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**B.Sc(Ed) Human Kinetics**

**COURSE CODE:-KHE 110**

**COURSE TITLE:-  
Social Institutions and Sports**

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## **INTRODUCTION**

Social institution in sports forms an integral part of factors that influence the participation and development of sports in the society. The relationship among several society indices and sports greatly determine participation, interest, sponsorship and support. If there is no synergy, the two operating at variance, sport will suffer. As such, it is important to study the relationship between sport and society, the social, cultural, economic, political and religion factors that influence the development sport in traditional modern society.

## **WHAT YOU WILL LEARN IN THIS COURSE**

This course guide tells you briefly what to expect from reading this material. The material you require and how you can successfully work through this course are discussed. It suggests some general guideline for the amount of time you may wish to spend in each unit of course, your tutor-marked assignments and evaluation of the course.

## **COURSE AIMS**

The aim of this course is to provide you with an understanding and appreciation of meaning of intramural sport, its benefits and the relevance in the development of students' lives.

## **COURSE OBJECTIVES**

In addition to the above aims, this course has 9 units with specific objectives of each unit defined. These are always included in the beginning of a unit. You are advised to read them carefully before you start reading through the unit. You may wish to refer to them as you through the unit and/or at the end of the unit to ascertain the level of your progress, and to make sure that you have done what you are required to do in the unit.

On successful completion of this course, you should be able to do;

1. Define health.
2. Define Sport
3. List and explain the importance of sport on health.
4. List and explain health benefits derived from sport
5. Explain primary and secondary benefits of sport on physical health.
6. Negative effect of sport on health
7. Explain mental health.
8. Explain primary and secondary benefits of sport on physical health.
9. Valuing health care benefits and costs
10. Explain the term crime

11. Relationship between crime and sport
12. Pro-social and Anti-social Behaviour
13. Crime prevention through sport and physical activity
14. Discuss community and sport
15. Discuss how sport helps in making good community
16. List and explain roles of community

## **WORKING THROUGH THE COURSE**

In order to complete this course successfully, you are required to read the study units, read the reference books, and any other material provided by NOUN. You are also required to spend a lot of time to study the content of this material. Do your tutor-marked assignments and consult your facilitator where necessary.

## **STUDY UNITS**

There are 10 study units in this course. They are as follows:

### **Module 1**

- Unit 1: Importance and benefit of sport and physical activities on health
- Unit 2: Evidence of Effects (Physical health)
- Unit 3: Evidence of Effects (Mental health)

### **Module 2**

- Unit 1: Introduction to sport and crime
- Unit 2: Criminal behaviours
- Unit 3: Pro-social, Anti-social Behaviour and Intervention

### **Module 3**

- Unit 1: Communities and characteristics of community
- Unit 2: Sports in the Making of Communities
- Unit 3: Links to other Problematics about Sport and Community
- Unit 4: Consolidation

## **COURSE MATERIALS**

You will be provided with the following

- Course Guide
- Study Units

In addition, you are required to consult the recorded textbooks and do your assignment

## ASSESSMENT

There are two aspects to the assessment of the course. These are the tutor-marked assessment and the final end of the semester examination. In attending to the assignments, you are required to draw from your knowledge and techniques gathered from the course. The assignment must be submitted to your tutor for assessment, in accordance with the deadline given to you.

## FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

The final examination for this course will be three hour duration. It will have a value of 70% of the overall marks. The examination will consist of questions which reflect the type of self-test, activities and TMAs

## COURSE MARKING

The following tables lay out how the actual course marking is broken down.

Assignment	Marks
Assignment 1-15	Fifteen assignments @ 5 each = 30% of each mark
Final exam total	70% overall course mark 100% of course mark

## COURSE OVERVIEW

An overview of Organization and Administration of Intramural Sports explores the challenges and factors that can aid the development of school sports, the budgeting and finance aspect of it will also be treated. The concept of accounting in administration and Organization of intramural sports are key integral part of the course.

This table brings together the units and number of hours you should take to complete to complete them and the assignment that follow them.

Unit	Title of Work	Hours	Assignment
	Course Guide		
<b>Module 1</b>			
1	Importance and benefit of sport and physical activities on health	3	Assignment 1
2	Evidence of Effects (Physical health)	3	Assignment 2
3	Evidence of Effects (Mental health)	3	Assignment 3
<b>Module 2</b>			
1	Introduction to sport and crime		Assignment 4
2	Criminal behaviours	3	Assignment 5
3	Facilities, Equipment and Supplies for Organization and Administration of Intramural Sports	3	Assignment 6
<b>Module 3</b>			
1	Communities and characteristics of community	3	Assignment 7

2	Sports in the Making of Communities	3	Assignment 8
3	Links to other Problematics about Sport and Community	3	Assignment 9

## Portfolio

A portfolio has been created for you tagged “**My Portfolio**”. With the use of Microsoft Word, state the knowledge you gained in every Module and in not more than three sentences explain how you were able to apply the knowledge to solve problems or challenges in your context or how you intend to apply the knowledge. Use this Table format:

### Application of Knowledge Gained

Module	Topic	Knowledge Gained	Application of Knowledge Gained

You may be required to present your portfolio to a constituted panel.

## Assignments

Take the assignment and click on the submission button to submit. The assignment will be scored, and you will receive a feedback.

## Examination

Finally, the examination will help to test the cognitive domain. The test items will be mostly application, and evaluation test items that will lead to creation of new knowledge/idea

## HOW TO GET THE MOST FROM THIS COURSE

In distance learning, study units replace the University. This is one of the great advantages of distance learning; you can read and study through specially designed study materials at your own disposals at your own pace and at a time and at a place that suits you best. Think of it as reading the lecturer instead of listening to the lecturer. In the same way that a lecturer might set you some readings to do, the study unit tells you when to read your set books or other materials, when to undertake practical work. Just as a lecturer can give you an in-class exercise, your study unit provide for you an exercise to do at an appropriate point. Each of the study units follows a common format. The first item is an introduction to the main matter of the unit and how a particular unit is

integrated with other unit and the course as a whole. Next is a set of learning objectives. These objectives allow you to know what you should be able to do by the time you have completed the unit. This learning objectives are meant to guide your study. The moment a unit is finished, you must go back and check whether you have achieved the objectives or not.

If you make a habit of doing this, you will greatly improve your chances of passing the course. The main body of the unit guides you through the require reading from the other sources. This will usually be either from your set book or from a reading section. Self-tests are interspersed throughout the units and answer are given at the end of each of the test. Working through this self-tests will help you to achieve your objectives of the unit and prepare you for the assignment

and examination. You should do each self- test as it comes to it in the study units. There will also be numerous examples given in the study units, work through these also when you come to them too. The following is practical strategy for working through the course. If you run into any problem, get in touch with your tutor. Remember that your tutor's job is to help you. When you help, he will provide them.

- 1) Read this course guide thoroughly
- 2) Organize a study schedule. Refer to the course overview for more details. Note the time you are expected to spend on each unit and how the assignments relate to the unit. Important information e.g. details of your tutorials, and the date of the first day of semester is available from the NOUN. You need to gather together all this information in one place such as your diary or wall calendar. Whatever method you choose to use, you should decide on and write in your own dates for working on each unit.
- 3) Once you have created your own study, do everything possible to stay faithful. The major reasons students fail is that they get behind in their course work. If you get into difficulty with your schedule, please let your tutor know before it is too late for help.
- 4) Turn to unit one unit 1 and read the introduction and objectives for unit
- 5) Assemble the study materials, Information about what you need for a unit is given in the over view at the beginning of each. You will almost always need both the study unit you are working on and one of your set book on your desk at the same time.
- 6) Work through the unit. The content of the unit itself has been arranged to provide a sequence for you to follow. As you work through the unit, you will be instructed to read sections from your set book or other articles. Use the unit to guide your reading.
- 7) Keep an eye or ear on your television sets. Up-to-date course information will be continuously posted there.
- 8) Well, before the relevant due dates (about four weeks before the date), keep in mind that you will learn a lot by doing the assignment carefully. They have been design to help meet the objectives of the course and therefore will help you to pass the examination. Submit all assignments not later than the due date.
- 9) Review the objectives for each study unit to confirm that you have achieved them. If you feel unsure of any of them, consult your tutor.
- 10) When you are confident that you have achieve a unit's objective, you can then start on the next unit. Try to space your study so that you keep yourself on the schedule.
- 11) When you submitted an assignment to your tutor for marking, do not wait for its return before starting on the next unit. Keep up with your schedule. When the assignment is returned, pay particular attention to your tutor's comment both on the tutor-marked assignment form and also the written comment on the ordinary assignments. Consult your tutor as soon as possible if you any question or problem.
- 12) After completing the last unit, review the course and prepare yourself for the final examination. Check that you have achieved the unit's objective listed at the beginning of each unit and the course objectives listed in this course guide.

## **SUMMARY**

On successful completion of this course, you should be able to do;

1. Define health.
2. Define Sport
3. List and explain the importance of sport on health.
4. List and explain health benefits derived from sport
5. Explain primary and secondary benefits of sport on physical health.
6. Negative effect of sport on health



7. Explain mental health.
8. Explain primary and secondary benefits of sport on physical health.
9. Valuing health care benefits and costs
10. Explain the term crime
11. Relationship between crime and sport
12. Pro-social and Anti-social Behaviour
13. Crime prevention through sport and physical activity
14. Discuss community and sport
15. Discuss how sport help in making good community
16. List and explain roles of community

*We wish you success in your course*



## **MODULES 1: SPORT AND HEALTH**

### **UNIT 1 (HKE 152): Importance and benefit of sport and physical activities on health**

#### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 Definition of Health
  - 3.2 Definitions of Sport
  - 3.3 Importance of sport on health
  - 3.4 Health benefits of sport

- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Assessment
- 7.0 References for Further Reading

## **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

This unit deals with definition of health and sport as well as importance of sport on health and health benefits that can be derived from engaging in sport

### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Define health.
2. Define Sport.
3. List and explain the importance of sport on health.
4. List and explain health benefits derived from sport.

### **3.0 Main Content**

#### **3.1 Definitions of Health**

The term Health has been defined as the quality of physical, emotional, mental and social wellbeing which enables one to live effectively and enjoy life. Health is a positive quality of individual that leads to the total development of the body and its various systems, and not merely the absence of illness or deformity. Health is a positive quality of life, which is concerned with all aspects of the 'WHOLE MAN'.

However, there are degree of 'wellness' just as there are degree of illness; physical, mental and social wellbeing are interrelated. Health is the quality of life that renders the individual fit to live most and to serve best. Health is a

sense of balance resulting in adaptation between human beings and the environment. It is incontrovertible that the health of the people is the greatest natural resource of a nation, upon which all their happiness and all their powers as a state depend.

Ill-Health is a significant factor that reduces our effectiveness. We will regularly contract mild or severe illness that interfere with our functioning abilities, and each of us will eventually die as a result of disease or some form of disfunctioning of the body or apart of the body. However, what is vitally important for us to be concerned about is the unnecessary suffering and premature deaths resulting from preventable health problems.

### **3.2 Definition of Sport**

Sport is an activities involving physical exertion and skill in which an individual or team compete against another or others for entertainment. Sport also includes all form of competitive physical activities or games which through casual or organizes participant

### **3.3 Importance of sport on health**

There is a big connection between health and physical activities, most time it is very important to engage in sport, exercise or physical activities in other to improve health, some of the importance are below:

- 1) **Primary and secondary prevention** Sport and exercise play a critical role in the prevention and management of many diseases that account for a large proportion of health care costs. It reduces the risk of many diseases (primary) and also provides therapeutic

benefits and slows down the progression of certain diseases (secondary).

- 2) **Mental and physical health outcomes** Sport and exercise offers physical and mental health benefits. In the area of mental health, sport and exercise is distinct from physical activity as it offers opportunities for social interaction, which contributes particularly to emotional health.
- 3) **Dose-response relationship** The type, intensity, duration and frequency (dosage) of activity impacts on the level of achieved health benefits. There is considerable debate within the literature about the optimal level of activity needed to generate health benefits and this varies across different diseases. However, much evidence suggests at least moderate levels of activity are required although some evidence suggests that the largest advantage maybe between sedentary and low activity.
- 4) **Specific populations/age-groups within society** The literature reports on both the physical and mental health benefits of sport and exercise to both children and adults. The level of health benefit may be influenced by who is taking part in a particular activity and if it is the case that younger, healthier people are more likely to participate. Negative effects of sports injury are frequently linked to younger people and children. Much of the focus of the positive literature in relation to the elderly and aging is around preventative measures such as falling, agility, self-efficacy; social interaction.

### **3.4 Health benefits of sport**

There are three main routes identified in the evidence by which routine participation in sporting activity and exercise improves health (essentially by preventing disease and providing therapeutic benefits for the management of existing diseases and illnesses):

- 1) via biological mechanisms which help to increase fitness, reducing the risk of cardio vascular disease and other chronic diseases and providing therapeutic benefits for certain chronic diseases which lead to a reduced risk of premature death;
- 2) via physiological mechanisms which reduce stress hormones, improve psychological wellbeing and lead to improved mental health and a reduced risk of depression and premature death;
- 3) via psychological mechanisms of self-efficacy, distraction and self-esteem which in turn also reduce stress and anxiety, improve psychological wellbeing and mental health and lead to a reduced risk of depression and premature death. Psychological wellbeing and improved mental health are linked to physical health as they also play an important part in the prevention and management of cardio-vascular disease and management of other chronic diseases.

#### **ACTIVITY I**

- i. Mention any three (3) importance of sport on health
- ii. Explain the term 'Sport'

#### **SUMMARY**

In this unit, you have learnt about the meaning of health and sport. You also have learnt about the importance and benefits of health from sport.

## **ASSIGNMENT**

- i. Discuss the benefits that can be derived when engage in sport

# **MODULES 1: SPORT AND HEALTH**

## **UNIT 2 (HKE 152): Evidence of Effects (Physical health)**

### **CONTENTS**

#### 1.0 Introduction

#### 2.0 Objectives

#### 3.0 Main Content

##### 3.1 Introduction

##### 3.2 Physical health

##### 3.3 Primary benefit of physical health

##### 3.4 Secondary benefit of physical health

##### 3.5 Negative effects of sport on health

#### 4.0 Conclusion

#### 5.0 Summary

#### 6.0 Assessment

#### 7.0 References for Further Reading

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

This unit deals with evidence of effects of sport, exercise, physical activities on physical health as well as primary and secondary benefits of sports

### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Give evidence of effects of sports on health.
2. Explain physical health.
3. Explain primary and secondary benefits of sport on physical health.
4. Negative effect of sport on health



### **3.0 Main Content**

#### **3.1 Evidence of Effects**

The impacts of sport and exercise to both physical and mental health are widely reported by many authors. The evidence suggests that there is a positive association between sport and exercise and health, in terms of the primary prevention of certain diseases and secondary prevention (slows progression of disease; provides therapeutic benefits). (Allison, 1999; Oughton and Tacon, 2007; Walsh, 2011). Health provides the strongest evidence of social impact from engagement with sport and exercise. It is one of the more straightforward areas of social impact to explore, as historically there has been greater quantitative research in this area. Furthermore, the quality of evidence in relation to the hierarchy of evidence is stronger, largely resulting from the significant amount of research undertaken by the scientific medical community.

There is generally a stronger and greater amount of evidence to support the physical health benefits of sport and exercise although there is a growing literature in the area of mental health to support similar conclusions. One of the difficulties with establishing that associate sport and exercise and health is determining causality. Many studies examine the relationship between sport, physical activities and exercise across a sample of people at a particular point in time. However, positive relationships exist because people with better health participate more regularly (Oughton and Tacon, 2007).

Organised sport and exercise provide an important social context for tackling feelings of social isolation, a factor in poor mental health. Several studies have demonstrated the therapeutic benefit to psychosocial health of engaging in

organised sport and exercise including improved cognitive function, physical, mental and social wellbeing, and self-esteem and self-efficacy. More generally studies have shown that increased physical activity is associated with decreased levels of mental stress, life dissatisfaction and anxiety.

### **3.2 Physical Health**

There is widespread consensus by authors that sport and exercise has preventative and therapeutic benefits in adults and children alike. There are many scientific evidence of the positive association between sport and exercise and physical health although some reported risks of negative impacts including accidents, injury and undiagnosed cardiac diseases which can also happen without sport (Allison, 1999; Keogh *et al.*, 2009; Oughton and Tacon, 2007).

The dose-response relationship is complex and varies by disease, although there is widespread support for the notion that greatest social impact in relation to health gain would be derived from getting the inactive majority to increase their levels of sport, exercise and physical activity. Many studies support positive physical health benefits with at least moderate intensity activity (Cox, 2012) and that generally there is a positive relationship between additional activity levels and additional improvements in physical health and mortality (Warburton *et al.*, 2006, 2007; Lee and Skerrett, 2001; Thompson *et al.*, 2003).

### 3.3 Primary Benefits

Research strongly suggests that sport and exercise can lead to the prevention of chronic diseases including premature mortality, diabetes, obesity, type 2 cancers, cardiovascular disease (CVD), strokes and osteoporosis and premature death (Warburton *et al.*, 2006, 2007; Mulholland, 2008).

Also there is strong and significant evidence of the association between sustained activity in aerobic sports and lower risk of CVD (Houston *et al.*, 2002; Keogh *et al.*, 2009; Warburton *et al.*, 2006, 2007; Thompson *et al.*, 2003;). Hoevenaar-Blom *et al.* (2011) found that this relationship was activity dependent, with cycling and sports inversely related to CVD, but physical activities such as walking and gardening were not. Furthermore, for sports (not cycling) a dose-response relationship was found. Activities with moderate intensity are linked with lower levels of CVD.

Research also reveal that there is higher levels of exercise and physical activity being associated with reduced risk in relation to other chronic illness including: Stroke (Grau *et al.*, 2009); endometrial and ovarian cancer in women (Gierach *et al.*, 2009; Lee *et al.*, 2012); breast cancer in postmenopausal women (Peters *et al.*, 2009). Authors like Buchman *et al.*, 2012a; Lee and Skerrett, 2001; Moore *et al.*, 2012; Byberg *et al.*, (2009) that suggest that exercise and physical activity is associated with reduced risk of mortality and longer life expectancy. Other studies showed that sport and exercise improves general physical health in different sub-groups of the population, particularly older people.

In adolescents, Klentrou *et al.* (2003) found evidence that moderate activity can lead to decreased illness; Lahti *et al.* (2012) similarly found in middle aged adults that the persistently active had the lowest levels of sickness absence.

Keogh *et al.* (2009) and Wolf *et al.* (1996) found In older adults, that exercise reduces the risk of musculoskeletal injury by improving agility and balance, and reducing frailty and falls among older people. Similarly, Wolf *et al.* (1996) provided evidence from a RCT that a 15 week intervention of Tai Chi reduced the risks of falls in older people by 47.5%. Also in older adults, Tak *et al.* (2012) found that physical activity and exercise prevent the onset of disability. In older men, Parsons *et al.* (2011) found that higher levels of exercise and physical activity are associated with decreased risk of incidence of lower urinary tract symptoms.

Taliaferro *et al.*, 2010; Reid *et al.*, (2000) suggest that participation in sport and exercise promotes positive health behaviours in various subgroups which can lead to a reduced risk of various diseases and illnesses. For example, Audrain-McGovern (2006) found that for adolescents participating in at least one team sport, physical activity had a significant negative effect on smoking progression; Aarnio (2003) similarly found that active adolescents smoke less than inactive ones. Kaufman *et al.* (2012) found that a sports-based intervention increased HIV-related knowledge amongst adolescents in the Dominican Republic. Solomon (2002) presented research showing the importance of sports in teen pregnancy prevention.

### **3.4 Secondary Benefits**

**Further secondary benefits of sport and exercise to physical health are reported in the unit**

Warburton *et al.*, (2006). Sport and exercise is associated with therapeutic benefits for certain illnesses such as cancer and slows the progression of others such as osteoporosis. There is incontrovertible evidence that physical activity and exercise is effective in the secondary prevention of various diseases including the management of diabetes; improving low bone mineral density and osteoporosis (Warburton *et al.*, 2006, 2007; Thompson *et al.*, 2003; Milligan, 2012; Mulholland, 2008).

For particular sub-groups, sport and exercise were seen to improve physical rehabilitation. For older adults, showed that physical activity and exercise adapted to older women can effectively change the decline in physical ability associated with aging. Tak *et al.* (2012) similarly found that it prevents the progression of disability associated with aging.

### **3.5 Negative Effects**

Despite the evidence to suggest that greater participation in sport and exercise enhances physical health, there are some authors that believes sports participation actually increase illness and injury. Several studies highlighted injury as a negative effect of sports participation to physical health. Maffulli *et al.* (2011) carried out a systematic review and synthesis of existing clinical evidence of long term follow-up outcome of sports injuries. They conclude that physical injury is an inherent risk in sports participation and may lead to incomplete recovery, although note that few well-conducted studies are

available on the long-term follow up of former athletes compared with the general population.

Several studies focused specifically on musculoskeletal injuries to children and all found that injuries are common in children. Grimmer *et al.* (1999) found that injuries amongst students playing sport are common (one body part injured for every three participations), but mostly these were minor. They found significantly, higher risk of year 7 students injuring themselves compared to year 10, with elevated risk in some sports. van Mechelen *et al.* (2011) found that girls were at higher risk of physical activity (PA) related injuries and estimated high associated cost. Garrick and Requa (2003) noted that the negative consequences of musculoskeletal injuries sustained during sports participation in childhood adolescence may compromise function later in life, although there is limited long term evidence. In the absence of injury, vigorous participation in sports and fitness activities during childhood and adolescence increases the likelihood of developing subsequent osteoarthritis.

Rolandsson and Hugoson (2003) demonstrate that sport can promote positive health behaviours, there are some studies, which suggest that certain sporting environments may encourage negative health behaviours. For example, in Sweden found that the environment in which ice hockey is practiced can in itself constitute a risk for tobacco usage becoming established among adolescents. Terry-McElrath *et al* (2011) demonstrate substantive differences between exercise and team sport participation in relation to adolescent substance use, with higher levels of athletic sports participation being associated with higher levels of smokeless tobacco, high school alcohol and steroid use.

## ACTIVITY I

- i. Discuss physical health
- ii. What are the primary benefits of physical health from sport?

## SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt about the evidence of effects of sport on physical health, concept of physical health, primary and secondary benefits of sport on physical health. You also have learnt about negative effects of sports on physical health.

## ASSIGNMENT

- i. What are the secondary benefits of physical health from sport?
- ii. What are the negative effect of physical health from sport?

## Reference

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## **MODULES 1: SPORT AND HEALTH**

### **UNIT 3 (KHE 110): Evidence of Effects (Mental health)**

#### **CONTENTS**

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Mental health

3.2 Mental benefit of physical health

3.3 Secondary benefit of physical health

3.4 Valuing health care benefits and costs

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Assessment

7.0 References for Further Reading

#### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

This unit deals with evidence of effects of sport, exercise, physical activities on mental health as well as primary and secondary benefits of sports on mental health and valuing health care benefits and costs

#### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Explain mental health.
3. Explain primary and secondary benefits of sport on physical health.
4. Valuing health care benefits and costs

### **3.0 Main Content**

#### **3.1 Mental Health**

The evidence around the impacts of sport, physical activities and exercise on mental health is substantially less than for physical health. However, the evidence base is growing and research suggests that sport and exercise can have positive preventative and therapeutic benefits for mental health and wellbeing (Walsh, 2011). There is evidence that sport, physical activities and exercise may reduce the risk of developing mental health illnesses and be beneficial in treating certain mental illnesses (Street and James, 2007; Wynaden *et al.*, 2012). Furthermore, unlike domestic or work-based physical activity, sport and exercise/recreation in an organized context provide a social element, which can help tackle feelings of isolation, often a symptom associated with poor mental health (Cox, 2012).

Walsh (2011) suggests that there appears to be a dose-response relationship, with higher intensity workouts being more effective, while Kim *et al.* (2012) suggest an optimal range of 2.5-7.5 hours per week. Cox (2012) argue that more research is needed to better understand dose-response relationships in the area of mental health.

#### **3.1 Primary Benefits**

Both cross-sectional and prospective cohort studies show that sport, physical activities and exercise can reduce the risk of depression and suicide as well as neurodegenerative disorders such as Alzheimer's Disease (AD) and Parkinson's Disease (PD) (Walsh, 2011).

Bowens' (2012) study found that older adults who reported vigorous physical activity were 21% less likely than their counterparts to be diagnosed with dementia. Jedriewski *et al.* (2010) also provided evidence supporting the potential of physical activity to lower the risk of dementia. Similarly, Buchman *et al.* (2012) found that a higher level of total daily activity and sport is associated with a reduced risk of AD; Xu *et al.* (2010) presented evidence to suggest that higher levels of moderate to vigorous exercise in mid or later life are associated with reduced risk of PD. Etgen *et al.* (2010) found that moderate to high physical activity is associated with reduced incidence of cognitive impairment after two years in a large population-based cohort of elderly subjects.

Gallegos-Carillo *et al.* (2012) reveal that individuals with a higher activity level have a lower risk of developing depressive symptoms as compared to those with inactive or moderate PA pattern. PA may reduce risk of depression in Mexican adults. Highly active PA pattern reduced the risk of *depression* by about 56%.

Taliaferro *et al.* (2011) also found that compared to non-participants, youth involved in sport in both middle and high school had a lower risk of suicidal ideation during high school, concluding that remaining involved in sport throughout adolescence can offer mental health benefits. Similarly Brosnahan (2004) found a beneficial effect of physical activity on feelings of sadness and suicidal behaviours in Hispanic and non-Hispanic adolescents aged 14-18.

### 3.3 Secondary Benefits

Sport and exercise can also create therapeutic benefits for depression, anxiety and tension, eating, addictive and body dysmorphic disorders, age-related cognitive decline, the severity of AD and some symptoms of schizophrenia (Street and James, 2007; Thompson Coon *et al.*, 2011; Walsh, 2011). Evidence was also found of associations between sport and improved mental health in children.

Babyak *et al.* (2000) suggest that among individuals with major depressive disorders, exercise therapy is associated with significant therapeutic benefit, especially if exercise is continued over time. Similarly, Hodgson *et al.* (2011) reveal that physical activity programmes can result in benefits to mental wellbeing and assist in the recovery of those with severe and enduring mental illness (SEMI). Furthermore, for patients hospitalised in an acute secure setting, Wynaden *et al.* (2012) found out that a healthy lifestyle programme, which incorporated an exercise programme, assisted patients with psychotic illness to manage their symptoms.

Schnohr *et al.* (2005) found out that increasing physical activity in leisure time was associated with decreased level of mental stress, life dissatisfaction and anxiety. Reid *et al.* (2000) found positive associations between exercise and improved psychosocial health (including cognitive functioning, wellbeing, self-esteem and self-efficacy).

Health impacts across different age groups were identified within many research. Griffiths *et al.* (2010) found that children that engaged in sport had fewer mental health difficulties, emotional, conduct, hyperactivity-inattention and peer-relationship problems and more pro-social behaviours than those with sedentary behaviours. Pontifex *et al.* (2012) suggest that that single bouts of moderately intense aerobic exercise may have positive implications for aspects of neurocognitive function and inhibitory control in children with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD).

### **3.4 Valuing health care benefits and costs**

In policy terms, it has been recognised for some time that higher and more frequent levels of physical activity lead to economic savings. Indeed, Cabinet Office (2002) concluded that health-related costs constitute the single largest argument for the promotion of physical activity. More widely debated are the actual direct costs (e.g. medical care costs), indirect costs (e.g. loss of productivity from absenteeism or lower productivity) and intangible costs (e.g. to individuals and families of reduction in QOL) and benefits associated with sport and exercise. The evidence in relation to health care costs and savings therefore needs to be viewed cautiously and further research (e.g. meta-analysis) is required to draw conclusive estimates of the actual health care costs and benefits of sport and exercise. Nevertheless, the literature does suggest that sport, exercise and physical activity generate significant economic value in terms of potential health care savings.

Many of the studies estimate the costs associated with physical *inactivity*. Katzmarzyk *et al.* (2000) are particularly widely cited papers, both reporting on the health care costs of physical inactivity in the US (2.4% health care expenditures) and Canada (2.5% health care costs) respectively. Kahn and Norman (2012) suggest that physical inactivity costs the UK approximately £8.3 billion per year.

## **ACTIVITY I**

- i. Discuss mental health
- ii. What are the primary benefits of physical health from sport?

## **SUMMARY**

In this unit, you have learnt about the evidence of effects of sport on mental health, concept of mental health, primary and secondary benefits of sport on mental health. You also have learnt about Valuing health care benefits and costs

## **ASSIGNMENT**

- i. What are the secondary benefits of mental health from sport?

## **Reference**

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## **MODULES 2: SPORT AND CRIME**

### **UNIT 1 (KHE 110): Introduction to sport and crime**

#### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 Introduction
  - 3.2 Concept of Crime
  - 3.3 Risk factors
  - 3.4 Protective factors
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Assessment

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

This unit introduces crime and sport as well as those that can cause risk factors and the protective factors to the crimes

### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. explain the term crime
2. Relationship between crime and sport
3. The risk factors
4. Protective factor

### **3.0 Main Content**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

Research is divided between a majority of studies (typically longitudinal and cross-sectional studies) that assess the effects of sports programmes alongside other moderating, protective and risk factors, including particularly gender and other non-sport extracurricular activities; and a minority of studies (typically the case evaluations) that focus mainly on sports participation. Whilst the subjects for a clear majority of studies (again typically longitudinal and cross-sectional studies) are young people generally, minorities of studies focus on either sports participants, or delinquents. This reflects the difference between sport/exercise opportunities that are provided for general populations - the subject of most longitudinal and cross-sectional studies - and sport/exercise programmes

specifically designed for at-risk youth, to promote pro-social behaviour or reduce anti-social behaviour - the subject of programme evaluations.

### 3.2 Concept of Crime

Conceptually a distinction needs to be made between young people generally and young people at risk. The former are exposed to risks of crime and delinquent behaviour, but not to the same degree as the latter. As noted above, the literature divides accordingly between studies of young people generally, and studies of at-risk young people. The relationship for young people generally is one of deterrence or catharsis, whilst for at-risk young people it is a model of diversion from crime/delinquency. At the heart of both models is the theory of social learning, through which pro-social and anti-social behaviours are moderated by interactions with others.

Various authors suggest models for the deterrence effect of sports participation on young people's anti-social behaviour potential (Moesch *et al.*, 2010; McKenney and Datillow, 2001). Nichols (2007) offers arguably the most authoritative review of the theoretical processes linking participation in sport and exercise with less crime, for at-risk youth. This is summarised as a model of 'personal growth directed by values', which includes consideration of:

- **risk factors**, i.e. individual, family, school, peers, and community; examples being broken family, parental history of criminal behaviour, delinquent

peers, unstructured socialising, gender, socioeconomic class, employment status, ethnicity.

- **protective factors**, i.e. personal factors such as self-esteem and personality and social factors such as external support from school and community.

Some authors (Rutten *et al.*, 2007<sup>F</sup>; Jenkins and Ellis, 2011<sup>F</sup>) make a distinction between positive and negative theories regarding sports programmes - the former modelling pro-social development outcomes from sport participation, the latter suggesting that organised sport may promote anti-social behaviour because sport is 'based on competition, self-interest and suspension of relational responsibility, while moral deliberation is reduced by formal and informal rules' (Rutten *et al.*, 2007).

Most attention in the relationship between sport and crime is on youth crime rather than crime more generally (Coalter, 2005<sup>I</sup>). The role of sport and exercise is seen as one medium through which the protective factors might be provided. It is a medium commonly seen to be attractive as a hook to engage many young males - the primary at-risk group. However, other mediums might serve the same purpose for specific groups - including other cultural mediums such as art and dance.

### **3.3 Risk Factors**

Morris *et al.* (2003) review the literature on the effects of sport on a range of different risk factors, i.e. individual (including cognitive and emotional skills and boredom), family, school, and community:

#### **Individual**

- Perinatal and postnatal difficulties.

- Anti-social personality (includes impulsiveness, beliefs and attitudes favourable to deviant or anti-social behaviour, restlessness, risk-taking).
- Anti-social behaviour (includes displays of aggressive and/or violent behaviour, previous offending, substance misuse).

### **Family**

- Parental criminality.
- Poor family management practices (poor supervision/monitoring, harsh or inconsistent discipline).
- High levels of family conflict.
- Lack of parental involvement (including neglect and low parental warmth).
- Academic failure.
- Truancy and low commitment to schooling.
- Early school leaving and frequent school changes.

### **Peers**

- Poor social ties (few social activities, low popularity).
- Mixing with delinquent siblings and peers.
- Gang membership.
- Poverty.
- Community disorganisation.
- Availability of drugs and firearms.
- Exposure to violence and crime within the community.

## ***3.4 Protective Factors***

Witt and Caldwell (2010<sup>I</sup>) summarise the protective factors of recreation programmes designed for youth development - see Figure 3.6. This includes factors for the individual as well as the programme deliverer.

## **Figure 1 Protective factors in youth development**

*programmes* Source: Witt and Caldwell, 2010<sup>1</sup>, p21

Supports	Opportunities	Programs/Services
<i>Affirmation and Assistance to Set and Accomplish Goals</i>	<i>Chances to Learn, Earn, and Contribute</i>	<i>Receipt of Instruction and Care and Use of Facilities</i>
Healthy Relationships Nurturance Friendship  Role Models, Resources and Networks Options assessment Planning Assessing resources Financial Connections  High Expectations and Clear Standards Guidance Monitoring	Quality Instruction Training and Informal Learning Learning and building skills Exploration and reflection Expression and creativity Leisure and play  Challenging Roles and Responsibilities Employment and earned income Influence and advocacy Interaction and membership	Human Services Educational Vocational Mental health Health Social Recreation and leisure Law enforcement Rehabilitation  Infrastructure Transportation Public maintenance Retail Housing  Stable Places Homes Neighborhoods Community meeting places
Main Actor: the provider	Main Actor: the individual	Main Actor: the provider

### **ACTIVITY I**

- i. Discuss relationship between crime and sport

### **SUMMARY**

In this unit, you have learnt about the relationship crime and sport as well as those that can cause risk factors and the protective factors to the crimes

### **ASSIGNMENT**

- ii. What are the Risk factors that results from sport

### **Reference**

Babyak, M., Blumenthal, J.A., Herman, S., Khatri, P., Doraiswamy, M., Moore, K., Craighead, W.E., Baldewicz, T.T. and Krishnan, K.R. (2000).



Exercise treatment for major depression: maintenance of therapeutic benefit at 10 months. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, Volume 62, Issue 5, Pages 633-638.

## **MODULES 2: Sport and Crime**

### **UNIT 2 (HED 107): Criminal behaviours**

#### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 Introduction to criminal behaviours
  - 3.2 Drug taking
  - 3.3 Alcohol
  - 3.4 Violence
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Assessment
- 7.0 References for Further Reading

#### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

This unit deals with criminal behaviour such as drug taking, alcohol and violence in sport

#### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Identify criminal behaviour
2. Explain drug taking
3. Talk about alcohol
4. Explain violence

### **3.0 Main Content**

#### **3.1 Criminal Behaviour**

Many studies measure the association between sport/exercise participation and incidence of crime. Wilson and Lipsey (2000) report lower recidivism by juvenile delinquents associated with wilderness activities. Nelson and Gordon-Larsen (2006) found that those who engaged in relatively more frequent and intensive sports participation were less likely to engage in a variety of criminal behaviours, including drunk driving, and use of illegal drugs other than marijuana. Veliz and Shakib (2012) reveal a weak but significant beneficial effect of sports participation at schools on fewer incidents of serious crime and suspensions on school grounds. Caruso (2011) found sports participation to have a strong beneficial relationship with lower property crime and juvenile crime. Nevill and Poortvliet (2011) found out that sport reduced youth crime in one programme area and reduced re-offending by participants in two other programmes; and calculated returns on investment for the three programmes.

Hartmann & Massoglia (2007) concluded no relation between sport/exercise and a general measure of delinquency over time, because whilst sport/exercise participation was associated with lower levels of some deviant behaviour - shoplifting, work fraud and minor citations - it was associated with higher levels of drunk driving, speeding, and angry or violent behaviour at work. Begg *et al.* (1996) found an association between high sports participation at the age of 15 and higher delinquency at the age of 18.

### **3.2 Drug Taking**

Studies (two cohort, two cross section) include the relationship between sport/exercise participation and illicit drug taking. McElrath and O'Malley (2011) identified an association between higher sport/exercise participation and lower marijuana and other illicit drug use at age 18, with increases in sport/exercise related with decreases in marijuana and other illicit drug use by age 21/22. Dawkins *et al.* (2006) and Rhea and Lantz (2004) found a relationship between higher sports participation and lower marijuana use, while Nelson and Gordon-Larsen (2006<sup>F</sup>) found a relationship between more frequent and intensive sports participation and lower use of drugs other than marijuana. However, Fauth *et al.* (2007) identify an association between higher sports participation and higher substance (marijuana and alcohol) use.

### **3.3 Alcohol**

Sport/exercise is shown by three cohort studies to have a largely non-beneficial relationship with illegal alcohol consumption by young people. McElrath and O'Malley (2011) reveal that higher sport/exercise participation was associated with higher age 18 alcohol use, with team sports participation having the strongest relationship with higher age 18 alcohol use. As reported above, Fauth *et al.* (2007) found an association between higher sports participation and higher substance (marijuana and alcohol) use. Dawkins *et al.* (2006) identify a relationship between higher sports participation and higher

alcohol consumption for white students and black male students, but lower alcohol consumption for black female students.

### **3.4.5 Violence**

The research, mostly from cross-section studies, in the main suggests a non-beneficial relationship between higher sports participation and more violent behaviour. The one exception is Rhea and Lantz (2004), who found a relationship between higher sports participation and fewer assaults for males. Mixed evidence was found by Jiang and Peterson (2012) - whilst non-immigrant youth with a mix of sport and non-sport participation had less violent behaviour; first and second generation immigrant youth with the same mix of participation had more violent behaviour; and for the latter, sport participation alone was associated with more violent behaviour. Moesch *et al.* (2010) used cluster analysis to identify that whilst non-violent adolescents are more involved in individual aesthetic sports; violent adolescents are more involved in body contact sports. Gardner *et al.* (2009) found no association between sports participation and violent delinquency.

Endresen and Olweus (2005) found an increasing association over two years between power sports participation and violent and non-violent anti-social behaviour among young males - the strongest association being for boxing and weightlifting, with weaker associations for wrestling and martial arts. Furthermore, there was no evidence that participants were already pre-

disposed to anti-social behaviour. Caruso (2011) found a weak relationship between higher sports participation and more violent crime. Burton and Marshall (2005) found a strong correlation between sports participation and aggressive behaviour.

## **ACTIVITY I**

- i. What is relationship between drug taking and criminal behavior in sport

## **SUMMARY**

In this unit, you have learnt about the relationship criminal behaviours such as drug taking, alcohol and violence and sport

## **ASSIGNMENT**

- iii. Explain the following terms in relating to criminal behaviour
  - a. Alcohol
  - b. Violence

## **Reference**

Babyak, M., Blumenthal, J.A., Herman, S., Khatri, P., Doraiswamy, M., Moore, K., Craighead, W.E., Baldewicz, T.T. and Krishnan, K.R. (2000). Exercise treatment for major depression: maintenance of therapeutic benefit at 10 months. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, Volume 62, Issue 5, Pages 633-638.

## **MODULES 2: Sport and Crime**

### **UNIT 3 (KHE 110): Pro-social, Anti-social Behaviour and Intervention**

#### **Programme Design**

#### **CONTENTS**

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Pro-social and Anti-social Behaviour

3.2 crime prevention through sport and physical activity

3.3 Conclusions on Sport and Crime

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Assessment

7.0 References for Further Reading

#### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

This unit deals with Pro-social and Anti-social Behaviour as well as crime prevention through sport and physical activity

#### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Pro-social and Anti-social Behaviour
2. crime prevention through sport and physical activity

#### **3.0 Main Content**

##### **3.1 Pro-social and Anti-social Behaviour**

The weight of evidence from many studies suggests that sports participation has a beneficial association with lower anti-social behaviour. Rhea and Lantz (2004<sup>F</sup>) found a relationship between sports participation and less trouble at school and trouble with police for males. Langbein and Bess (2002) found that for most schools widespread sports programme reduced serious incidents and suspensions, and particularly for larger schools. Sandford *et al.* (2008) reveal a significant reduction in behaviour referrals for participants in a sport programme, from a baseline mean of 77.2 to a final mean of 41.2; and teacher perceptions of improved behaviour and self-esteem of participants. Children who participated in sports (or other activities) were more likely to try to resolve conflicts and show respect for teachers and neighbours than children who did not participate in any out-of-school activities. 8% of the variance in anti-social behaviour and 7% of the variance in pro-social behaviour is favourably attributable to sports teams and coaches, largely through a strong socio-moral reasoning effect. Favourable perceptions from combat sport participants of the effects of their participation on social relations and personal behaviour. Wright *et al.* (1998) found participants in a summer programme for at-risk youth had significantly increased self-perceptions, scholastic competence and social competence, compared with a control group and participants in a traditional recreation programme.

Carreres-Ponsoda *et al.* (2012) reveal that youths participating in out-of-school sport programmes had significantly higher levels of self-efficacy, pro-social behaviour and personal and social responsibility than youths participating in no activity.



Metzger *et al.* (2009) found that there is no clear relationship between sports participation and problem behaviour, either on its own or in combination with participation in other organised activities in school or the community. Temporary beneficial effects of sports participation on the pro-social behaviour of delinquents, but no clear effect on anti-social behaviour. Male non-violent delinquency was higher for sports participants than for participants in other organised activities, mediated by higher peer deviance and more time in unstructured social activities.

A joint effect of length of competitive sports participation and fear of failure on greater anti-social behaviour, both within sport and at university. Watkins (1999) found that organised sport participants (particularly in popular, team and contact sports) committed significantly more delinquency than non-participants, although sport is a minor delinquency risk factor, accounting for less than 2% of total delinquency variance. Important mediating variables are age, gender, location of school and level of instruction, as well as other risk factors.

### **3.2 CRIME PREVENTION THROUGH SPORT AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITY**

The Canadian Parks/Recreation Association (1996) identifies a number of programme-related constraints to engaging at-risk youth. These include common characteristics of sport programmes such as a rigid structure and regulation of activities, competition with elimination, and adult control. They suggest that at-risk youths would prefer more flexibility, less rules, less competition and more voice and control over their activities - requirements which are typically serviced by alternative, non-traditional activities.

Witt and Caldwell (2010) suggest that any sport/exercise programme designed for the personal and social development of young people, whether at risk or more general, should be intentional - i.e. designed specifically to produce developmental outcomes.

## **CRIME PREVENTION THROUGH SPORT AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITY**

The following are some of the commonly referred to arguments surrounding sports-based interventions aimed at ameliorating or helping crime reduction:

- It appears that sport and physical activity can reduce crime by providing accessible, appropriate activities in a supportive social context. In other words, sport and physical activity must be connected positively within the social fabric of groups and communities.
- Sport and physical-activity-based interventions must be conducted in collaboration with a range of other strategies and sectors.
- Elite sporting bodies can be involved in programmes directly aimed at particular crimes or communities.
- It is essential to consider how the design, location and funding of sporting and recreational infrastructure contribute to social cohesion, and avoid taking sport and physical activity out of their social context.
- The cases do not suggest ‘one-size-fits-all’ strategies; instead, they represent the value of community development approaches to tailor programmes to particular needs. Nevertheless, this should not prevent us from suggesting common strategies and processes, and collecting examples of good practice.
- Recreation and sport programmes established for the explicit purpose of crime prevention should be subject to rigorous evaluation.
- Programmes should be based on evidence that a problem exists, and that the solution works.
- Programmes should be sustainable.

- Evaluations should aim to identify the factors that influence crime reduction and change in the young person.

Sport is most effective when combined with programmes addressing wider issues of personal and social development, and short-term funding often means that such interventionist projects rarely last long enough to achieve meaningful, sustainable impacts. What is required is long-term investment and commitment to sport and exercise as social tools around which other capabilities can be built. Humanists will argue, and they have a point, that if you provide people with safety and security and the means to make a difference, then individuals or groups will work out solutions for themselves or what works for them. Maybe the job for sport is to provide a safe and secure context to allow this to happen or formulate.

Nichols (2007) concludes that the main protective factors, particularly the quality of leadership and mentoring, are typically considered to be more important than the medium of sport and exercise. The leader is a critical agent for changes in pro-social and anti-social behaviour.

### **Other Considerations**

The potential issue of self-selection suggests that delinquents don't choose to do sport, whilst young people with pro-social attributes do sport. However, no studies support this hypothesis.

Different activities may have different effects - e.g. team sports (social skills); individual sports (cognitive benefits); combat sports (aggression). A couple of studies examine specific sports, including Endresen and Olweus (2005) who

looked specifically at power sports. However, Morris *et al.* (2003) suggest that choice of activity has no systematic effect on programme outcomes.

### **3.3 Conclusions on Sport and Crime**

Whilst there are a range of theoretical and empirical claims for the crime-related impacts of sport, the weight of evidence suggests the most convincing evidence of a beneficial relationship between sport and exercise is in the reduction in crime. However, the evidence review also points to the need to differentiate more between the effects of sport and exercise on the general population and young people who are at risk.

Any relationships between sport/exercise and crime/anti-social behaviour are not direct, but via moderating protective factors, particularly the quality of leadership, and effects on risk factors. A key mediating factor in the relationship is age - young people who commit crime are far more likely than young people who do not commit crime to exhibit criminal behaviours throughout their lives. The focus of many studies around youth and in particular at-risk youth is reflected in the strongest evidence base to be found for interventions in this area.

The evidence base points to sports and exercise activities promoting anti-social as well as pro-social behaviours. Examples of the more counter-intuitive effects of sport in increasing anti-social behaviours were in relation to team sports and power based sports (e.g. weightlifting and boxing).

### **ACTIVITY I**

- i. Discuss Pro-social and Anti-social Behaviour

## **SUMMARY**

In this unit, you have learnt about Pro-social and Anti-social Behaviour as well as crime prevention through sport and physical activity

## **ASSIGNMENT**

What are the crime prevention through sport and physical activity

### **i. Reference**

Babyak, M., Blumenthal, J.A., Herman, S., Khatry, P., Doraiswamy, M., Moore, K., Craighead, W.E., Baldewicz, T.T. and Krishnan, K.R. (2000). Exercise treatment for major depression: maintenance of therapeutic benefit



## **MODULES 3: Sport and communities**

### **UNIT 1 (HED 107): Communities and characteristics of community**

#### **CONTENTS**

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Introduction to community

3.2 Communitarianism

3.3 Categories Of Communitarians

3.4 Characteristics of community

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

## **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

This unit introduces sport and community, communitarians, categories of communitarians as well as characteristics of community

## **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Discuss community and sport.
2. Define communitarians.
3. List and explain categories of communitarians.
4. Explain characteristics of community.

## **3.0 Main Content**

### **3.1 Definitions of Health**

## **3.0 INTRODUCTION**

The term community is rarely understood but used a lot to rationalise sports provision and policy. It is often invoked to imply democratic legitimacy, citizenship, civil society, a feel-good factor and something imagined in the past or the future. Many people in different places worry about the loss of community, the state of communities and the rise of liberal individualism that is seen to be eroding any sense of community. Community as place is usually viewed as warm and friendly. The weakening of a sense of community is often premised on the belief that a set of common values and responsibilities to others has been eroded. Community often evokes something that we want to hold on to, but regrettably is

all too usually elusive, imagined, too fundamentalist, and often refers to something that has been but never is.

Community is usually associated with community building, different cultures social welfare, social capital and stereotypical notions of working-class communities, feminist communities or religious communities. As a term, it is often used uncritically. It can refer to an atrophied sense of a network of trade unions, craft associations, friendly societies, cooperatives, women's organisations, religious organisations, sport and social clubs, causes and campaigns and unitary organisations. Sports communities, in this sense of the word, are often characterised by close-knit bonds or social relationships and the fact that involvement in sport helps to build social networks. More often than not, community refers loosely to a collection of people in a given location, a particular town, city, ghetto, prison, locale or nation wide. In this sense, literature talk of sport and the city, sport and the neighbourhood, sport and nationhood, imagined communities and sport and the global community.

Sport can play a role in improving the lives of individuals, not only individuals, I might add but whole people in the communities. I am convinced that the time is right to build on that understanding, to encourage governments, development agencies and communities to think about how sport can be included more systematically in the plans to help children, particularly those living in the midst of poverty, disease and conflict.(Annan and Mousavizadeh, 2012)

The contribution that sport can make to community has been a common theme within historical, sociological and political thinking about sport (Jarvie, 2003;



Okayasu *et al.*, 2010;Wilkinson, 2010). A wide range of thinkers, researcher, socialists, conservatives, nationalists and fascists have styled themselves as anti-individualists. Anti-individualism is based on a commitment to community and the belief that self-help and individual responsibility are a threat to social solidarity. In social and political thought, the term ‘community’ usually has deeper implications, with the term being linked to strong ties and a collective identity. The notion of identity is often implicated where the community refers to the social roots of any given identity. The notions of both identity and community can be dangerous, although hotly desired. Bonds of comradeship, association, loyalty and duty often distinguish community.

Many terms are readily used to describe particular sporting communities, be they local fans, places, national supporters or groups of people who wear a badge of allegiance to a particular sport or club or sporting nation or fan group or people that support with money. Whether relating to sporting communities or sport in the community, the notion of *communitas* has historically been used to describe situations where feelings and actions of collectivity have united people across boundaries of structure, allegiance, socio-economic status and other social divisions. Questions remain about the extent to which communities are imagined or real, myth or reality, temporary or sustainable, Western or inclusive. They are often imagined rather than real, but both normative and real notions of community, cooperation, mutuality and trust are needed in a world that is increasingly tense, fragmented and in need of a sense of common ground.

### 3.2 WHAT IS COMMUNITARIANISM

Communitarianism is a phenomenon that reveals common ground in the relationship between political and social theory and practical politics. Different traditions of social, cultural and political thought have emphasised the ideal of community. Communitarians have tended to view community, not simply as an object of analysis, but as a source of values, particularly of self-reliance and self-help. Recurring themes are those of social justice, mutuality, a rejection of individualism, social networks, cultural values, power devolved to local communities, and an emphasis on family, neighbourhood and kin. Furthermore, it is suggested that community, rather than the individual or the state, should be the main focus of analysis.

### 3.3 Categories of communitarians by (Fraser, 2000; Olsen, 2008).

**Social communitarianism:** comprises of a core group of texts canons that have developed a sustained attack on the philosophy of liberal individualism. The arguments are very much centred on a number of abstract notions that question our knowledge of social processes and values (epistemology); the nature of the individual and the social world (ontology and metaphysics); and the nature or issue of what we do value and what we should value (ethics).

**Political communitarianism:** relates to a core set of policy ideals or arguments adopted by politicians who have attempted to push forward the notion of communitarianism on to the political agenda. The alleged strength of such a policy is that it lies beyond left and right politics.

**Vernacular communitarianism:** is more concerned with the ideas, ideals and values of a range of social actors and movements who think of their central *raison d'être* as being that of community activists, and that community building is the most important political project.

Liberal individualism is a natural target for forms of communitarianism that seek to establish solidarity and mutuality. From the communitarian point of view, the central defect of liberalism is its view of the individual as an asocial, atomised self. The critique of liberal individualism arises out of its (rightly or wrongly) assumed dominant position, not simply within academic thought, but also in key political institutions, such as the free market, individualism and the rule of law. The individual, must be protected from the state. Communitarian engagement with liberal individualism tends to include some or all of the following arguments. First, that liberal theories of rights are overtly individualistic and fail to recognise that bonds of obligation are not necessarily freely chosen, and that mutuality, reciprocity and cooperation are preconditions of human life. Second, although an individual rights culture is historically admirable, it has gone too far, in that it produces a society that has encouraged people to think of themselves as disconnected from others. This, it is argued, leads to a distortion or misunderstanding of the real meaning of rights per se. Finally, communitarians point to a wholly undesirable and unintended upshot of a society that emphasises too many rights and too little duty or mutuality. It is, therefore, within the gap between the state or governmental provision, and free market ideals, and the

perception of their twin failure, that communitarianism as social theory and political practice has become popular.

### **3.4 COMMON CHARACTERISTICS ASCRIBED TO COMMUNITY**

1. There is no such thing as ‘the community’ as a homogeneous entity.  
There are many, overlapping communities, with new forms developing all the time. Some are chosen by their members; some are the product of ascribed characteristics.
2. Communities exist beyond geography; they encompass a wide range of social ties and common interests that go beyond proximity or common residence.
3. Communities benefit and enhance the lives of individuals, through fellowship, development and learning, and the engendering of a strong sense of mutual rights and responsibilities.
4. Communities can give the individual a sense of identity and culture.  
Communities must be democratic, giving people a collective say over their destinies.
5. Communities must be tolerant towards and respect other communities, and, where disputes arise, there must be mediation by law.
6. Communities, in their diverse forms, create a civic society where the forces of decency can act to countervail antisocial behaviour.
7. Community is usually expressed through association with others in voluntary institutions.

The emphasis on community rather than the individual or the state has raised questions about the lack of definition of the term 'community'. Are we talking about community as place or community as a set of interests? Some feminists, researcher, although supporting the notion of communitarianism, have implied that terms such as 'community' are hierarchical, and that communitarian arguments are non-egalitarian (Fraser, 2013a). The claims of individual liberty and rights versus the claims of community raise difficult issues of the common good, public interest and notions of justice and exclusion. The communitarian stance has particular implications for any understanding of justice. Liberal theories of justice tend to be based on assumptions about personal choice and individual behaviour that, communitarians argue, make sense because they apply to the individual, without society, community or others. Thus, for communitarians, universalist theories of justice must give way to ones that are strictly local.

Are sporting communities more likely to be formed through friendship, or friendship-like relations arising through work or associational ties? If so, then one might expect notions of community to be closely tied to issues of social capital and civil society. Borrowing Anderson's concept of imagined communities (1991), writers such as Bricknell (2000) suggest that the very ideal of local imagined communities remains highly emotive and a potent political and social symbol to those it includes and those it excludes. Many tend simply to refer to two categories of community, actual and imagined. For others, such as Doherty and Misener (2008), community sport is specifically about social networks of individuals,

volunteers and potential social capital, whereas others, such as Sen (2006, 2009), refer to community as a form of captivity, developed through the colonised mind and lacking in real diversity of thinking.

Proponents often contend that individuals acquire their most fundamental human rights and responsibilities as members of particular communities, and not as members of the human race. Communitarians do not deny that societies have obligations to one another, but they insist that it is appropriate that most human beings are moved more by attachments to their community than by appeals to common humanity. Thus, in some versions of sport and communitarian thinking, it is presumed, explicitly or by implication, that one's identity with one's community sports club or team must be part of the principal or dominant identity a person has. This approach has the effect of possibly rejecting normative judgements about sport, identity and community that allow for cross-cultural exchange and mutual understanding of other communities, cultures and the healthy possibility of choice. Community sporting choice and identity does not require jumping out of nowhere into somewhere, but it opens up the possibility of moving from one place to another and lessens the chance of the parochial.

The belief that there is a proven link between communitarianism and social capital, or that friendship is a prerequisite for continual development are all valid critiques that might be questioned by robust empiricists or non-athletes. In response to many of these criticisms, communitarians stress the importance of community, social capital and a strong civil society, and the practical goal of an inclusive community with layered loyalties. The belief of communitarianism and community are likely

to remain active but often illusory or slippery principles and/or notions of, not just contemporary social thought and political practice, but also the normative or real potential of sport to form bonds or bridges between groups of people.

### **ACTIVITY I**

- i. Define the term community
- ii. What are the characteristics of Community

### **SUMMARY**

In this unit, you have learnt about sport and community, communitarians, categories of communitarians as well as characteristics of community

### **ASSIGNMENT**

- i. Discuss communitarians in details
- ii. What are the categories of communitarians

## **MODULES 3: SPORT AND COMMUNITIES**

### **UNIT 2 (KHE 110): SPORTS IN THE MAKING OF COMMUNITIES**

#### **CONTENTS**

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Sports in the Making of Communities

3.1 Roles of sport in the community

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Assessment

7.0 References for Further Reading

#### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

This unit introduces sport in making of a community as well as roles plays by sport in the community

#### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Discuss how sport help in making good community.
2. List and explain roles of community

#### **3.0 Main Content**

##### **3.1 SPORTS IN THE MAKING OF COMMUNITIES**

It is usually uncritically accepted that sport is part of the social glue that helps communities comes together. Sport, in other words, helps communities develop a



shared sense of belonging, sense of friendship and a sense of solidarity between groups and organizations. The believes that local sports clubs provide communities with a sense of place and identity is one of the popular contributions that sport makes to communitarian thinking. It is one of the popular claims that sport is good for the community.

### **3.2 ROLE OF SPORTS IN THE COMMUNITY**

1. The associational nature of sport helps in the production and reproduction of social capital.
2. Sport contributes to a sense of civic pride and civic boosterism. Sport has a vital role to play in the regeneration of deprived urban communities.
3. Sports facilities can provide an important contribution to the physical infrastructure of communities, provide a social focus for community and, consequently, influence people's perceptions of neighbourhood.
4. The power of sport has been diminished, along with the decline of civil society and social capital.
5. A strong sense of collective identification with some teams, rather than being communitarian, has been divisive.
6. Sport is anti-communal, segregates and encourages individualism and a sense of keeping one's distance from others.
7. Sport alone cannot sustain vibrant living communities.
8. Global sporting markets and patterns of consumption have marginalised and replaced local sporting identity and taste.

9. The mutual ownership of sports clubs can contribute to social capital within the community.

It is one thing to say that sport can contribute to the regeneration of deprived urban areas, but it should not be taken for granted that the logic of sports provision necessarily helps to build community. A more nuanced approach to understanding what works where and when, and under what circumstances, is required. The logic of universal social good being developed through sports provision is often challenged by questions about, for example, who is community, or, not what is the national community, but who is the national community, or imagined ideas about community and sport.

### **ACTIVITY I**

- i. Discuss how sport help in making community

### **SUMMARY**

In this unit, you have learnt about sport in making of community and roles plays by community in sport.

### **ASSIGNMENT**

- i. What are the roles of sports in the community

## **MODULES 3: SPORT AND COMMUNITIES**

### **UNIT 3 (KHE 110): LINKS TO OTHER PROBLEMATICS ABOUT SPORT AND COMMUNITY**

#### **CONTENTS**

8.0 Introduction

9.0 Objectives

10.0 Main Content

10.1 3.1 (i) List of Problems of sports and community

3.1 (ii) Sport and capital

3.1 (iii) sports and mutuality

3.1 (iv) Sport and civil society

3.1 (v) Sport and Public realms

3.1 (vi) Sport and imagine community

11.0 Conclusion

12.0 Summary

13.0 Assessment

14.0 References for Further Reading

#### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

The sport and community problematic cannot take place in isolation from other discussions about sport and social capital, sport and civil society, sport and civic engagement, and sport and the public realm.

#### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Discuss various problems of sport and community

### **3.0 Main Content**

#### **3.1 Links to other Problematic about Sport and Community**

The sport and community problematic cannot take place in isolation from other discussions about sport and social capital, sport and civil society, sport and civic engagement, and sport and the public realm.

1. Sport and social capital – does sport help with bridging and bonding?
2. Sport and mutuality – does sport help with building mutuality and cooperation?
3. Sport and civil society – does sport help grow civil society?
4. Sport and the public realm – should we worry about the loss of public spaces for sport?
5. Sport and ideology – the struggle between communitarianism and liberal individualism.
6. Sport and neo-liberalism – are society and sport becoming too individualistic?
7. Sport, post-colonialism and orientalism – do sport and community equate to Western dogma, ideals and control?

Different contributions to the idea of community or communitarian thinking are now briefly explained.

### **3.1 (ii) Sport and social capital**

Social capital is a broad concept, but its attraction to those evidencing and writing about sport is that it is connected to ideas about citizenship, neighborhood, social networks and civic participation. Researchers have shown that higher levels of social capital are associated with better health, higher educational achievement, better employment outcomes and lower crime rates. Its attraction to sports policy architects is that it facilitates an entry into the contribution that sport can make to democracy, community spirit and the weakening of the public realm and community problem. The promise in the associational nature of sport is that it can contribute to building levels of trust among people. Whether involvement in sport through membership of clubs, societies and/or social sporting groups can assist with individuals trusting friends more or becoming active community members, providing leadership in the community, is hotly debated. At the heart of this debate are issues of bonding social capital, bridging social capital and linking social capital, all of which help to describe different sorts of network. The fact that sport can help with bonding does not necessarily imply that this is carried on into other spheres; in other words, the link between bonding and bridging needs to be continually proven.

### **3.1 (iii) Sport and mutuality**

The issue of ownership of community-based sports clubs needs more careful consideration. The importance of the sports club to the community has been widely recognised, and yet, in the increasingly commercial global sport marketplace, there remains the danger of certain sports clubs becoming increasingly divorced from the local or grass-roots fan base or supporter. Increasingly, demutualised societies and communities have failed, in most cases, to give sports fans any form of stakeholding in the community sports club. The conventional wisdom in relation to the ownership of sports clubs remains that of the profit-maximising, investor-owned plc, with the public sector remaining the natural and unchallengeable giants of the modern economy (Morrow, 2000). There will continue to be many areas of economic activity where investor-owned, profit-maximising companies will remain dominant, but there are many other instances where there remains a need for stronger state/civil regulation or a different form of ownership, or possibly a combination of both. When consumers or employees become owners, their sense of self-esteem, responsibility and participation can be transformed.

It is not necessary to dismiss a debate about mutuality as irrelevant to sport. Sport, in many ways, is ideally suited to mutuality, because of the way in which groups attach themselves to a sporting ideal or common objective. The debate about sport and mutuality is at the heart of the development of community sports hubs or community stakeholder models of ownership by and for the community.

### **3.1 (iv) Sport and civil society**

The view that it is good to have sources of power in society that are independent of the state was both popular and controversial as early as the eighteenth century (Keene, 1988). In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, society has come to be defined in, not just social, but political and economic terms. Thus, civil societies today have been described as a constellation of forces that provide a series of checks and balances on the power of the nation state or the local state. At a micro level, civil society is also the terrain of civil and community associations that are potential forces of civic engagement and mutuality. These forces might include the market, in all its forms, or professional associations or mutual societies or voluntary public bodies or sports associations, to name but a few of the bodies that actively hold the middle ground between the government, the state and the individual.

The idea that sport and other forms of cultural activity may be viewed as sites of civic engagement has often led to the suggestion that such activities might be viewed as important arenas of community revitalisation. Community fun runs and sponsored marathons are often used as a means of subsidising sporting provision in areas where state provision for sport is inadequate. Such perspectives reflect a change of emphasis from viewing urban regeneration or community development in purely economic terms to placing a greater emphasis on people and the development of social or human capital.

### **3.1 (v) Sport and the public realm**

The decline of sport in public spaces is one aspect of the sport and community debate that is worth examining further. The concern over the loss of public spaces or the plethora of signs that say ‘No ball games here’ is important for a number of reasons. The decline of open public spaces to be used for sport and recreation represents a loss far deeper than nostalgia or ways of the past. Public spaces for sport are often favourite places to meet, to talk and to feel part of a broader whole. The decline in public spaces for safe sport and recreation is often seen to be of secondary importance, as planners rip through neighbourhoods to accommodate the car. It is easy to dismiss public spaces as something only the wealthy can afford to buy, but take a look at many of the bustling parts of the world – from the markets of Africa and Asia to the street corners of Europe and North America – and you may find it is the poor who depend on open, safe public spaces most. The former mayor of Bogota, Enrique Penalosa, made public spaces the centrepiece of his administration, creating or refurbishing 1,200 parks and playgrounds, establishing 186 miles of bike trails, building thirteen libraries. He asserted that public spaces were not a frivolity, but that a society where people of all income levels meet in public spaces is a more integrated and social and healthier one. Spaces for public sport and recreation are part of the public realm, and giving everyone the chance to experience the very best of what sport has to offer is a vital part of the role of sport in the making of communities.



### **3.1 (iv) Sport and imagined communities**

The idea that sport helps to present an imagined community, one that is not real, is a claim that is often expressed in the research on sport and nationalism or sport in the making of nations. The idea, more often than not, is that sport as an expression of nationhood helps to present an imagined ideal of the nation on the sports pitch, as if the nation is unified, is one community and is real. Alternatively, sport might be seen to deflect the citizenry away from the politics of nationalism by containing national fervour within sporting occasions. Critics of the idea that the nation is the society argue that nations are political and social constructs, often imagined or invented, whose purpose is designed to prop up the established order in the interests of rulers and elite groups. Consequently, sport is viewed as an imagined community serving to support the establishment or status quo. Imagined entities often obscure the harsh realities of life or help people to cope with the harsh realities of life by deflecting from reality, so that one can imagine sporting worlds of unbridled freedoms, rather than the explicitly hostile reality of sporting communities or nationalist communities that curtail freedoms.

#### **ACTIVITY I**

- i. Discuss the following problems of sport in the community
  - (a. Sport and capital
  - (b. Sport and Imagine community

#### **SUMMARY**

In this unit, you have learnt about sport in making of community and roles plays by community in sport.

#### **ASSIGNMENT**

- ii. Discuss the following problems of sport in the community
  - (a. Sport and Civil society
  - (b. Sport and mutuality
- ii.