The Social Impact of Football-based Employability Programmes

Commissioned by streetfootballworld
Produced by ThinkYoung
Supported by Hyundai
Authors:
Jack Palmer (Lead Researcher)
Antoine Borg Micallef (Co-Researcher)

We also owe thanks to:
streetfootballworld, ThinkYoung research Team, CAIS, Street League, Sport dans la Ville, Rheinflanke, Sport4Life, KICKFAIR, Albion in the Community, Start Again
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Youth unemployment is a critical problem facing Europe, with recent figures showing unemployment rates for young people being more than double than that for the whole population. Helping these young people improve their chances of finding work, especially those who have little to no qualifications or specialist vocational skills, is a vital task for European policy makers and one which presents considerable challenges. Over recent years, football-based employability programmes, focused on marginalised youth in Europe, have been increasing in both quantity and variety. The impact of these programmes has become a topic of substantial European interest due to economic stagnation and soaring unemployment rates. This pan-European study will examine the extent to which these programmes can influence the employment, and/or re-offending rates of their participants and evaluate the impact they may have on the wider community.

The report comprises several sections, each exploring different aspects of football-based employability programmes that focus on peer-to-peer approaches. A total of eight organisations running football-based employability programmes were chosen for the study; four from the UK (Sport4Life, Albion in the Community, Street League and Start Again), two from Germany (Rheinflanke and KICKFAIR), one from France (Sport dans la Ville) and one from Portugal (CAIS).

Throughout the report attention is made to the impact of the programmes aimed at young people not in Education, Employment or Training (NEET’s), with more than 7.5 million young NEET’s in the European Union – Over 13% of the youth population (Thompson, 2013).

The transformative capacities of football-based employability programmes for disadvantaged youth were highlighted in a variety of ways. Firstly, the football aspect itself has been shown to create an initial draw to the programme, as many of the participants have found their love for the game as a big motivation to join the programmes. Playing football has either directly or indirectly helped the participants to learn new skills, such as teamwork, communication and confidence, apparent within the game and adopt certain values such as respect, punctuality and behavioural change. Secondly, the programmes themselves have had a hugely beneficial impact on the participants and the wider community. The workshops, run alongside the football sessions, have enabled the participants to gain qualifications, receive advice on employment (CV writing, interview and job searching techniques) and improve upon transferrable life skills. The programmes also provide the opportunity for the participants to gain pertinent work experience in the form of volunteering or part-/fulltime work following completion of the programme. Employment and crime re-offending rates of participants completing the programme have then been compared against national statistics to create a Social Return on Investment (SROI) ratio, in which an overall social value has been created for each organisation. Across all programmes a positive ratio was found ranging from 1:1.27 to 1:9.07.

“Football-based employability programmes have been increasing in both quantity and variety.”
Executive Summary

The report proposes the following recommendations:

- The findings, especially in relation to SROI, imply that Sport for Development/football programmes are worth promoting/funding as a cost effective way of integrating marginalized youth into societal norms. This can be further promoted by standardising, quantifying and systematising measurements to effectively communicate the social impact of sport with key stakeholders.

- A recommendation to policy makers throughout Europe would be to place much more emphasis on the collection and transparency of data surrounding youth employment figures; especially with reference to ‘hazard rates’ (moving from unemployment to employment) and long-term follow-up. This will ensure that uncertainties within the analysis are minimised and a more thorough and legitimate understanding of social impact can be determined.

- Within social impact analysis a more holistic approach should be taken; this means a fundamental shift is required to allow for additional indicators such as training and education to be included in future evaluation of these types of programmes. This approach recognises that, in addition to paid work, there is a need to value and support other forms of participation such as caring, voluntary work, education and training. This could be done through incentivising the collection of data from a governmental and policy making perspective to ensure the motivation is present at ground level. This information must then be presented in a clear and transparent way.

- Further effort needs to be made into developing, and improving upon monitoring and evaluation models. This will improve the scope and validity of social impact measurement within football-based employability programmes.

- There must be an improvement in communication mechanisms for sharing best practice and the innovative ideas that are emerging from the work of employability and football. Such mechanisms may include the staging of international and national conferences, more regional meetings and more regular engagement between policy makers and practitioners.

- Political emphasis must also be placed on creating attainable jobs for the marginalised youth to ensure that the skills and knowledge participant’s gain from these programmes are utilised to the utmost benefit to the individual and society. This will allow work to be distributed fairly between people who have the skills to match the job requirements.
# 1. Introduction

# 2. Literature Review
- 2.1 Defining Social Impact
- 2.2 Sport-based Programmes
- 2.3 Social Change through Football
- 2.4 Potential Indicators to Help Measure Social Impact
- 2.5 Social Return on Investment
- 2.6 Benefits of Programmes on the Local Community

# 3. Methodology
- 3.1 Unstructured Surveys
- 3.2 Social Return on Investment
- 3.3 Semi-structured Interviews
  - 3.3.1 Conducting and Recording of Interviews
  - 3.3.2 Participant Selection
  - 3.3.3 Limitations of Selected Methods
- 3.4 Analysis Techniques

# 4. Cross-organisational Trends and Discussion
- 4.1 Football
  - 4.1.1 Football as a Tool
  - 4.1.2 Skills Adopted
  - 4.1.3 Love for Football
- 4.2 How Development through Football Programmes work
  - 4.2.1 Coach - Participant Relationship
  - 4.2.2 Values Adopted
- 4.3 Individual Benefits
  - 4.3.1 Employability

# 5. Limitations

# 6. Conclusion

# 7. Recommendations

# 8. References
Football has qualities that bring people together in ways that often defy usual barriers, with people engaging across geographic boundaries, age spans, even bringing divided communities together. The principles and values inherent in football can teach young people about fair play, tolerance, inclusion and respect, equipping players with the confidence and knowledge necessary to assume responsibility in their communities. Lessons on the pitch can be directly transferred to life off the pitch, ensuring the long-term impact of social change through football. Several scholars believe that football, through its inherent qualities, global popularity and cost-efficiency, can and indeed should, be a vehicle for progressive change within society (Kaufman and Wolf, 2010). These changes transcend to a multitude of policy areas, including health, community cohesion, integration of minorities, urban regeneration and crime prevention (Long et al., 2002; Walseth and Fasting, 2004; Kidd, 2008). This report will concentrate on organisations that run football-based employability programmes that incorporate each policy area mentioned above.

Different organisations may have social, environmental and economic impacts that can have diverse effects on people, their communities and the environment. Social impact is a term that is subjective to each organisation, but a general definition of this would simply be the consequences of the actions an organisation takes to address the social needs that have been identified (Meldrum et al., 2009).

This report will focus on organisations that have identified unemployment as a key issue within the community, especially amongst the youth. The use of football as a tool for change has remained an omnipresent feature of these organisations delivering social policy through sport. In the UK, for example, many of the professional football clubs run programmes within their respective areas with the aim to enhance young people’s employability skills. Whilst such initiatives have been subject to various evaluations (Rigg, 1986; Mason and Geddes, 2010), particularly on how the development of sporting infrastructure within communities may contribute to their redevelopment (Thornley, 2002) and the economic, tourism and volunteering benefits this brings, academic analysis of football-based initiatives aiming to address unemployment has largely been limited.

It is widely recognised that:

- There is a widespread and historically long-standing assumption that sport can provide social benefit beyond the immediate experience of participation.
- The claimed benefits attributed to sport exceed the research base, as the evidence of social impacts of sport is unsatisfactory.
- The absence of robust data does not in itself disprove the actual or potential value of sport.

This report has been developed in the context of these literature gaps and new approaches to monitoring and evaluation. It seeks to examine and critique the broader constraints and limitations such projects face, and illustrate the need to move away from the somewhat simplistic view currently held by policymakers of what sport can achieve within the area of employability amongst young people. This will be further supported through a Social Return on Investment (SROI) analysis of each organisation, in relation to national employment and crime re-offending rates (where available), developing a ratio of investment into each programme against their outcome to society.

The conclusion summarises key findings and proposes recommendations to policy makers, local and national governments, local authorities and the organisations themselves.
The term “impact” has become part of the everyday lexicon of the social sector in recent years, and yet it has not been consistently defined alongside the term “social”. Roche (1999) describes impact as “significant or lasting changes in people’s lives, brought about by a given action or series of actions.”

More recently, Jones (2009) uses impact more narrowly to refer to an organisation’s specific and measurable role in affecting a social result (attribution) requiring a counterfactual for assessment. This means that transparent and measurable criteria of inputs and outcomes must be presented from the outset as a basis for measurement. “Social impact” has only been defined within non-academic literature as ‘the net effect of an activity on the social fabric of the community and well-being of individuals and families’ (Centre for Social Impact, 2014, Social Enterprise UK, 2014).

Social impacts may be ‘real’ or ‘perceived’ and measures must be able to cope with both dimensions. That is, a so-called ‘real’ impact can be measured with objective data that verifies its existence. An example of this is the number of participants from an employability programme that move into employment, which is a quantifiable outcome, although attribution to a particular cause of entering employment may be difficult to measure. By contrast, a ‘perceived’ impact is purely a personal view of that impact (Ap & Crompton 1998), and can be measured by interviewing different stakeholders affected by an activity to gain a better understanding. An example of this would be interviewing parents to assess the perceived impact of an employability programme on their children’s self-esteem.

Social impact programmes using sport as a vehicle are generally one of two types; either those that focus exclusively on delivering the sporting activity, or those that use sports as a ‘hook’ to bring participants into a wider range of activities and achieve multiple goals (McMahon and Belur, 2013). The former type of programme is associated with providing accreditation and sport-specific development opportunities such as coaching and umpiring.

According to Cryer (2005), ‘diversion’ programmes (distracting from violent and criminal activities) and ‘hook’ programmes (bringing young people into contact with opportunities for achieving wider goals) can be used to reduce crime and reoffending behaviour amongst young people. McMahon and Belur (2013) applied both types of sport programmes in their study on sport and youth violence in London, in which they concluded that either programme type offers positive results. However, ‘hook’ programmes may provide some negative impacts since it would be difficult to run a programme that didn’t prioritise certain opportunities, which could result in some participants feeling isolated and undervalued, thus causing conflict within the group.
Policymakers and practitioners have long advocated the value of sport as an educative context capable of facilitating the development of positive social values, life skills and pro-social behaviour amongst young people (Benson et al. 1998; Bailey 2006; Gould and Carson 2008). Projects can be ‘needs based’, where they use sport to promote various aspects of personal, social and community improvement, including the development of social and technical skills to increase employability (Coalter, 2002).

In this aspect, football is an important sport due to its potential to transcend numerous areas of development and its global popularity. Therefore, many organisations have been using football as an instrument for social change and development for the past 30 years (Magee and Jeanes, 2013). Furthermore, the interest in using football as a vehicle of social impact has been augmented with the interest and input shown by key stakeholders such as FIFA, UEFA, national associations, professional and amateur clubs, fan groups, players and numerous NGOs (Bitugu, 2011). Due to its global popularity throughout Europe, football has the inherent ability to attract young people who may not otherwise attend employability programmes. It also promotes physical fitness and provides the social benefits associated with participating in football, enabling staff to develop relationships with participants outside the educational context; and finally develops skills and values such as communication, teamwork, confidence, punctuality, respect and fair-play, that could lead to a career outside of football.

However, the potential value of sport as a vehicle to address employability issues amongst young people has received very little attention (Spaaij et. al, 2012). Unfortunately, the benefits have thus far been difficult to measure and assign a value to, so it becomes difficult to allocate resources (Fujiwara, Kudma and Dola, 2014).

"Due to its global popularity throughout Europe, football has the inherent ability to attract young people who may not otherwise attend employability programmes."
2.4 Potential Indicators to Help Measure Social Impact

When preparing a social impact study, the social problem needs to be identified and defined. Specific indicators are used to measure the short-term and long-term impacts of the proposed study on the target social problem (Wolk and Kreitz, 2008). Fujiwara, Kudma and Dolan (2014) identify health, education, civic participation, employment and economic productivity as possible indicators that can aid in the quantification of social impact in any study.

Such indicators can also be shaped to conform to the dynamics of a social impact study that focuses on sport. A study by Beneforti and Cunningham (2002) identified three types of indicators that would provide a holistic overview of a sports programme’s achievements. These are programme viability and sustainability indicators, participation indicators and outcome indicators.

Programme viability and sustainability indicators are used to measure how the project is being managed and these can include turnover of sport officers, funding levels, community stability and adequacy of facilities and equipment. Participant indicators are used to focus and measure the community participation in the sport programme, and can include the participation of specific target groups in terms of gender, age, race, criminal background and so on. Finally, outcome indicators are identified to provide insight into changes in the area in which the programme is run, these including crime rates, school attendance, employment, violence and health status. By using a combination of such social and economic indicators, it is ensured that the organisation running the programme will have a vision that is grounded in a set of achievable, yet ambitious targets.

There has also been little research to validate social outcomes from sport. Many past findings regarding the social outcomes of sport depend on qualitative examinations by interviews, observations, focus groups, poetry readings and video messages (Jai-vie, 2003; Bailey, 2005; Beutler, 2008). It is this context of implementation of sport-based development programmes that much of the evidence produced by practitioners is met with scepticism, suspicion and disbelief over its reliability and validity – often because this evidence is framed as the “the power of sport” (Coalter, 2007; Coalter, 2010; Sugden, 2010; Levermore, 2011). The consensus is more that sport may have the capacity to elicit change, but that evidence at the moment is inconclusive at best (Coalter, 2010).

As a result, the roles and values of sport-based social initiatives may be undervalued and underleveraged to sponsors, partners or investors. Sponsors of sport often seek measurement of their investment both in terms of awareness for brands but also in terms of good will derived from social values (Cornwell, 2008). Therefore, standardized, quantifiable and systematic measurement would be useful to effectively communicate the social impact of sport with stakeholders.

What has emerged, in theory and practice, is a range of approaches to monitoring and evaluation that are now being implemented within the field of Sport for Development (SFD). These vary from impact and outcome evaluations, often evident within industry driven evaluations (e.g. Sport England), to theory driven approaches that may offer more insights on how and why impacts occur (Weiss, 1997). One such approach that shall be used in this report is Social Return on Investment (SROI). An ambitious and sometimes controversial approach, it claims to be holistic and comprehensive, and it uses a monetised language, combined with qualitative narratives, to express the different types of value created.

“The consensus is more that sport may have the capacity to elicit change, but that evidence at the moment is inconclusive at best.”
2.5 Social Return on Investment

Social Return of Investment refers to the process of measuring the impact of an intervention and the investment required to achieve that impact. Currently it is applied to social, environmental and economic values created by an organisation. This method was originally developed by REDF (Roberts Enterprise Development Fund) in the USA and was later picked up by the Hewlett Foundation and New Economics Foundation who began testing SROI. The UK Government joined and spread the technique over UK. Nowadays SROI has emerged as a preferred technique for measuring impact and outcomes in the third sector.

SROI comes from the same approach of ROI, which is an international financial ratio to measure the investment gain compared with the investment costs. However SROI should not be restricted to a number because its value goes beyond financial terms. Monetising the return on investment is beneficial in making it tangible and understandable. For example, a ratio of 3:1 means that for each Euro invested in a social intervention, three Euros are gained socially. To compute this ratio, Net Present Value of Benefits should be divided by Net Present Value of Investment. SROI uses elements of cost-benefit analysis (CBA) as costs and benefits are quantified and compared to evaluate the desirability of a given intervention expressed in monetary units (Layard and Glaister, 1994). It relies on seven principles: involve stakeholders, understand what changes (for those stakeholders), value what matters (also known as the monetisation principle; only include what is material, do not over-claim, be transparent and verify the result.

SROI is also limited by some factors. For instance, the user based on their needs determines the outcome data required for the calculation. So if this data is not widely available, it can be time-consuming to acquire and difficult to compute. Moreover, it is dangerous to focus only on the ratio. The ratio is only meaningful within the wider narrative about the organisations. Just as an astute investor would not make a financial decision based on just one number, the same practice applies to this social measurement tool. For this reason, comparisons between organisations just based on the ratio are not recommended.

In the context of football and employability, as the organisations analysed are involved, the SROI methodology would measure more than simply the financial gain to the principle stakeholder – i.e. the owners of the organisations. It would also consider how the NGOs create social value for other stakeholders such as local communities and then monetise these through the use of financial proxies. These measures of value are then combined to give one total figure for the net benefits resulting from a club’s activities, which can be contrasted with the investment needed to achieve this to give a robust estimate of the social return produced by this investment.

The Process of SROI

Carrying out an SROI analysis involves 5 stages

1. Establishing scope and identifying key stakeholders - It is important to have clear boundaries about what the SROI analysis will cover, who will be involved in the process and how. Generally, service users, funders and other agencies working with the client group are included in an SROI.

2. Mapping outcomes - Through engaging with stakeholders an impact map (also called a theory of change or logic model), will be developed which shows the relationship between inputs, outputs and outcomes.

3. Evidencing outcomes and giving them a value - This stage involves finding data to show whether outcomes have happened and then giving them a monetary value.

4. Establishing impact - Those aspects of change that would have happened anyway or are a result of other factors are taken out of the analysis.

5. Calculating the SROI - This stage involves adding up all the benefits, subtracting any negatives and comparing the result with the investment. This is also where the sensitivity of the results can be tested.

“Social Return on Investment refers to the process of measuring the impact of an intervention and the investment required to achieve that impact.”
2.6 Benefits of Programmes on the Local Community

The benefits of social impact programmes generally accumulate slowly, but one may presume that the positive net benefits to society to be the returns from the programme (Fitzpatrick, 1998). Such benefits surely exist since communities exposed to social impact programmes generally tend to continue funding them after engaging positively with them, but they are often very difficult to determine.

There are several benefits that have been documented as being a result of sport centred social impact programmes. This is mainly due to the fact that sport is considered as an important tool in the social inclusion of excluded social groups. As such, sport has a high potential for contributing towards the social and economic regeneration of urban neighbourhoods, decreased delinquency, greater social cohesion, improved individual physical and mental health, greater academic success and increased employment (Beneforti and Cunningham, 2002; Zamanian, Zamini, Forouzandeh and Haghighi, 2012).

Employability
Sport programmes contribute further to economic development of local communities by providing a cost-efficient method of improving employability, especially among young people (UNOSDP, 2005). Through the provision of core skills such as teamwork, leadership, discipline and the value of effort, sport provides young people with a constructive activity that ultimately contributes to the reduction of juvenile crime and anti-social behaviour. Furthermore, apart from providing employment opportunities, sport programmes also encourage the demand for goods and services in local communities. By using football and other sports programmes to generate a positive social outcome, affected communities can benefit directly by “increase[ing] the employment potential of participants through the provision of training opportunities such as coaching and umpiring accreditation” (Beneforti and Cunningham, 2002).

Crime Reduction
Another key positive outcome of football based social programmes is in crime prevention, which generally occurs as an indirect result (Cameron and MacDougall, 2000). Sport programmes do not actively seek to reduce the crime rate in targeted communities, but this generally occurs as a result of activities that steer young people away from trouble. In the UK, football has been long associated with community crime prevention, in particular, Liverpool Football Club, which has been operating such programmes throughout the city (Cameron and MacDougall, 2000). Crime reduction occurs through sports-induced socialisation and also through keeping young people entertained and occupied in their free time (Zamanian et al., 2012). However, one should be aware that sport cannot solely compensate for the shortcomings in communities that are highly susceptible to juvenile delinquency.

“Sport programmes contribute further to economic development of local communities by providing a cost-efficient method of improving employability, especially among young people.”
METHODOLOGY

This study was conducted to explore the social impact of football based employability programmes on young people in different locations around Europe. Interviews for this research covered members of the management team and coaches of the programmes. This allowed for an in depth analysis of the organisations themselves and how the programmes functioned on ground level. In general, information was obtained to measure the social impact of individual organisations, but where possible the interviews and survey were designed to allow for cross-organisational analysis and discussion. The current chapter will provide an account of the general data collection and analysis approach in support of the present study.

Qualitative research methods were used throughout, and consisted of unstructured questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. By using two different methods, information was presented in different ways for different audiences, ensuring beneficial outcomes for the participants (Mayoux, 2006). Both these types of methods were employed by a study commission by Supporters Direct (2010), where they investigated the community value of Football in England.

The research focuses on the overall impact of programmes to the participants and the wider community from both a participatory and organisational perspective. The methodology will occur in two stages; firstly a survey to determine how the organisations operate at management level. Secondly, interviews will be applied to obtain insight on the experiences of participants and staff within the programmes.

3.1 Unstructured Surveys

For this purpose unstructured questionnaires (see Appendix 10.2) were employed, as these are ideal when using an informal approach towards data collection (Parfitt, 2005). Such questionnaires contain unstructured questions about a particular topic or issue in which participants can provide free responses and express their opinions in an entirely open-ended manner (Simon, 2006).

This method was used to obtain information about the overall structure of the organisations investigated. This includes information regarding the aim and goals of the schemes, investments made in the programmes, stakeholders involved, employability rates of programme participants, participation figures of the programmes and how the organisations are currently measuring their social impact.

They were also used to obtain key numerical data (such as stakeholders, inputs, outputs, outcomes and indicators) that could be used to extrapolate a value for the Social Return on Investment (SROI) for each of the programmes investigated.

Secondary Research

Secondary research was carried out to gain further information about the organisations and to acquire theories and knowledge to support the analysis and discussion. These texts and statistics were presented in the literature review. The calculation of SROI was also made possible through the provision of national statistics from the four countries concerned (UK, Portugal, France and Germany), as well as specific case studies on how SROI can be calculated for similar sport based social programmes. Results obtained from the SROI calculations were compared to other organisations that are implementing employability programmes to gain a broader insight.
3.2 Social Return on Investment (SROI)

SROI is a process of measuring the impact of an intervention and the investment required to achieve that impact and in the case of this study is applied to employment and crime re-offending indicators. It must be made clear that these measurements are only an estimate and do not offer a complete picture of the programmes social impact. For example, when comparing ‘hazard rates’ (moving from un-employment to employment) to national statistics the only available data was from the UK and so this figure was used for all organisations. It is also possible that local statistics within the UK differ from overall national figures and therefore this must be taken into account. The study has incorporated these limitations into the analysis section as best as possible.

**Stage 1**
Establishing scope and identifying key stakeholders

It was decided that key stakeholders would include participants, volunteers/staff, investors/donors, the local authorities/governments and the organisations themselves.

These stakeholders would:

- cover all the activities of the organisation over one year.
- be used to calculate investment into the programme.

**Stage 2**
Mapping outcomes

Through discussions with the management team of each organisation, the inputs, outputs and outcomes were identified for each organisation.

**INPUTS**
staff time, overheads equipment & facilities

**OUTPUTS**
measurable units of production e.g. number of participants

**OUTCOMES**
the outcomes represent the loss or gain for each stakeholder involved e.g. increased employability rates
### Methodology

#### Stage 3

Evidencing outcomes and giving them value

Employment and crime re-offending outcomes indicators were identified showing whether the outcome had been achieved or not. For example, for the 'increased employment' outcome the indicator was ‘percentage of participants moving into employment in the year after completing the programme.'

Then for each indicator a financial gain/loss to both the individual and the state was calculated based on national statistics in which the organisation was based, and the average number of people finding work from the programme.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yearly state benefits allowance (£)/per person</th>
<th>Individuals completing programme</th>
<th>Percentage of people finding job</th>
<th>Average number of participants finding work from sport programme</th>
<th>Yearly state savings from people finding job (£)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2982.2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>6.75</td>
<td>20129.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Increased difference in earnings (£)</th>
<th>New job earnings (£)</th>
<th>Client savings as a result of joining programme (£)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10142.6</td>
<td>13124.8</td>
<td>68462.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
\text{Yearly Saving} = A \times B
\]

Where:

- Yearly savings is the yearly state savings from people finding a job.
- A is the yearly state benefit allowance
- B is the average number of participants finding work in the year after completing the programme

\[
\text{Client Savings} = C \times B
\]

Where:

- Client savings is the participant savings from people finding a job.
- C is the increased difference in yearly earnings
- B is the average number of participants finding work in the year after completing the programme
4. Methodology

Stage 4
Establishing impact

To calculate the impact, the deadweight (what would have happened anyway) must be calculated for each outcome measured, and then deducted from the ‘percentage of people finding a job’ to provide the ‘present value (impact) of the programme on each indicator’.

\[
\text{Deadweight} = \frac{D}{E}
\]

Where:

D is the Hazard rate (% of unemployed NEET’s) entering employment in a given year
E is the percentage of people finding a job

\[
\text{Present Value Employment} = \frac{\text{Yearly Savings} \times \text{Client Savings}}{1/\text{Deadweight}}
\]

Where:

Present value is the present value of the programme on employment

EXAMPLE: Albion in the Community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yearly state benefits allowance (£)/per person</th>
<th>Individuals completing programme</th>
<th>Percentage of people finding job</th>
<th>Average number of participants finding work from sport programme</th>
<th>Yearly state savings from people finding job (£)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2982.2</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>82308.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Increased difference in earnings (£)</th>
<th>New job earnings (£)</th>
<th>Client savings as a result of joining programme (£)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3670</td>
<td>6652.2</td>
<td>101292</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

UK Hazard rate for those without a degree 16-24 (%) = 0.2260

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yearly state savings from people finding job (£)</th>
<th>Client savings as a result of joining programme (£)</th>
<th>DEADWEIGHT</th>
<th>Present value of programme on employment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>82308.72</td>
<td>101292</td>
<td>0.3767</td>
<td>114444.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Stage 5
Calculating the SROI

Total Present Value of the Programme on Society
The present value of the programme on employment and crime re-offending were then added together to give a 'total present value of the programme for the 1st year. This figure was then multiplied five times (deducting 10% each year for a 'drop off' in effectiveness and 3.5% discount rate) to give the 'total present value of the programme on society' over a five-year period.

Total Present Value = Present Value Employment + Present Value Crime

Where:

Total Present Value is the total present value of the programme in year 1
Present Value Employment is the Present Value of Programme on Employment
Present Value is the Present Value of Programme on reducing Reoffending

Total Value Society = Year 1 + Year 2 + Year 3 +Year 4 + Year 5

Where:

Total Value Society is the total present Value of the programme on society
Year x is the total present value of the programme in year x
(minus 10% drop off and 3.5% discount rate)

EXAMPLE: Sport 4 Life

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present value of programme on employment (£)</th>
<th>Present value of programme on reducing reoffending (£)</th>
<th>Total present value of programme year 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-3149.95</td>
<td>19344</td>
<td>16194.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Yearly Drop-off</th>
<th>Discount rate (i.e. overheads 3.5%)</th>
<th>Total present value of programme on society (£)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year 1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.035</td>
<td>15646.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.035</td>
<td>14224.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.035</td>
<td>12930.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 4</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.035</td>
<td>11755.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 5</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.035</td>
<td>10686.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>65243.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SROI Ratio Calculation
The SROI ratio is calculated by dividing the ‘total present value of the programme on society’ by the ‘total input into the programme’ (time and money). For the UK organisations the calculation is presented in £ and for SdIV it is presented in €.

\[
\text{SROI} = \frac{\text{Total Value Society}}{\text{Input into Program}}
\]

Where:
- SROI is the Social Return on Investment
- Total Value Society is the Total present Value of the programme on society
- Input into programme is Input of the money into the programme

EXAMPLE: Sport dans la Ville

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total present value of programme on society (£)</th>
<th>Input value (£)</th>
<th>SROI (£)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6825294.39</td>
<td>752520</td>
<td>9.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SROI 1:9.07
3. Methodology

The second stage of the methodology explored the experiences of participants and staff in the targeted football based programmes through the use of semi-structured interviews for the eight participating organisations.

3.3 Semi-structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews are the most frequently used and diverse type of interviews. Generally, the researcher follows a specific agenda with pre-established themes, but the interview itself is loosely structured as this allows participants to answer questions subjectively (Arksey and Knight, 1999). Semi-structured interviews are the only type of interviews that can allow important themes to be covered, but also provide an excellent opportunity for participants to build on their own thoughts (Willis, 2006). While unstructured interviews could have enabled an excellent way of developing the research questions, they cannot function well in a study such as this one, which is limited by time.

In this study, semi-structured interviews were implemented in order to obtain an in-depth overview of how targeted sport-based programmes function, the benefits that participants and communities gain from them, and what improvements can be made to bolster their success. Questions in interviews were focused on roles, needs and opinions, and looked into successes and failures of the programme at ground level (see Appendix 10.1).

3.3.1 Conducting and Recording of Interviews

Six out of the sixteen interviews took place on site visits to the organisations at CAIS (Lisbon), Sport dans la Ville (Lyon) and Sport4Life (Birmingham). The rest were conducted via Skype. From the Skype interviews, five interviews (with members of the management team) were not recorded but used to complete the survey and the other five semi-structured interviews were recorded by using audio recordings, which is preferred over note taking, since the latter may interfere with the flow of the discussion and reduce the researcher’s concentration (Willis, 2006). Interviewees were advised that the session was being recorded to comply with ethical considerations; however note taking was also used as a ‘fallback’ measure, which also allows certain changes in body language to be noted, and also for certain ‘off the record’ comments to be recorded (Arksey and Knight, 1999).

3.3.2 Participant Selection

The overall aim of the study is to measure the social impact of the programmes and therefore the choice was made to concentrate mainly on management team and coaches. This was because they had the best insight into how the programme is run at both an operational level and at ground level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Organisation Represented</th>
<th>Role in Organisation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mark</td>
<td>Start Again</td>
<td>Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stuart</td>
<td>Start Again</td>
<td>Coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedro</td>
<td>CAIS</td>
<td>Participant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mattias</td>
<td>CAIS</td>
<td>Coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goncalo</td>
<td>CAIS</td>
<td>Project Coordinator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nabil</td>
<td>Sport dans la Ville</td>
<td>Coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claire</td>
<td>Sport dans la Ville</td>
<td>Programme Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Younis</td>
<td>Rheinflanke</td>
<td>Coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andreas</td>
<td>Rheinflanke</td>
<td>Programme Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>David</td>
<td>Sport4Life</td>
<td>Coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saad</td>
<td>Sport4Life</td>
<td>Project Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Callum</td>
<td>Street League</td>
<td>Coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigel</td>
<td>Street League</td>
<td>Commercial Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mark</td>
<td>Albion in the Community</td>
<td>Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stuart</td>
<td>Albion in the Community</td>
<td>Head of Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sebastian</td>
<td>KICKFAIR</td>
<td>Participant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steffi</td>
<td>KICKFAIR</td>
<td>General Director</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.3.3 Limitations of Selected Methods

- Only two interviews were conducted for each organisation and therefore non-statistical data such as recommendations, successes and failures cannot be fully supported and verified.
- The organisations all function in slightly different ways and so it is difficult to justify trends within the analysis.
- SROI is still a fairly new framework and therefore has its limitations. For example, the ‘hazard rate’ (moving from unemployment to employment) for NEET’s (aged 16-24 and without a degree) was only available from the Office for National Statistics in the UK. Therefore when using ‘hazard rate’ (deadweight) in SROI calculations for organisations outside the UK, the same figure had to be used.
- Another perceived limitation of SROI, as with other types of evaluation is that it is difficult to compare results between organisations. This is in light of the space for personal judgement, which could make it possible to inflate or deflate the value created. Therefore it is vital that the overall SROI ratio should not be viewed in isolation. The analysis that accompanies the SROI ratio is crucial as it ensures transparency and makes it possible to see some of the choices that have been made, about what to measure and how to value an impact. SROI should not be viewed as being all about the final financial ratio. This attracts scepticism and criticism and means many of its benefits are overlooked.
- The external SROI figures are generated based on national statistics and therefore might not reflect the figures for that specific area.

3.4 Analysis Techniques

DATA ORGANISATION
Given the voluminous amounts of data gathered, the material was organised in a presentable and readable format, by organising transcripts under the key themes (Crang, 2005).

IMMERSION IN DATA
The researcher needed to be familiar with the data, so this was read multiple times to make sense of all the people and quotations. Moreover, Cope (2010) argues that rereading the original material makes theme identification simpler, since recurrent topics became easily notable.

Categorizing into themes – The process of finding particular categories involves the identification of evident patterns expressed by participants. Categories produced were internally consistent, but equally distinct from each other.

CODING
Coding involves the use of interpretive codes to thoroughly mark certain the interview and focus transcripts (Jackson, 2001). ‘In vivo’ codes consisting of the participant’s language were generally used, along with words or short phrases.

INTERPRETATION
Codes are not the end of analysis, because even though they further organize the data, they do not provide an explanatory framework (Crang, 2005). As such, the researcher determines how well the selected codes explain the story that is unfolding.

FINDING ALTERNATIVE UNDERSTANDINGS
Once categories and themes have been developed, the researcher needs to consider the possibility of developing alternative understandings, by challenging what is initially perceived and taking into account negative instances of patterns.
4. Cross-organisational Trends and Discussion

4.1 Football as a Tool

Football is one of the main reasons why football is used for such social programmes, as it is easier to attract and mobilise participants to join a program which uses a sport as a focus. In fact, five coaches from five participating organisations (Sport dans la Ville, Albion Goals, Start Again, Sport4Life and CAIS) have indicated that football is the ideal ‘hook’ or ‘carrot’ to entice participants to join the program. “When we have external courses about job searches or employment skills, football is that carrot to coax them in” (Stuart, Start Again).

Both participants and coaches from CAIS and Rheinflanke also indicated how important football is as a tool for making friends, providing important social skills that the participants require. Furthermore, coaches from these same two organisations commented that football can generally be used as the perfect analogy to replicate how participants should behave in other aspects in other lives, be it on the job, with family or friends.

4.1.2 Skills Adopted

As a team sport, there are several skills used in football that are easily transferable to daily life. Interviewed organisations listed several such skills, but there seems to be a general consensus amongst them on which skills are of utmost importance. Firstly, because football is essential in building self-confidence, as stated by Kaufman and Wolf (2010), and these programmes generally attract participants from deprived areas, one can assume that they would lack basic confidence in their abilities.

Secondly, teamwork is another key skill that is adopted by participants. Teams need to work together and rely on each other to win the match, and such a skill is a fundamental to participants in their future workplace. Furthermore, coaches and participants from KICKFAIR, Sport4Life and Sport dans la Ville indicated how important football is in the development of organisational skills. Most programmes allow players to organise themselves before and after workshops, thereby instilling the importance of being prepared before an activity, and being organised to clear up after it has finished.

Finally, football is also an important tool to improve awareness about personal health. Coaches from participating organisations commented on how participants from substance abuse backgrounds drastically improved their fitness during the programme. Mark, from Albion in the Community, also indicated that they encourage participants to reduce their drug and alcohol consumption, and this is mainly achieved by explaining to participants how their bodies are improving as a result of regular play.

4.1.3 Love for Football

A recurring notion between interviewed individuals was the love for football. Participants from CAIS and KICKFAIR mentioned how their love for football was the primary factor that brought them to the programme, as they would be much more willing to do something they love rather than learning through mundane sessions. When Sebastian, a participant in the KICKFAIR program, was asked about what motivated him to participate, he replied that “the first thing is the love of football”. Coaches from at least three participating organisations also commented about how their personal love for the sport was the main factor that pushed them to join the programmes. They also indicated how the love for football is a main factor why programmes are so popular in their respective areas.

“Football is a very quick approach to self confidence. You can see all their successes in football can mean the same for other aspects of life.”

Younis (Coach)
4.2 How Development through Football Programmes Work

During the course of the interviews, in which coaches, staff members, management and participants provided important information on how their respective programmes function and how they are of benefit to both participants and local communities. Coaches from Rheinflanke, Start Again and Albion Goals pointed out how their respective programmes are tailored to the needs of specific social groups. This is important as some sport programmes focus on youths of different age groups and can also include sessions with parents.

A very positive note indicated by participants and coaches is that these programmes are innovative and generally incorporate new ideas from their staff and participants. Respondents felt that this notion is very important, as the programmes are also designed by the people that run and participate in them. David, a coach from Sport4Life commented how his approach empowers the participants “to make their own decisions within the session”. In essence, they organise as a group the roles of each participant and plan the structure of the sessions to maximise the strengths of participants and accelerate learning through situational learning.

The success of these programmes can be exemplified not just by the positive results achieved by the participants, but also by the increasing interest by other stakeholders. Four coaches from four different programmes pointed out several external partners involved in the functioning of the sessions, mainly through the provision of workshops after football sessions aimed at providing help in CV writing, job seeking and in some cases to boost qualifications.

Such is the case for programmes in the UK, France and Portugal, that provide sessions to individuals with low literacy or numeracy levels in order to improve their qualifications on their CVs. Such sessions also contain skills in CV writing, where participants are provided with the opportunity to bring in their CV and have it examined, discussing interview techniques, and in some cases also engage in mock interviews. Sport programmes in the UK are different to other countries as they outsource such session through regional or national partners (e.g. Birmingham Adult Education Centre and Jobcentre Plus) and look at crime re-offending rates, which can be used as another indicator of social impact to the participants and the wider community.

4.2.1 Coach - Participant Relationship

A recurring theme from the interviewed organisation is the importance of establishing a relationship between the staff and the participants. Such a relationship is deemed important, as participants would generally feel more comfortable with a member of staff they consider as being trustworthy. Coaches from Rheinflanke, CAIS and Albion in the Community indicate that they achieve this by actually playing football with the participants. Younis from Rheinflanke comments how “We join in and we show them that we are part of the team, and this is very important”.

Through the establishment of such a relationship, which coaches called being bigger brothers or father figures, coaches are therefore viewed as role models. Participants can come to them with any problem, which they may have, which would ultimately allow participants to perform better in the programme and accelerate progression.

4.2.2 Values Adopted

Interview respondents commented on how their programmes are also important for the development of certain values. For example, punctuality is an important notion for Rheinflanke, Start Again and Sport dans la Ville, as coaches commented at how they teach participants to not be late for sessions, making them miss them in some cases. Such a value is also related to the notions of respect and fair play, which several respondents described as being another fundamental value that the programme instils into its participants. According to Nabil from Sports dans la Ville, programme activities are designed in a specific way to teach such values, which have an important role in the future of these participants. A participant from the CAIS programme listed respect as being one of the main things that he has taken away after completing it.
4.3 Individual Benefits

Coaches from Sports dans la Ville, CAIS and Sport4Life indicated that their respective programmes have been instrumental in bringing about a behavioural change in which they learn the importance of skills and values such as respect, fair play and teamwork. Participants can then assume the roles of mentors for other participants, thereby ensuring long-term viability of the programme. With several programme participants originated from homeless shelters, having a criminal background and being in rehabilitation for substance abuse, a change in behaviour was easily identified. Coaches commented at how some participants came alive during the football sessions, while other completely turned their lives around through the completion of the programme. David, from Sport4Life commented at how a session in their programme was very beneficial to a participant “it kick started a change in his behaviour and lead him on a better path”.

4.3.1 Employability

One of the main aims of these programmes is to improve the employability of participants. Coaches from Start Again, Street League and CAIS pointed out at how their programmes try to provide pertinent work experience. This is important as it increases their chance of finding a role after completing the programme. In the case of Street League for example, Callum, a coach within the organisation, indicated that he would like his programme to provide better work placements for his participants as “they would be getting real life valuable work experience and what it is actually like being in the workplace”. Some of the organisations also provide workplace placements within the organisations themselves and there are many examples of current employees being ex-participants of the programmes. For example, Joe from Sport4Life was quoted:

“I was unemployed and therefore not financially independent. I struggled to get by and was stuck in the same routine each day. My outlook on the future was not a positive one. But thanks to Sport4Life, I have gained confidence, accessed training and gained many professional qualifications including an FA Level 2 coaching badge and a Level 2 gym instructor award. Most importantly, they have helped me to find work within Sport4Life and to become independent.”

LIMITATIONS

The validity of these results has to be viewed with certain scepticism as the analysis models are somewhat limited in terms of the depth in which they can explore all outcomes of the programmes i.e. employment and education. This is due to a number of reasons:

1. The organisations themselves have obtained minimal data from the participants in terms of potential indicators that can have an impact on participants and the wider community as many of them lack a sound theory of change. The time frame in which they keep in contact with the participants is too short, meaning that the long-term impact of the programmes cannot be measured. E.g. did young people remain employed, how many transferred into formal education or job training?

2. There is a distinct lack of local and national statistics on employment and education throughout Europe, especially with reference to ‘hazard rates’ (moving from unemployment to employment). This could be explained by the difficulty of obtaining reliable data due to constantly changing numbers of employed, unemployed and inactive people.

3. There is limited information on the effects that moving into education and training has on participants and the wider community.

4. Youth unemployment is a multi-faceted challenge and therefore the problem cannot only be attributed to single factors and solutions differ from person to person.
Youth unemployment is a multi-faceted problem within modern Europe and one that affects all areas of society. Whilst governments and policy-makers have a responsibility to provide jobs for the youth of Europe through labour market regulation and policy, this study has shown that sport based programmes using football as a central model can provide opportunities to increase youth unemployment in under-privileged areas across European countries. Using a literature review, interview and survey responses, SROI calculations and national statistics, this report has given evidence that football-based employability programmes can be both a catalyst and foundation for social change.

The results support two key points that are well established in the literature on football for social change. First, it provides a useful hook for engaging disadvantaged youth and offers a supportive environment to encourage and assist those individuals in their social development, learning, and connection through related programmes and services (McMahon and Belur, 2013).

Secondly, the study shows that the transformative capacity of football-based intervention programmes for disadvantaged youth can only be realised within a social and personal development approach and not by merely offering sport activities (Coalter, 2007; Crabbe et al., 2006). It has been shown that this social and personal development can take many forms such as life skills, practical skills, assuming certain values and building upon relationships.

The data in the study also shows that a monetary value can be given to six out of eight of the organisations, in the form of SROI. These findings highlight the flexibility of the model in that the indicators can be adapted to the context of individual organisations to produce a real financial value of the programmes to society.

The report also highlights the complexity and deep-rooted social impact of these programmes on the marginalised youth of Europe, which cannot be simply measured by job attainment indicators. Programmes such as the ones described help develop the values and social skills of their participants necessary to build the self-esteem and self-confidence to transform their lives and how they view themselves within society.

Much is being done to help the disadvantaged youth move away from unemployment and, as these programmes expand and evolve, they are increasingly becoming a substantial part of policies within European cities. This should be accurately reflected in the research and suitable measures should be taken.
RECOMMENDATIONS

• The findings, especially in relation to SROI, imply that sport for development/football programmes are worth promoting and funding as a cost-effective way of integrating marginalized youth into societal norms. This can be further promoted by standardising, quantifying and systematising measurements to effectively communicate the social impact of sport with key stakeholders.

• A recommendation to policy makers throughout Europe would be to place much more emphasis on the collection and transparency on data surrounding youth employment on employment figures; especially with reference to ‘hazard rates’ (moving from unemployment to employment) and long-term follow-up. This will ensure that uncertainties within the analysis are minimised and a more thorough and legitimate understanding of social impact can be determined.

• Within social impact analysis and within implementing organisations a more holistic approach should be taken; this means a fundamental shift is required to allow for additional indicators such as training and education to be included in future evaluation of these types of programmes. This approach recognises that, in addition to paid work, there is a need to value and support other forms of participation such as caring, voluntary work and education and training. This can be done through incentivising the collection of data and presenting the results in a clear and transparent way.

• Further effort needs to be made into developing, and improving upon monitoring and evaluation models. This will improve the scope and validity of social impact measurement within football-based employability programmes.

• There must be an improvement in communication mechanisms for sharing best practice and the innovative ideas that are emerging from the work of employability and football. Such mechanisms may include the staging of international and national conferences, more regional meetings and more regular engagement between policy makers and practitioners.

• Political emphasis must also be placed on creating attainable jobs for the marginalised youth to ensure that the skills and knowledge participant’s gain from these programmes are utilised to the utmost benefit to the individual and society. This will allow work to be distributed fairly between people who have the skills to match the job requirements.

• Sponsors of sport-based social initiatives often seek measurement of their investment both in terms of awareness for brands but also in terms of good will derived from social values (Cornwell, 2008). Therefore they should be made aware and understand the roles and values of these types of programmes through models such as SROI.
REFERENCES


REFERENCES


REFERENCES


http://www.socialenterprise.org.uk/advice-services/topic/social-impact


