem, not only Uganda.”*

Concerning school results CG13 said that TA1 is one of the best students in the hostel but did not explain any direct connection with the school results. On the other hand teacher TE8 said the TA1 is average at school but as he is known in the school he has to perform well because everyone is interested in his results. Teacher TE8 added that *“my only problem is travelling during college, when it is still school time.”*

According to teacher TE8 participant TA1 could use the experience from football in coaching, refereeing and playing football and earn money this way. He emphasized that *“here in Uganda football get you a job fast”*, because footballers are known and *“they cannot fail to get jobs.”*

The interview with this participant was repeated one year the FFH Festival. He mainly talked about the people from Alexandra and their approach to life. He stated, *“they were ... most of them were poor ... but we didn’t see that at the time we went to South Africa because they’re really happy people.”* He mentioned the fair play rules and in 2011 was able to see their positive and negative sides. *“The fact that we make the rules”*, was mentioned as positive, but on the other hand *“sometimes it does favour the*

other team ... to some extent.” He applied the rules successfully back in Uganda in his home district. But the same was not possible in the football club in Kampala because *“the club is always business.”* It is possible to conclude here that this participant is aware of the difference between professional football and the FFH Festival that emphasized learning through football. He concluded that thanks to this experience he was able to change his thinking. *“No, I am not lazy as I was before and the reason I was lazy in the past was because I thought my problems could make me lazy ... I don’t have this ‘I can’t go’ I used this like an excuse.”*

5.3.2 Specific case study – PARTICIPANT TA6

Participant TA6 is 15 years old, has her own mother, one brother and sister, but she does not live with them. At the time of the research she was living at the orphanage. She goes to primary school. In 2010 she travelled abroad for the first time in her life to play at the FFH Festival in South Africa. This participant has a physical disability. As noted in my field notes, at the beginning of our conversation she was shy, but she became more open with time.

According to her, TKL and football facilitated the encounter with other people who have the same kind of handicap, as she noted: *“I got to know different people. I thought that I was the only one with disability but when I went to KKL I found more people with disabilities even more than mine.”* She and her care-givers agreed on the fact that football has changed her life as her abilities and competencies have been enhanced and therefore her confidence has increased. She explained: *“...before doing football I could not walk because I have a problem with my leg. [...] but after joining it [TKL] ...I go to friends, sponsors, so it paid for my artificial leg, so I have it now I can play well.”* The same was confirmed by her care-giver CO15, *“now she has that self-esteem [...] she thinks she is like the other children in the world. I think that’s really helped to get rid of the stigma of thinking that she can’t do anything. ... She has started to open herself.”* This trainer talked about her as a role model for others and about the possible use in her life of the skills she has learned. *“She can use those skills to encourage other children with disabilities [...] she normally teaches young girls how to pass the ball, how to dribble, and I think that with the skills she has gained in sports she will be able to survive in the world.”* Her care-giver CO7 agreed that football *“improved her life. [...] This disability is not inability; [she] is real able. [...] She’s a role model to the others and to Kampala Kids League.”*

The trip to South Africa for the festival was her first time abroad. Both her care-givers agreed that having a passport was a very important moment for her. TA6 emphasized that *“they [her family] have never travelled, so in my family I am the only one to travel. So they are happy for me.”* According to CO15 the fact that she could travel to South Africa *“encouraged other kids, and she was the first who had this step – a dream.”* She became aware of the differences between Uganda and South Africa (as already explained in categories expression of significance and learning through the tournament) and she had the opportunity to encounter other kids and compare herself with them. The only negative aspect that was mentioned in connection to South Africa and the tournament was the fact that participant TA6 missed classes at school.

Both her care-givers mentioned her school results too. They said that the results had got better but they were not able to explain the direct influence between playing football and the academic improvements. Coach CO15 stated that *“she started to open up and because of physical exercise she is ... you know when you are fit, even your mind is also fit.”* CO7 mentioned that in the future *“they [TKL] can help her to search for a job and then from the experience she has she can go ahead and teach other kids in that.”*

Through football and other sport activities TA6 improved her life skills such as self-esteem and communication. She became a role model for her peers as they started to respect her.

5.4 Closure of the chapter 5

This chapter provided results of the research and discussed them. All these results are taken together in the following chapter 6 which provides the final conclusions and refers back to the research questions and the theoretical background.

6 Conclusion

This chapter is devoted to the final conclusions of the thesis. All the results are brought together here in order to answer the principal research question and make a connection to the theory.

As already explained in the conceptual framework (chapter 2) the word *development* might be very controversial, especially within development studies. Here in the thesis its understanding was narrowed down to the personal development of the researched population. Nevertheless, I also connect my research results to *development* itself in the final conclusions as it is appropriate within the framework of the concept of “*sport and development*”.

According to my research results football plays a very important role in the life of the young people who participated in the research. This fact was confirmed by all the research participants (young people, coaches, parents, teachers and carers). Mainly the boys were able to get access to education through playing football for the school clubs. Here the gender difference becomes evident for the first time. It is also evident when talking about the future; the boys in particular want to become professional footballers and they have big expectations that might never come true. On the other hand the girls also mentioned other options such as being a coach or a referee. Even though the boys see their future in a professional career they are aware that education is important because it is very much emphasized by the TKL coaches. The influence on academic results is ambivalent. Due to football the youths often miss classes and have to catch up on them later. On the other hand, as they are observed by their peers, they are motivated to have good results. Therefore none of the researched young people had results below the average. All the participants were aware of the positive effects football has on youth health. They talked also about the social connections that are established through playing the game and about the fact that football can keep young people out of trouble. These areas were named as well-being (physical, social and mental) in the analysis. These three areas can be compared to Bailey’s fundamental areas (chapter 2.1.1.1) – (a) individual fitness, (c) affective development and (d) social competences. The influence on cognitive development (e) was found to be ambivalent. The connection to (b) lifestyle was not pronounced as clearly as the others. Nonetheless, the lifestyle of the young people is influenced by gaining new knowledge, football and life skills, attitudes

and values, through playing football. In particular discipline, confidence, team work, respect, and a change of stereotypes were mentioned. The role of coaches seems fundamental in cultivating these issues.

Concentrating on the international experience and its influence on the life of the young people, possible positive as well as negative influences were found and discussed. The fact of playing abroad was connected to certain changes in their lives, to the opportunity to have exposure (connected very much to high expectations from football) and also to empowerment. The young people considered themselves as ambassadors who represent Uganda abroad and they became role models for their peers at school. Through the FFH Festival they gained new knowledge and contacts and they started to become aware of the global differences among different countries. They compared their own situation to the situation in South Africa and they acknowledged that problems also exist in other places, not only in Uganda. Through the FFH Festival their global and cultural awareness (as defined in chapter 2.1.6) increased. The negative influences were more difficult to find. The youths saw almost nothing negative in playing football and being abroad. The negatives were mainly pronounced by the care-givers. During the FFH Festival and just after it the youths only mentioned that they became ill. This issue was the only negative feature for them. One year later the participants saw it a little bit more critically. One participant added, for instance, that the schedule was tight. The care-givers started to name some possible negative effects from the beginning. Absence at school was mentioned again and they also added that the youths can learn bad behaviour abroad, they can become too proud and if not treated properly they might misinterpret the objectives of the international event. Therefore the preparation of the young people before leaving the country is very important.

If I now come back to the personal development defined in the second chapter (2.1.1.1.2) as positive changes in the structure of the system of mental processes, conditions and characteristics originating in the socialization and restructuring of inherent qualities of an individual (Kohoutek, 2000; Smékal, 2004), I can conclude that certainly there are positive changes in the lives of the young people that were achieved through football. Their identity was improved (e. g. see code *empowerment*), their abilities were enhanced (e. g. category *learning football skills*, code *well-being*) and also the creation of skills for possible future professions was discovered (e. g. code *knowledge and skills* and code *values and attitudes*).

Gould and Carson (2008a, 59) use the term PYD – positive youth development, defined as “*development of diverse competencies that can help a young person in sport, in their current life and/or in their future*”. Taking this definition into account the following conclusion can be made. Football was proved to provide access to education, especially in the cases of the researched boys, as they do not need to pay scholarship at their secondary schools. The young people who participated in the FFH Festival also became role models in the current life of their communities. They can be the source of motivation for their peers (see e. g. specific case study 5.3.2).

Through the whole research the role of the care-givers was emphasized because they provide guidance to the youths and they can help them to transfer the skills gained in football into everyday life.

Coming back to the word *development* itself and the understanding proposed by Chambers (1997) and Sen (199), who see the human being as a core agent of *development*, it is possible to conclude that the TKL’s youths choices were enlarged, they were able to gain new knowledge through football and the FFH Festival and therefore their personal freedoms can get bigger.

As a following study some longitudinal research in the form of follow up interviews with the current participants will be appropriate in this case.

6.1 Limits of the research

This qualitative research encounters some challenges as already mentioned in chapter 2 and 4. I approached and explained all of them and I made clear my own biases through the whole text. However, I am aware of the fact that my conclusions are valid only for the researched population and they cannot be generalised to a global extent.

7 Summary

This dissertation is devoted to the topic of sport and its use in the *development* field. As it a new and emerging area in academic literature, the concept of “*sport and development*” is defined at the beginning of the thesis and its characteristics and historic evolution are described. Within this concept sport is used as a tool that is intended to contribute to the achievement of other aims (e. g. reduction of poverty, access to education, psycho-social aid, conflict resolution...), mainly in so-called developing countries. Sport is therefore seen as a possible new engine for *development* by some experts. On the other hand there are other scholars who view the use of sport more critically and they call for more academic research in the field. Football is one of the sports most often used within this concept. There are many organizations worldwide that harness football as a tool, while working with unprivileged and marginalized youths.

This thesis is focused on the role of football in the personal development of youths. The research was carried out with the people who are involved in the activities of The Kids League (TKL). TKL is a local NGO in Uganda that uses sport (mainly football) as a tool in working with different communities. They especially work in Kampala and Northern Uganda. TKL regularly participates in international tournaments with its teenagers. In 2010 they participated in the Football for Hope Festival in South Africa that was organized as an integral part of the Football World Cup. This festival provided the opportunity for young people to meet their peers from all around the world and share their experiences and life stories. Football was just used as a tool to connect people and contribute to their development.

Qualitative research methodology was chosen in order to answer the principal research question: “*What is the role of football in the personal development of children?*” This question was broken down into three subsidiary research questions focusing on (1) the experience from the international football tournaments, on (2) the football itself and on (3) the transfer of the skills gained into everyday life. There were teenagers who went to South Africa, along with parents, teachers and coaches of the TKL among the 22 research participants. Data collection (observation, interviews and focus group) were carried out in 2010 and 2011. The data were analysed with the use of thematic analysis and therefore different categories and codes were created.

Positive as well as negative effects of football on the personal development of the youths were found. The youths were less critical than their care-givers. Football plays a very important role in their lives. Boys in particular connect their future to a professional football career and have big expectations. Football also provides access to education for some of the young people and they can gain new knowledge, skills and values, and change their attitudes through football. In particular discipline, respect and confidence were found. Through the participation in the international football tournaments the youths had exposure to the outside world, were empowered and became role models for their peers at home. Thanks to the meetings with young people from all around the world their intercultural and global awareness improved. The care-givers were able to also see the negative aspects of the international tournaments. They named absence at school, the possibility to learn bad behaviour and become disrespectful and misinterpretation of the objectives. Therefore the role of the care-givers was seen as important and also the preparation of the young people before going abroad.

8 Souhrn

Tato disertace se zabývá tématem sportu a jeho možným využitím v oblasti rozvoje. Jedná se o nové téma, které se pomalu začíná objevovat i v akademické literatuře. Úvod práce se věnuje definování konceptu *sportu a rozvoje* a popisuje jeho charakteristické prvky a historický vývoj. V rámci tohoto konceptu se sport používá pouze jako nástroj a jeho cílem je přispět k řešení tzv. rozvojových problémů (například snížení chudoby, přístup ke vzdělávání, psychosociální pomoc, řešení konfliktů...) především v tzv. rozvojových zemích. Někteří odborníci vnímají sport v oblasti rozvoje jako nový nástroj, který by mohl přispět k řešení rozvojových problémů. Druhá skupina odborníků se k využívání sportu staví více kriticky a domnívá se, že je nutné realizovat více akademických výzkumů, které by popisovaly vlivy jednotlivých sportovních rozvojových projektů. V rámci tohoto konceptu se nejčastěji využívá fotbal. Celosvětově existuje velké množství organizací, pro něž je fotbal nástrojem při práci se znevýhodněnou a vyloučenou mládeží.

Výzkum v disertaci se specificky zaměřuje na roli fotbalu v osobnostním rozvoji mládeže a jeho účastníky byli lidé, kteří mají zkušenosti se sportovními aktivitami organizace The Kids League (TKL). TKL je místní ugandská nezisková organizace, která využívá sport (především fotbal) jako nástroj při práci s různými komunitami. Její programy se realizují hlavně v Kampale a v severní Ugandě. TKL se také se svou mládeží pravidelně zúčastňuje mezinárodních fotbalových turnajů. V roce 2010 tak byl tým TKL jedním z 32 týmů účastnících se tzv. „Festivalu pro naději“ (*Football for Hope*), který se konal v Jihoafrické republice jako součást fotbalového mistrovství světa. Pro zúčastněnou mládež byl tento festival možností, jak se setkat se svými vrstevníky z celého světa a sdílet tak své životní zkušenosti a příběhy. Cílem tohoto setkání bylo přispět k rozvoji mládeže prostřednictvím fotbalu.

K zodpovězení hlavní výzkumné otázky (*Jaká je role fotbalu v osobnostním rozvoji mládeže?*) byl zvolen kvalitativní výzkumný design. Hlavní otázka byla rozdělena na 3 podotázky, které zkoumaly (1) zkušenosti z mezinárodních fotbalových turnajů, (2) roli samotného fotbalu a (3) přenos dovedností získaných ve fotbale do každodenního života. Mezi 22 účastníků výzkumu byli zahrnuti jedinci, kteří se účastnili Festivalu pro naději, a dále rodiče, učitelé a trenéři, kteří mají zkušenosti s TKL. Sběr dat (pozorování, rozhovory a ohnisková skupina) probíhal v roce 2010 a

2011. Při analýze těchto nasbíraných dat byla využita tematická analýza, během níž byly vytvořeny různé kategorie a kódy, které slouží jako odpovědi na výzkumné otázky.

Při analýze dat byly nalezeny pozitivní i negativní vlivy fotbalu na osobnostní rozvoj mládeže. Při výzkumu se ukázalo, že mládež je mnohem méně kritická než rodiče, učitelé a trenéři. Všichni se však shodli na tom, že fotbal hraje velmi významnou roli v životě všech jedinců. Především kluci vidí svoji budoucnost v profesionálním fotbale a mají velká očekávání, že dosáhnou profesionální kariéry. Někteří jedinci díky fotbalu získali stipendium a tím přístup ke vzdělání, což by si jinak jejich rodiče nemohli dovolit. Prostřednictvím fotbalu mládež získává nové znalosti, dovednosti a hodnoty a také může dojít ke změně postojů. Účastníci zmiňovali především osvojení disciplíny, schopnost respektovat ostatní a být respektován a zvýšení sebevědomí. Díky účasti na mezinárodních turnajích se mohli jednotlivci zviditelnit na světové úrovni, posílit svou vlastní osobnost (*to be empowered*) a stát se vzory pro vrstevníky ve své komunitě. Jejich interkulturní znalosti a dovednosti byly posíleny a festival také přispěl ke zlepšení jejich znalostí o světě a uvědomění si globálních souvislostí. Negativní stránky fotbalu a účasti na mezinárodních turnajích byly zmíněny především rodiči, učiteli a trenéry. Patří mezi ně neúčast ve škole, získání špatných návyků, pýcha či nepochopení cílů při účasti na zahraničním turnaji. V těchto případech je velmi důležitá role všech opatrovníků, kteří zasahují do života mládeže. Před odjezdem na zahraniční turnaj je také nutné jednotlivce dobře připravit na to, co je čeká tak, aby byli schopni se vrátit domů.

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10 Annexes

ANNEX 1 – List of the organizations participating in the Football for Hope Festival in South Africa (2010)

ANNEX 2 – Example of the research interviews

ANNEX 3 – Focus group guide

ANNEX 1 – List of the organizations participating in the Football for Hope Festival in South Africa (2010)

Africa (13 delegations)

- Team Alexandra (Play Soccer) – South Africa
- Team South Africa (Altus Sport and WhizzKids United) – South Africa
- Coaching for Hope – Mali
- Diambars – Senegal
- Espérance – Rwanda
- Grassroot Soccer – South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe
- Kick4Life – Lesotho
- Mathare Youth Sports Association – Kenya
- Moving the Goalposts – Kenya
- Search and Groom – Nigeria
- Special Olympics – Botswana, Mauritius, Namibia, South Africa
- The Kids League – Uganda
- Team Zambia (BSA, BUSA, KSC and Kalusha Bwalya Foundation) – Zambia

Americas (8 delegations)

- A Ganar Ser Paz (Fundación de las Américas para el Desarrollo and Ser Paz) – Ecuador
- Colombianitos – Colombia
- Team Brazil (EPROCAD and Formação) – Brazil
- Uruguay (Gurises Unidos and Mundo Afro) – Uruguay
- Red Chilena de Fútbol Callejero (Chigol, Fundación Educere, PuntaGol) – Chile
- Red Paraguaya de Partidi (CDI and partners) – Paraguay
- Selección Nacional de Argentina (Defensores del Chaco, Granja Andar, Club 25 de Mayo, Cre-Arte, CDC Bongiovanni and Escuela de Deportes Alumni) – Argentina
- Team USA (Starfinder Foundation and Soccer in the Streets) – USA

Asia and Middle East (3 delegations)

- Magic Bus – India
- Spirit of Soccer – Cambodia
- The Peace Team (The Peres Center for Peace, Al Quds Association) – Israel, Palestine

Europe (6 delegations)

- Dads Against Drugs – England
- Football Friends – Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, Serbia
- German Street Football Network (KICKFAIR and partners) – Germany
- Sport Against Racism Ireland – Republic of Ireland, Northern Ireland
- Sport dans la Ville – France
- Street League – England

Oceania (2 delegations)

- Football United – Australia
- Tahiti Football Federation – Tahiti

ANNEX 2 – Example of the semi-structured interviews done within the research

EXAMPLE OF THE QUESTIONS FOR CHILDREN:

1. Describe for me what it is like for you to be here (South Africa)
2. What is football for you?
3. How is it to travel to other countries? How is it for you to go abroad?
4. What did it change for you?
5. How do you feel here (South Africa)?
6. Why do you play football?
7. How can you use your experience from football in the future?
8. How does football influence your life?
9. Why did you join the organisation?
10. What do you like the most about the organisation?
11. Why do you play football? Are your parents glad that you are here? What about your friends at home?
12. Is football important for you? What would you do differently if you were not playing football?
13. Describe your team.
14. Describe for me a typical day when you are on the team.

EXAMPLE OF THE QUESTIONS FOR PARENTS AND OTHER CARE-GIVERS:

During the interviews there were slight changes and other questions were added in order to make the answers clear and deeper.

1. Describe your child.
2. Why does s/he play football?
3. How do you see the role of football in his/her life?
4. Why do you think s/he likes to play?
5. Why did s/he start?
6. What has football changed in his/her life?
7. How can your child use this experience in the future?
8. How was your child before starting to play and after?
9. Why did your child join the organisation?
10. How does the organisation influence your family?
11. What do you know and think about the activities of the organisation?
12. What do you like/dislike about the organisation?
13. What could be done better?
14. Were there any changes in your child after s/he returned from South Africa?
15. Which positives and negatives can you see in travelling abroad?
16. What do you think about the team distribution in the organisation?
17. How is your child satisfied with the team s/he plays for?

ANNEX 3 – Focus group guide

This guide is based on the following book – Morgan, L. D. (2001). *Ohniskové skupiny jako metoda kvalitativního výzkumu*. Boskovice, Albert. (Czech translation)

Within the research the focus group was used as a pilot method for exploring the role of football in the life of the children and their care-givers.

I ran the focus group (as **moderator**), it had **different segments** and was **more structured** in order to cover all the necessary topics which were essential for the research. All the participants knew each other because they worked as trainers within the same organization. The group had 6 participants.

INSTRUCTIONS:

1. **Introduce yourself and the research (openly and generally)**
2. **Introduce the rules of focus group method (should be short and understandable), i.e.:**
 - a. “It is a free discussion, you should share your point of view”
 - b. “It can take around an hour ”
 - c. “Only one person should speak at a time. There shouldn’t be any other discussions. Everybody should take a part and nobody should dominate. You are responsible for your discussion (I’m here only to listen and to get your points of view...)”
 - d. Your personal experience is very important for me. I would like to hear as many perspectives as possible. I want to hear your stories, they are unique. Don’t only agree or disagree, try to explain your opinion.
 - e. There are no right or wrong answers. If all the topics are finished, you can raise new questions that are interesting for you, but stay within the main focus of the discussion – we would like to know as much as possible.
3. **Discussion questions and topics**
 - a. Starting question (kind of icebreaker): Introduce yourself and your role in the team one by one.
 - b. Why did you decide to join the Kids league activities?
 - c. Activities within the program/only sport
 - d. Success/non-success of the program

e. Influence on children/role of the sport in their lives/changes

f. Proposals 4 Kids League (*if time and space*)

g. Interpersonal relations in the teams

h. Summary by each participant at the end

4. **Guiding sentences for moderator (helping sentences for discussion)**

a. One of the things several people have mentioned here is... I'd like to know what other players think about it...

b. I'm surprised nobody has mentioned... Can it mean anything?

c. I remember it was mentioned, that...

d. I'm especially interested in... Can you tell me more about it?

e. I'd like to come back to ...

f. Let's talk about this right now...