

# **Kicking goals for social change:**

*An autoethnographic study exploring the feasibility of developing a program that harnesses the passion for the World Game to help refugee youth settle into their new country*



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*It must be possible to harness the passion for soccer/football to help refugee youth settle into their new country: but how does one turn this good idea into a viable program?* This query frames my autoethnographic study set in South-Western Sydney. A Type 2 Translational research framework drawn from the broader field of Implementation Research underpins the study. Multiple levels of analysis began with identifying emergent issues from within the data. Clarke's framework analysis provided the foundation for an in-depth situational analysis. Thorough subsequent analysis opened up the data for more profound scrutiny of the forces at play during the design of the resulting program. Complexity and social innovation theories were brought into the final level of analysis, opening a new path for considering social change processes in health promotion.

As autoethnography is written to analogy, the analysis mirrors a theatre play. The plot synopsis reflects lessons learned regarding the classic challenges of scope, football, finances, and community organising. The character notes present the players, describing the different elements identified from initial data analysis. The complex situation is rendered more challenging by the considerable volume and diversity of the cast of characters. A filtering mechanism was used to determine three primary story lines that emerged: forces, engagement, and belief. They build upon each other, cross connecting frequently. Within each story line a thesis and anti-thesis phenomenon is found.

By examining the findings through a complexity and social change science lens, we find a shifting in the genre of health promotion research. Consideration of the researcher as a non-engaged observer/analyst changes to reveal a wholly-involved member of the processes of change: a change agent. I propose that the genre of health promotion consider the change agent through the lens of social innovation as a better fit for the complex world of community-based health promotion. The autoethnographic methodology allows for appreciation of the researcher as a social innovator. Significantly the tale presents the value of autoethnography as an effective method for research in health promotion, and one currently under-appreciated and under-used.

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# *Dedication*

*This piece is dedicated to the youth of this world – may you find something that you are passionate about to help make peace across our globe, and may you find the resilience to pursue it: Dare to Dream and Pursue it with Passion!*



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## *Some words of thanks*

When I think about all those who I would like to thank for their support, guidance, and contributions to this story, I feel that the list would be as long as the thesis itself, because in fact the inspiration that enabled me to embark on this journey began longer ago than I can even remember, and thousands of people have inspired me along the way.

From the very beginning my family has been a significant force of inspiration and support. In that sense I want to thank my parents for always offering me opportunities that paved the way to open my eyes and my heart to becoming the social innovator I feel I was destined to be. You probably often did not understand where I was going but you never tried to stop me; on the contrary you supported me, even as my journey took me farther and farther away. As I travelled, along the way I met the one person who has most selflessly supported me and believed in me, Thomas, my husband and best friend of many years. From gently encouraging me as I panicked contemplating an MPH, through the journey of working internationally you never stopped prodding me to “do a PhD”. More than anyone you believed it was important, and made the time and space in our busy life to make it happen, taking care of the 4 children and multiple animals as my work took me repeatedly all over the globe. You always had the right mixture of push, compassion, and encouragement to keep me going. How many times did you say “just get the thing done.” Then of course my darling children, who have always believed their mom was larger than life and all pitched in to enable me to have the life I loved along with you – I hope I have not let you down.

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just get on with it”. Like father like son! To my siblings I also add my appreciation – for always believing in me and doing whatever they could to help.

To all the characters featured in this tale – ethics prevents me from giving away your names – but you will recognize yourselves – this is our collective story and there are now hundreds of children and young people who have had incredible experiences thanks to your belief in the power of football to change lives.

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I’ll close this long epistle with a special appreciation to the amazing Football United team and the many wonderful children and young people we have worked with along the way. ***You are the beauty of our world, and our hope for the future.*** Whenever things got too hard, I’d go out to the field, or look at pictures of your beautiful faces and regain the inspiration to continue on with the vision.

I thank you all, with all my heart.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Wahroonga', written in a cursive style.

Wahroonga, April 27, 2013

# Abstract

*It must be possible to harness the passion for soccer/football to help refugee youth settle into their new country: but how does one turn this good idea into a viable program?*

This query frames my autoethnographic study set in South-Western Sydney. A Type 2 Translational research framework drawn from the broader field of Implementation Research underpins the study. Multiple levels of analysis began with identifying emergent issues from within the data. Clarke's framework analysis provided the foundation for an in-depth situational analysis. Thorough subsequent analysis opened up the data for more profound scrutiny of the forces at play during the design of the resulting program. Complexity and social innovation theories were brought into the final level of analysis, opening a new path for considering social change processes in health promotion.

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By examining the findings through a complexity and social change science lens, we find a shifting in the genre of health promotion research. Consideration of the researcher as a non-engaged observer/analyst changes to reveal a wholly-involved member of the processes of change: a change agent. I propose that the genre of health promotion consider the change agent through the lens of social innovation as a better fit for the complex world of community-based health promotion. The autoethnographic methodology allows for appreciation of the researcher as a social innovator. Significantly the tale presents the value of autoethnography as an effective method for research in health promotion, and one currently under-appreciated and under-used.

# Glossary (Lexis)

Name	Description
AFL	Australian Football League (Australian rules football)
ANPHA	Australian National Preventive Health Agency
AR	Action Research
CBAR	Community-based Action Research
CBHP	Community-based health promotion
CHE	Collective Human Elements and Actors
CMR	Complete Member Researcher
CRAR	Community Reflexive Action Research
CRC	Community Relations Commission
DCICHA	Discursive construction of individual and/ or collective human actors/actants
DCNH	Discursive construction of non-human actants
FFA	Football Federation of Australia
FNSW	Football New South Wales
FUn	Football United
IHE	Individual Human Elements
KEI	Key events or issues
League	Rugby League Football
MRC	Migrant Resource Centre
NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
NSL	(Australian) National Soccer League
NSW	New South Wales (state of)
PAR	Participatory Action Research
PCYC	Police Community Youth Clubs
PEE	Political and Economic Elements
PTSD	Post Traumatic Stress Disorder
RSO	Research Support Organisation
SC	Steering Committee
SE	Spatial elements

SFC	Sydney Football Club
STARTTS	the New South Wales Service for the Treatment and Rehabilitation
TIES	<b>T</b> ranslation, <b>I</b> nstitutional or <b>I</b> ndividual, <b>E</b> ffective implementation, <b>S</b> ustainability
UK MRC	United Kingdom Medical Research Council
UNHCR	United Nations High Commission for Refugees
UNSW	University of New South Wales
US NIH	United States National Institutes of Health
WHO	World Health Organisation

# 1. Eureka Moments: Background to this story

I would imagine that most people can pinpoint instances in their lives when they get flashes or feelings of inspiration. Many of these instances are often sparked by a certain circumstance or event that they happen to witness or experience. As someone who lives her life deeply and with sensitivity to happenings around me, I often engage profoundly in life's moments. I am very sensitive to such moments, which I often call my '*eureka* moments'. Three of these *eureka* moments have turned out to be particularly significant, and set the scene that led me to begin the journey I plan to share in this thesis.

## 1.1 Eureka moment number one: Paris, June 1998

“A million Parisians stormed the Champs-Elysees tonight...unleashed by France's first victory ever in the World Cup championship, 3-0 over Brazil in the Stade de France in St.-Denis. Black and white, Muslim and Christian, Arab and Asian, the people of Paris trooped down the avenue as they had during victory parades after World Wars I and II. It was, the French coach, Aime Jacquet said, a moment of ‘national communion.’”<sup>1</sup>

The French ‘rainbow team’, against all odds had overcome local, national and international scepticism and non-belief to win the coveted 1998 World Cup.<sup>1</sup> My then little 8 year old son and I were among those hundreds



*Getting ready to go to the Champs-Élysées victory parade!*

of thousands, and were completely and utterly awestruck not only by the number of fans, but by the indescribable shared euphoria of all of them, and even more so



*World Cup victory parade*

by their diversity. Old and young, rich and poor, black, brown and white, all races and ethnic groups brought together by the amazing victory on the football (soccer) field. Ecstatic people crowding on the Champs-Élysées to celebrate the multi-racial French victory team, at a time when the country was significantly frayed by racial tensions. The French president aptly expressed it when he exclaimed, “What is most fantastic, when you see the stadium and you see the streets of Paris, is that you have the impression that it was each French person individually who won the Cup and was on the field kicking the ball. We're happy, and we're proud.”<sup>2</sup> That incredible

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<sup>1</sup> ‘Rainbow team’ was the nickname the French used for their team because it was a racially mixed team; the term was used fondly and proudly, which was important as it was a time in French history when racial issues were frequent.

experience was my first real exposure to the power of the world game, its ability to bring people together. It was to become one of the most defining moments of my life, *eureka* moment number one.

## 1.2 Eureka moment number two: Sri Lanka, mid 2005

“I am fed up with people coming here, asking the same questions, what I want to know is when is someone/anyone, going to do something about helping us get back to our village?!”<sup>ii</sup> cried the tiny little woman in a mix of outrage and despair. Eureka moment number two. I was doing background research for the Health and Peace-building Filter development in Jaffna, Sri-Lanka, in mid-2005. To situate the context, Jaffna, which had been plagued by over 30 years of bloody civil war, was recently struck by

the devastating 2004 Boxing Day Tsunami. The woman in question had been displaced from her family home countless times and was living in yet another makeshift village, and I was probably the 15<sup>th</sup> person in the space of five months to ask her the same kinds of



*Refugee camp in Sri Lanka*

questions. The over-exuberant, well-meaning yet mostly ineffectual rush of humanitarian workers had all visited her and her fellow community members, most asking the same kind of questions, then going away with nothing concrete to

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<sup>ii</sup> I was doing field research which consisted of interviews with local residents in one of the refugee camps. A local colleague was translating for me.

follow. The consequence for me personally was a vow to make sure that any ensuing research in which I was to partake would be action-research, with an emphasis on *action*.

### 1.3 Defining eureka moment

There is nothing like spending time in a remote and simple mountain village in the lush and beautiful Solomon Islands to enable reflection. Then there is nothing better to further develop that reflection than the eight hour, often gruelling hike back down the mountain, through the thickest of jungle, back to the mainlands. At the time I was still

engaged in the background research for what became the UNSW Health and Peace-building Filter.<sup>3</sup>

Eight hours of ‘round and round reflection’ kept bringing me to the same sentiment:

that all of this

exploratory experience was well and good, but I was feeling less and less that I was truly contributing anything concrete in helping to reduce conflict-induced misery and poverty – to helping improve people’s lives. As noted earlier, I increasingly felt that the passive research was not enough for me – I wanted to be *doing*. Entering a rain-sodden field filled with puddles, my eyes struck upon a



*The beginning of the research team’s long ascent into the Kwaio highlands to visit Kafurumu Clinic*

group of barefoot boys joyously kicking around a dilapidated football ball – the big eureka – flashback to that powerful feeling on the Champs-Élysées – that’s it!

Football, the global game, a globally shared passion – I could find a way to use football to ‘bring people together’ and help newly arrived refugee and humanitarian immigrants settle into Australia. A great idea – a *vision*. Now how to develop this *vision* into a viable program?

This question, *How does one turn a good idea into a viable program?*, frames this autoethnographic study set in South-Western Sydney. The study examines challenges and processes involved in the design and development phases of a complex health promotion intervention that uses football as a vehicle to contribute to building social inclusion in complex socio-cultural settings in urban areas of western countries, such as Australia, that largely consist of refugees from fragile and conflict-impacted areas.<sup>iii</sup> In sharing this story I will contribute new learning into responsive program design in what is increasingly referred to as complex, community-based health promotion interventions.

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<sup>iii</sup> In most countries of the world, the round ball game is called football. In a few countries, for example the USA and Australia, the game is called soccer. Early on in the development years the decision was taken to use the international term, football. That is the term used in this thesis as well.

## 2. Context: Set within area and time specific to this research

In the early part of the 2000s I was working in the area of health and peace-building, with particular emphasis on post-conflict health sector redevelopment. The nexus of health and peace building operates on the idea that a common concern, for example the health of children within a community, can bring people together for a common good.<sup>4,5</sup> What this means is that the concern to promote a healthy and safe environment for children is strong enough to inspire conflicting groups to put aside their differences and join energies in working to promote the health of all children concerned, regardless of race, culture or 'side'. It is of course not as simple as it might sound, and there are many examples of where this idea went horrendously wrong.

The UNSW Health and Conflict team's research provides background to valuable learning in this area and provides a framework for guidance to promoting health in fragile situations.<sup>6</sup> One of the significant lessons learned from this work is the emphasis that understanding local context and history in the design and pre-design phases is crucial. Becoming familiar with context is critical before working in sensitive environments. The research highlighted what Mary B. Anderson has termed the "do no harm concept" which cautions that "best intentioned actions can do more harm or make things worse rather than better" when significant attention is not given to learning before doing.<sup>7</sup>

The UNSW Health and Conflict team's work also highlighted the challenges inherent to assessing this local context. The complexity of influences and the multiplicity of factors underpinning any given community's situation all require attention, and there are numerous and varied processes with which to address and work with communities. Findings in the team's work included a strong recommendation for a serious and in-depth research phase to be carried out prior

to any action in such circumstances. The extent to which this pre-action research is needed is reflected in the resulting framework which includes guidelines and training program.<sup>3</sup>

During this health and conflict research we also learned much about the positioning of the

researcher in regards to their physical and psychological distance from the phenomenon being studied.<sup>8</sup> Davies and Harre make the distinction between the researcher's 'position' and 'role', suggesting that role is relatively static, while position allows for movement.<sup>9</sup> They explain that a person can keep the same role, in this case as a researcher, yet assume diverse positions while in that role given the range of different social interactions taking place in the course of a research project. In our Health and Conflict research, we further learned that it is important for the researcher to maintain a high degree of transparency regarding her role and position regarding the research. To do so, the researcher needs to sustain explicit efforts to be reflexive in relation to the associated challenges.<sup>8</sup> I was to discover this latter finding to be significantly relevant as I moved along on this journey.



### UNSW Health and Peace Building reports

## 2.1 Refugees – more than just an abstract concept

That research in post-conflict countries sensitised me, and I began to realise what being a refugee meant. Until that time, although I had heard and even used the word ‘refugee’, it remained a very abstract and intangible thing to me. I read about the impacts of war, the trauma and torture, but had never even met a refugee. The work in Sri Lanka was eye-opening, and very confronting. Spending time in camps, talking with people, witnessing their plight first-hand – these are *real* people who have suffered all the horrid things I had read about.

At the same time, members of our Health and Conflict team were actively engaged in the asylum seeker and refugee resettlement issues in Australia. With my recent awakening I began to learn more about the issues involved in refugee resettlement in host countries such as Australia and the challenges they face in their settlement, and was inspired to explore a means to work in this area.

A refugee is defined by the United Nations as person who “owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion, is outside the country of their nationality, and is unable to or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail him/herself of the protection of that country.”<sup>10</sup>

Refugees and humanitarian immigrants differ from other forms of immigrants because they have left their country of nationality on account of persecution, or of fear of persecution, thus they are essentially forced to migrate, while other migrants do so voluntarily.<sup>11-13</sup> According to the UNHCR, this may be “on

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account of race, religion, nationality, political opinion or organisational membership”.<sup>13</sup> Humanitarian immigrants are essentially from similar types of distressing circumstances as those with a refugee immigrant classification, however for various reasons have not benefitted from UNHCR-host country sponsorship. They generally immigrate with sponsorship from family members or friends.

*The experiences of social upheaval, the process of forced migration and displacement from a familiar socio-cultural environment as well as often traumatic experiences can result in significant health and psycho-social impacts.*

There are typically three situations that may arise after a refugee has fled: internal displacement, refugee camp settlement, and resettlement in a host nation.<sup>12</sup> The first two usually occur in developing nations and are similar, although in the case of internally displaced persons there may be less humanitarian presence.<sup>14</sup> In all three situations, the experiences of social upheaval, the process of forced migration and displacement from a familiar socio-cultural environment as well as often traumatic experiences can result in significant health and psycho-social impacts.<sup>11</sup>

The experiences of refugees prior to their displacement can have psychological and physical influences on their long term health. Atrocities associated with wartime, large scale persecution and social upheaval are common in many refugee populations.<sup>15</sup> They can lead to physical trauma and mental health problems, both of which can have a severe and persistent effect on health.<sup>16</sup> The breakdown of normal infrastructure also leads to an increased prevalence of pre-existing causes of mortality – most often including diarrhoea, acute respiratory infections, measles and malaria – which are exacerbated by higher rates of malnutrition.<sup>15</sup>

### 2.1.1 The refugee journey to Australia

Refugees, by definition, are a disadvantaged population who are identified as one of the most vulnerable groups in NSW society.<sup>17</sup> As displaced people, they face many unique challenges which are often categorised into three stages: pre-flight, flight and resettlement.

Although generally well established within their communities, people in the pre-flight stage are not immune to the persecution, which will eventually lead to flight. Often the risks and fear, except in some extreme situations, build gradually. The decision made by a family, or in some cases an entire village, to leave an area is the result of escalating perception and/or experience of risk rather than a sudden change to a previously peaceful and risk free environment.<sup>18</sup>

Many adverse conditions characterise the pre-flight context, including:<sup>19</sup>

- Threats to their own lives or those of family or friends
- Death squads
- Witnessing mass murder and other cruelties inflicted on family and other people
- Disappearances of family members and friends
- Persistent and long term political and cultural repression, deprivation of human rights and harassment.

The flight stage can often be desperate although most refugees have an initial clear destination in mind. It has become increasingly common for refugees arriving in Australia to spend prolonged periods of time at intermediate locations. This may include time spent within their own country where they are classified as 'internally displaced persons' rather than 'refugees'.<sup>18</sup> The journeys of refugees from home to their final destination may include multiple border crossings, arduous land journeys, and protracted stays in formal or informal camps. These journeys are typically marked by ongoing fear and often experiences of violence

and persecution from militants, authorities in the host country, those who control the camps, and other refugees. Unfortunately in many cases those charged with protecting refugees may abuse their role. United Nations peacekeepers, non-government organisation workers and local camp staff may exploit vulnerabilities, demanding sex for example, in exchange for access to basic supplies.

Adverse conditions characterising flight stage include:<sup>19</sup>

- Perilous flight or escape
- Disempowerment and deprivation of education
- Extremely poor living conditions including unsanitary conditions and lack of access to health care
- Refugee camp experiences involving prolonged squalor, malnutrition, lack of personal protection and privation of personal space with consequent disruption to personal and intimate relationships
- Family break up, sometimes intentionally to improve chances of resettlement.

Once in a host country such as Australia, the resettlement process begins. Finally in a safe environment refugees are now afforded the basic human rights to which they are entitled. Although this is an opportunity for a new beginning, there are significant issues which are faced by a newly arrived refugee/humanitarian immigrants can include:<sup>19</sup>

- Social isolation
- Disempowerment
- Cultural and language barriers
- Transport issues
- Distrust of authority and difficulty navigating public systems
- Poor living conditions and unemployment
- Poor/disrupted education and unrecognised qualifications
- Poorer levels of health compared to Australian population
- Family breakdown
- Ongoing sequelae of past including mental and physical disability.

### 2.1.2 Resettlement issues

The physical health of refugees is poor in comparison to the Australian population. Common health problems include inadequate vaccinations, nutritional deficiencies (vitamin D and iron), infectious diseases (gastrointestinal infections, schistosomiasis, and latent tuberculosis), musculoskeletal problems and dental disease. Psychological and social problems are also common.

In addition to these various physical health issues that refugee settlers frequently deal with, they are often trying to make a new life in a foreign society with the fresh scars of trauma suffered still unresolved.<sup>20, 21</sup> In addition to Post Traumatic Stress Disorder, refugees have substantially higher rates of depression, and sleep and anxiety disorders, which are often exacerbated by challenging social problems. These mental disturbances can significantly affect the ability of the person to carry out daily tasks, let alone face the challenges of resettlement.<sup>22, 23</sup>

The combined consequences of the above-mentioned conditions and traumatic experiences can lead to a decreased ability to perform work-related tasks.<sup>24, 25</sup> Hence, the employability of many individuals is often affected, which equates to a higher rate of unemployment.<sup>26, 27</sup> Refugees are liable to experience a degree of discrimination and social isolation as a result of cultural differences, a lack of community education about refugees, or economic issues.<sup>24</sup> Refugee families often have limited financial and material resources available to them in the early settlement period. They suffer relatively high rates of unemployment, are likely to receive a low or fixed income, and are vulnerable to housing difficulties (including homelessness, overcrowding and substandard accommodation).

This combination of challenges can lead to social and community disconnectedness.<sup>15</sup> Often a vicious cycle results as the interconnected social and economic issues correlate to an increased risk of mental and physical health

problems,<sup>25, 28, 29</sup> which in turn can continue to impact on attempts to resolve such issues and moves towards healthy settlement.

Refugees granted settlement in Australia receive essential services through government-associated regional departments such as Migrant Resource Centres (MRCs). They coordinate access to health care and economic support.<sup>30</sup> These are complemented by services specific to the conditions of refugees and include English language training, trauma counselling and the facilitation of family communication or reunion. Those in the Special Humanitarian Program receive fewer services and are reliant on their sponsor for much of the support necessary to become economically self-sufficient and assimilate into the community.<sup>31</sup> There are many barriers refugees face in receiving these vital services, which include language difficulties, cultural differences, financial impediments and lack of awareness.<sup>31-33</sup>

Engagement with settlement services are typically intensive for the first 6 months then often decline as a result of poor communication, lack of resources, lack of interest or other issues. While there are concerns concerning long term health problems associated with resettled refugees, programs that deal with ongoing health monitoring and improvement are sparse.<sup>34</sup> This is especially evident when addressing mental health issues.<sup>34</sup>

*It is important to understand that no two refugees are the same and each individual will often face a unique composition of the challenges above. Programs need to take this into account in design and management.*

*Parents and youth experience the settlement process differently with many youth often engaging in the new culture faster and with more success. Youth often find themselves translating important information during visits to services and appointments. This creates a role reversal within the family, which in turn can lead to family conflict and limit their ability to engage in social activities.*

It is important to understand that no two refugees are the same and each individual will often face a unique composition of the challenges above.

Programs need to take this into account in design and management. Australian programs dealing with the entire range of social, psychological and physical ramifications of refugee resettlement are needed to properly support refugees and their ongoing health issues.

### **2.1.3 Specific resettlement issues concerning children and youth**

Child and adolescent refugees can be especially vulnerable to health problems because experiences of conflict, social upheaval, displacement and resettlement can interfere with their physical and psychological development.<sup>11, 35</sup> The chaos and upheaval prior to fleeing accompanies the disruption of many civic institutions, including schools, which causes educational and social disturbances.<sup>35, 36</sup> Children are likely to experience devastating atrocities and, adolescents in particular, may be forced to partake in combat.<sup>15</sup> Fleeing from persecution results in a loss of community, disruption of the family and home situations, and a poor perception of self-worth.<sup>36</sup>

Children are commonly separated from parents or guardians and are therefore particularly sensitive to psychological damage, resulting in them being less able to manage various situations and to lose trust in authority figures.<sup>37, 38</sup> Refugee couples also experience higher rates of marital problems and divorce, which can further amplify the problems associated with resettlement. Parents and youth experience the settlement process differently with many youth often engaging in the new culture faster and with more success. Youth often find themselves translating important information during visits to services and appointments. This creates a role reversal within the family, which in turn can lead to family conflict and limit their ability to engage in social activities. Furthermore, this leads to intergenerational conflict as parents and youth have difficulties connecting and understanding each other's experiences, leading to increased criminal activity in order to gain a sense of belonging.<sup>15, 36</sup> The tensions and sometimes disintegration of the family unit is particularly harsh on children and youth.

Adapting to resettlement in a new setting can affect both the social and cultural identity of youth.<sup>15, 36</sup> The loss of family, friends and an entire social network is further exacerbated by language and cultural differences that can lead to cultural isolation and bereavement. The combination of these factors can result in the presence of a unique vulnerability to social and psychological influences, and the potential for long term health consequences among refugee children and

adolescents means that particular attention should be paid to their health and the ongoing difficulties they face in resettlement.<sup>32, 34, 39</sup>

## Humanitarian Refugees *Special Challenges*

### practical

↳ new languages, cultural & societal values

### emotional

↳ traumatic experiences

### Can often result in

↳ issues of disaffection



At the time of this research, 50% of refugee and humanitarian settlers in

NSW were under 20 years of age, with 69% of entrants under 30 years of age.<sup>40</sup> Young people were highly unrepresented in refugee settlement services. A number of reports began to specifically focus on settlement support for youth. One of the most significant reports at the time noted that more refugee youth services were essential and that Australian services fail to have a coordinated approach between government, non-government organisations and community leaders.<sup>41</sup> More specific to this research were the findings that parents and youth experience settlement differently and that youth as a result need assistance, not only with homework, development of English language skills, and social and sports activities, but also with counselling, cultural education, and family and relationship advice.

Although studies such as the 2006 Community Relations Commission (CRC) report, entitled Investigation into African Humanitarian Settlement in NSW, identified the need to develop youth specific Sports and Recreation programs to aid in the settlement process that could assist to address issues of social isolation, depression and culture shock; there remained a dearth of such types of support offerings at the time.<sup>42</sup> Other government reports had also noted that successful settlement needed complex and multi-care approaches focusing on sport, education, language, social settlement and counselling support; yet there was a lack of constructive planning and presentation of how this is to happen and its coordination with existing services.<sup>43</sup>

Youth workers at refugee settlement agencies were beginning to try to address this, although much of the action at the time was trial and error, given that there was little assessed program activity upon which to base service development. Scarcity of funding also made offering of multi-focus types of programs challenging, and youth workers needed to focus initial support on the more severe psycho-social needs and education.

The complexity of these issues ideally would call for a complex multi-level approach to address them. However the magic I had experienced in my eureka moments had me convinced that there was a simple common thread that could pull them all together – the global passion for the round-ball game of football.

## **2.2 Sport and development, and the global passion for football**

What has come to be termed ‘sport for development’ programs for human development are on the increase both in Australia and internationally.<sup>44-49</sup> Sport for development are programs which use sport to foster individual and community development, well-being, social inclusion and cohesion, often with particular core concepts such as peace-building in conflict-impacted areas. Football (soccer) figures as the one truly global sport with a capacity to connect and engage individuals regardless of race, gender, religion or political views.<sup>45-48</sup> The sport is relatively inexpensive; enjoys worldwide enthusiasm; is designed as a non-violent, non-contact sport; and very importantly is played by both genders, thus is not exclusive.<sup>45-48, 50</sup> In addition, football enthusiasts share an intense love and passion for the sport, its players and its concepts which, as illustrated in my eureka moments, have extraordinary potential. It provides one of the best sports with which to build such programs.<sup>46, 50</sup>

Currently there is an almost exponential increase in the use of sport in this space, with a slow but steady increase in accompanying research.<sup>50</sup> At the time of my study however, the domain was in its infancy. Internationally, in conflict-affected and developing countries, sports were being looked to as an effective means to bring people together, to promote not only health but also education and even contribute to peace-building.<sup>44, 51, 52</sup> However researchers were only beginning to explore the potential for sports to build relationships and social cohesion across religious, ethnic and economic lines. These positive impacts of participation in sport on individuals and communities were beginning to be promoted, however, caution was also surfacing as to potential adverse effects.<sup>45-48, 50, 53-55</sup> Tonts cautioned that the very phenomena that can bond teams and groups around their sport can also exclude individuals and groups and further divide communities, noting that sport experiences can have adverse effects if not designed and implemented carefully to foster positive relationships and provide bridging mechanisms.<sup>53</sup>

Perkins et al's review of youth programs in the US notes that ethnic minority youth, particularly those living in economically distressed communities, do not participate equally in organised sport.<sup>56</sup> For example, this means they can become alienated from broader national and community networks and support that enable access to social and economic resources. It is vital to pay careful attention as to

*Ethnic minority youth, particularly those living in economically distressed communities, do not participate equally in organised sport. This means they can become alienated from broader national and community networks and support that enable access to social and economic resources. It is vital to pay careful attention as to **how** programs are developed and implemented to ensure they are socially inclusive rather than exclusive.*

*how* programs are developed and implemented to ensure they provide bridges to mainstream community organisations and structures and are socially inclusive rather than exclusive.<sup>45-48, 50, 53-55</sup>

Organised sports in the Australian context offer many avenues of engagement in addition to play, such as team and club management, and volunteering in different capacities. I imagined that football, which was at a new turning point in Australia with a brand new national organisation, and a qualification for the World Cup after a dearth of 37 years, was going to provide that perfect, possibly simplifying, solution to the complexities inherent in the puzzle of providing settlement support for humanitarian immigrant youth. It seemed like all the stars were aligning.

I considered that if a football program were specifically designed to include the use of proven effective social intervention strategies with associated factors of personal development with social development, it might provide avenues to harmonious social integration across communities.<sup>45, 48, 50</sup> Of course the resulting design would not be simple – it would need to be multi-layered and include all of the necessary elements involved in complex health promotion program design and implementation; the guiding force of football seemed a magical and simple component on which to build.

This simple answer turned out to be more complex than I could ever have conceived. Unbeknownst to the newly arrived person that I was at that time, the football scene in 2006 was more complex than I could ever have imagined. It turns out that it was fraught with politics, including a lengthy history of racism. But this will be shared in more detail in further sections.

At the time I started exploring this *vision*, there were some fledgling football activities happening in communities with high levels of humanitarian immigrants. Many of these initiatives tended to be built as one-off events, rather than programs designed to contribute to long term social development components. The attempts to work within the local football scene were few, and largely consisted of

providing small amounts of funds to cover registration fees on an ad hoc basis. There was no evidence of programs that were intentionally designed with social and personal or community development processes in mind.

As noted in the previous section, the complexities of humanitarian refugee settlement are well documented. For youth in particular, when these conditions are combined with the ‘normal’ challenges youth encounter in development (sense of self, belonging, desire for emotional and financial independence), young refugees are in situations of particular vulnerability, which can greatly affect their capacity to trust and form relationships with family, teachers, peers and the broader community.<sup>48, 50</sup> As cautioned by leading authors in this emergent area, great care in design and implementation would be needed.<sup>4, 7</sup> Nevertheless, at the time I was still under the spell of my eureka moments, and was convinced that this space held great promise and opportunity – that this ideas of using the powerful and global passion for football to help ‘bring people together’, to ‘welcome’ and support the newly arrived to settle in Australia was brilliant and could work. Equally intent on applying as closely as possible my experience in participative community-based health promotion, I set out to explore how it could be done.

### **2.3 Health Promotion intervention context**

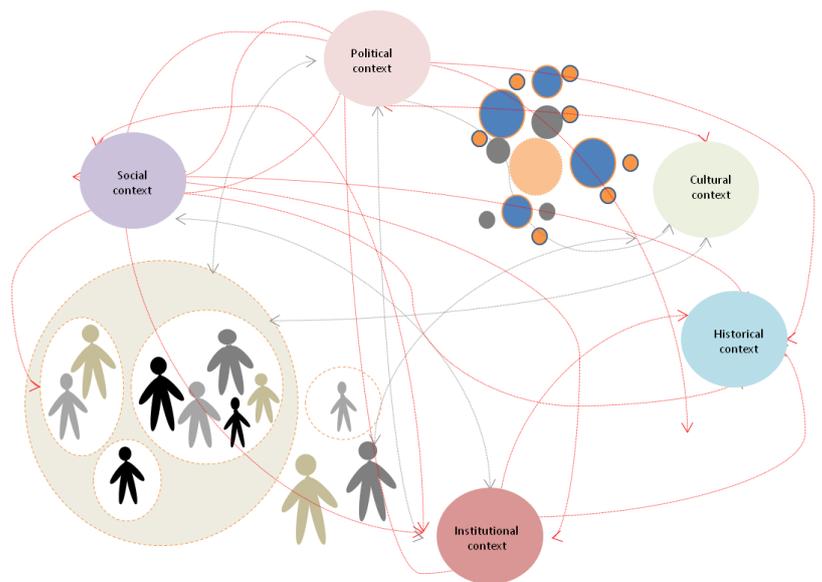
So here I was confronted with a complex situation, humanitarian immigrant settlement; and a potential vehicle, football; that superficially seemed a simple mechanism to meet the complexity, but in and of itself turns out to be complex. Finding a design answer to addressing this through health promotion would not turn out to be any simpler.

My engagement with the theory and practice of health promotion is based on a focus of what I consider to be ‘social health’ in that I work from the concept that people’s health and society’s health are intertwined, interdependent and reciprocal. Literature reflects a number of ways to theorise or categorise conceptual thinking in reference to this, from ecologic to systems theory to socio-ecologic frameworks for practice.<sup>57-63</sup> The fundamental concept is relatively simple, and posits that communities of living things relate to their environment in continuous interaction. An ecological framework recognises that health and social behaviour are influenced at multiple levels by societal and structural variables, and social processes.<sup>50</sup>

These multiple elements ‘inter-engage’ in a reciprocal fashion, meaning that changes in one of these influence changes in the other.<sup>57, 64</sup> So whatever the label, the important thing is that social health is all about

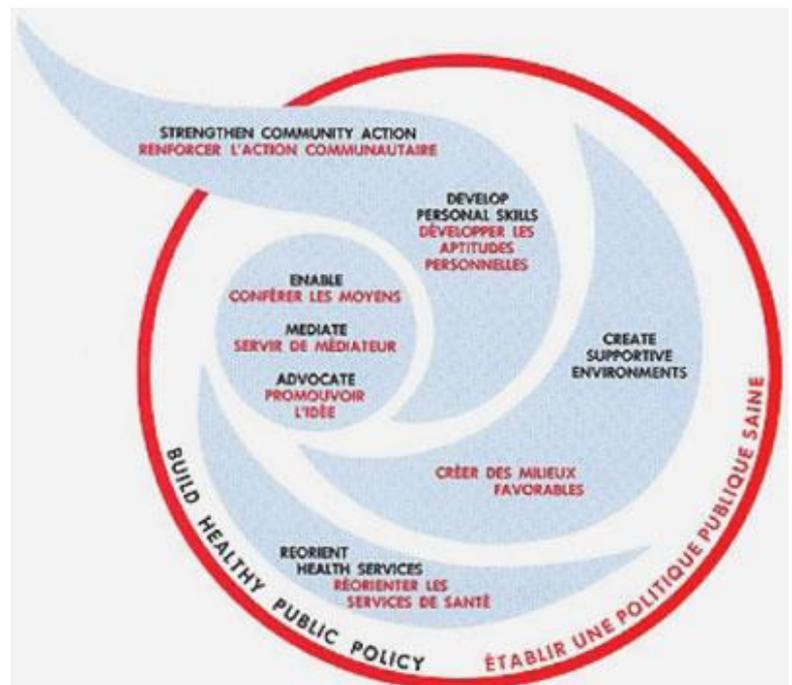
a holistic, social, societal and interactive approach to understanding and promoting health. Through health promotion we attempt to address the vast range of influences on health and well-being. Health promotion is thus a multifaceted, multidimensional discipline, and as such is necessarily complex.<sup>62, 65</sup> To summarise, for health promotion programs to be maximally effective they need to take into account the specific context(s) in which they are to be implemented, need to be developed and implemented with participatory processes,

**Figure 1: Socio-ecologic Framework adapted from Alzarooni (2011)<sup>63</sup>**



should include multi-strategic action, and will necessarily move through dynamic and cyclical processes. Fisher sums it up nicely noting that “context focussed interventions are needed, and need to be adapted to the ‘real world’”.<sup>66</sup>

The ‘founding’ of health promotion with the development of the Ottawa Charter in 1986 was largely based on two fundamental issues with the behavioural, knowledge-based approach to what was previously practiced as a ‘preventive-focussed’ health education approach to promoting health.<sup>67, 68</sup> Increasingly, studies were indicating that knowing about health risks had little relationship to doing anything about them. Also important was the mounting evidence and clarity that determinants of health like poverty and unemployment were stronger predictors of ill-health than disease-based risk factors and needed addressing. Attention was increasingly turning to developing ‘lifestyle’ approaches to promoting health as opposed to preventing diseases; exploring ways to strengthen people’s resilience and optimise their overall state of not only health, but also their capacity to act on the social determinants of health.<sup>57, 64</sup>



*Ottawa Charter for Health Promotion adapted from World Health Organisation (1986)<sup>67</sup>*

This conceptual shift from a narrow, disease prevention focus on individual behaviour to a wider lifestyle and determinants factors that address the broader social and environmental determinants of health, had its heyday in practice in the

1990s with healthy settings approaches in particular. The 21<sup>st</sup> century began with global attention to these in policy and literature.<sup>28, 68, 69</sup>

In Australia however, at the time I embarked on this adventure, I found myself facing a glaring incongruity in national policy and funding mechanisms that underpin local health promotion interventions. At the same time that the World Health Organisation led by Marmot, Sen and others were vigorously consulting worldwide and drafting significant position papers on the importance of a determinants-based approach to promoting health and social well-being, Australian policy seemed to be moving backwards to focus on individualistic and behaviour based health promotion, which in essence is only health education. The national agency currently overseeing policy and funding, for example, is titled the ‘Australian National Preventive Health Agency’ (ANPHA).<sup>70</sup> The name in and of itself is criticisable – why would we be ‘preventing health’? The direction of the agency is medical-model oriented focusing predominantly on behavioural risk factors. An example as recent as 2012 is the front page of the ANPHA web site, which identifies how its policy focuses on supporting “the development and implementation of...preventive health initiatives targeting obesity, harmful alcohol consumption and tobacco.”<sup>70</sup> The ensuing funding focuses on programs that are silo-oriented and on risk factor-based interventions, such as the ‘National Binge Drinking Prevention Strategy’ funding rolled out in 2011. It seemed that my simple *vision* was meeting complications at all turns, even within my own profession.

Nevertheless, as a seasoned health promotion practitioner as well as researcher, my approach to exploring and then building a program could only be a community-based, participatory approach. Research and theory as far back as Freire’s work in the 1950s, then further and significantly developed since the 1980s, underline the importance of active community engagement and participation for significant and empowering change.<sup>71-73</sup> Theory posits that for sustainable and effective change, community-level health promotion interventions need to focus on community empowerment and socio-ecological change, which

have come to epitomise current health promotion ideals.<sup>74, 75</sup> Participative community-based programs are considered to have the potential for significant socio-cultural change, yet to do so according to theory requires careful planning, constant monitoring and adaptation to achieve success.<sup>74, 76</sup> Ritchie and Rowling outline four characteristics that best practice health promotion interventions have in common:<sup>65</sup>

- They are contextual, in that they are developed not only for the individuals within the situation, but for the specifics of the social and environmental factors of that actual situation
- They are participatory in that they involve community members and other stakeholders in decisions about what happens
- They are multi-strategic in that they attempt to address the issues from a variety of perspectives, and
- They are dynamic in that they adapt over the course of the intervention.

While this is all very fine in theory, much research and learning in this area of participatory practices focuses on implementation, evaluation and impact assessment, analysing varying degrees of participatory action and engagement across these phases, and assessing the extent to which participation and reflexive practice is undertaken.

Although literature highlights the importance of participation and attention during planning phases of interventions, there is little actual analysis of the processes, challenges, and intricacies of what the actual *design processes* entails. Numerous authors address the need for planning stages, acknowledging the importance of stakeholder participation throughout. Boutillier, Mason and Rootman present a very thorough and thoughtful analysis of various levels and types of participation in community based research or evaluation, but omit addressing the design processes.<sup>77</sup> Craig et al. in the recent United Kingdom Medical Research Council guidelines on ‘Developing and Evaluating Complex Interventions’ do note the need for a specific design phase, and acknowledge that “all phases are important” and that “the neglect of adequate development and piloting work, or proper

consideration of the practical issues of implementation, will result in weaker interventions, that are harder to evaluate, less likely to be implemented and less likely to be worth implementing.”<sup>78</sup> Yet beyond a short acknowledgement of the importance of an evidence base and appropriate underpinning theory, their framework and guidelines document concentrates on the implementation and evaluation phases. Health promotion guru, Larry Green comes a bit closer when he proposes that it is ‘the *processes* of planning’ that are crucial and not a ‘generalizable plan’. He goes on to note the important elements of what he refers to as the ‘science of diagnosis’, yet he also avoids sharing any research on how to manage the complexities involved in this process of diagnosis.<sup>79</sup>

Apart from noting the need for stakeholder participation in planning processes and acknowledging a need for design processes, the literature focuses on evaluating the implementation, outcome, and impact of interventions, but not the design processes per se. We know very little really about the complexities of a participatory approach to intervention design or development. There seems to be a significant gap in practice-based learning during the design stages of what is increasingly referred to as complex health promotion interventions. What do we know about the challenges and processes involved, what are the key forces, phenomena and processes involved, and what do we need to know to develop an effective design for a complex health promotion intervention in a very complex environment?

If best process in health promotion is multi-faceted, cross-sectoral and participatory, then logically the development of health promotion programs (or interventions) needs to follow the same principles of extensive consultation and engagement. As a practitioner and teacher, I intended that my research reflect best process learning, and planned to be as participative as possible across the period of exploring if, and how, this idea of football as a support to welcome the newly arrived humanitarian immigrants could work.

Once again, this all sounded wonderful in theory, yet this research would still require a foundation. At that point beyond good intentions, a framework upon which to guide the processes was lacking, so I turned to the participatory action research literature to find some answers.

In health promotion it is both ethical and best process to be as participatory as possible. My first inkling then was to strive to push for this study to be implemented under the highly revered foundation of Participatory Action Research. Given that I was planning to maximise the engagement of the stakeholders in the design development, rather than work off an existing framework of practice, I planned to use an iterative, exploratory approach to build the design. I began with an idea, a *vision*; I was then going to move to explore the *vision* with people in the various fields involved, in particular people engaged in various levels of football and refugee support organisations. I planned to use an evolving process and snowballing type of connecting across various networks, to let the learning and ideas compile, build, and eventually evolve into elements that contributed to an intervention design.

At the time this exploration began, I felt justified in considering this as participatory action research. What I intended not only reflected Calhoun's stance that participatory action research "seeks to improve the quality of people's organisational and community and family lives,"<sup>80</sup> it also mirrored Stringers' proposal that participatory action research involves a "collaborative approach to inquiry or investigation that provides people with the means to take systematic action to resolve specific problems."<sup>80</sup> If these two interpretations were applied to categorise my research, it is indeed participatory action research – multiple stakeholders were to be involved in the manner described by Calhoun and Stringers.<sup>80</sup>

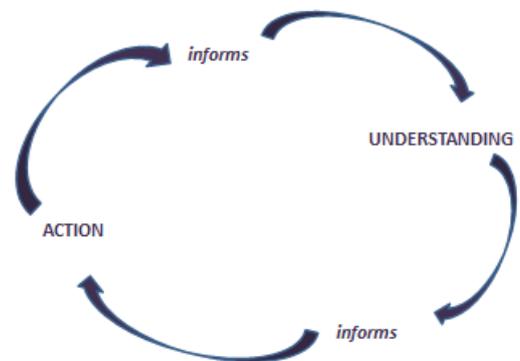
I was to find, however, that there is extensive debate as to the degree to which research is considered either simply as action research, or participatory action research. Boutillier et al. provide an excellent overview of the diversity of the

field and its nomenclature: “Many different labels have been used to refer to largely similar approaches: participatory action research; participatory research; action research; community action research; action science; collaborative action research; and participatory evaluation.”<sup>77</sup> The distinctions among these definitions when applied in practice are often both vague and contradictory.

Recent years have witnessed increasing query as to what extent community-based research can be termed participatory action research, which in some interpretations means that the community members and stakeholders are involved not only in the action but also in forming the research question and direction.<sup>77</sup> All

variants of action research include some form of cyclical process that moves between some form of theory, experience, observation, intention, action and review,<sup>81</sup> referred to as a spiral by Dick, or a learning cycle.<sup>82</sup>

Dick refers to action research as a “family of research methodologies which give equal weight to action and research”.<sup>81</sup>



*Action Research Cycle adapted from Dick (1999)<sup>81</sup>*

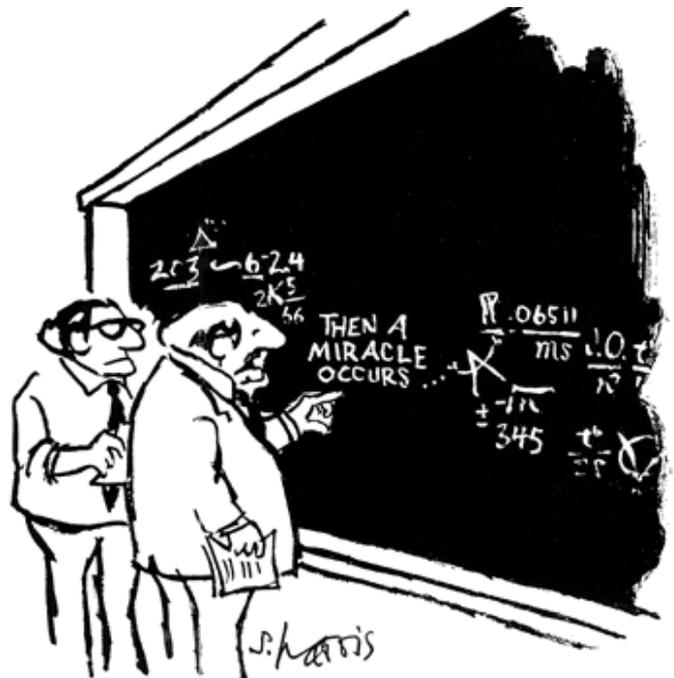
Once again, complexity raised its frustrating head, and this movement from theory to the practice of doing the research was feeling way too complicated for me. In particular I was concerned that although I strove to engage with stakeholders often and consistently, as will be discovered later on, they were not always the same people. Different stakeholders came and went, and I was often finding myself to be the sole consistent entity in the journey.

Associate Professor Jan Ritchie and colleagues can be credited with coming to my rescue in their paper on participatory action approaches in promoting health in the elderly.<sup>83</sup> Their analysis provided the very pragmatic proposal that the important thing is *who* decides, across the diverse phases involved in any given community-

based health promotion intervention: entry, issue identification, planning, action and reflection. They proposed that this element of who is involved can potentially distinguish between action research and participatory action research: when the stakeholders are actively engaged in the latter phase of reflection, this would be considered participatory action research.<sup>83</sup> Given that the ultimate reflection in this journey began and ended with me, rather than the stakeholder, I came to the conclusion that my work was really a variant of action research, with a high level of participatory processes.

That clarification was at the same time reassuring but once again troubling – I was then doing action research, but what would be my framework and/or where would I find it? If I just settled for a highly participative action research framework, I would then still only just be documenting the processes – at best I am providing a highly documented case study. *But is that really interrogating the field?*

Once again I found myself with more questions than satisfactory solutions. I turned back to review my initial query, my research question, and the fundamental purpose in what I was doing: *How does one turn a good idea into a viable program?*, or how do I translate this *vision* into an effective community-based program? The *how* was practically shouting out at me! The different spaces involved in this are, as I have noted, *complex, and the more I interrogated them, the more complex they became*. With



"I think you should be more explicit here in step two."

From <http://faithforthinkers.blogspot.com.au/2011/06/let-me-be-more-explicit-part-one.html>

such complexity, the design process inevitably will not be simple, and I needed to search further to find a framework to guide my research processes and analysis. I needed to look ahead and find the new rather than return to the old.

It was in doing so that I discovered the emerging and rapidly growing field of implementation research, which was developed to examine intervention implementation and effectiveness. Yet another eureka moment – this is the field that held the key!

### 3. Setting the Scene: Finding a Research Framework

The 1990s and early 2000s witnessed an influx of pressure for health promotion to mirror clinical medicine and public health by developing ‘best practice’ or ‘evidence-based practice’. Recently, health promotion guru Larry Green called for a reconsideration about where this evidence base was being culled from, noting that “too much of our evidence comes from artificially controlled research that does not fit the realities of practice”.<sup>84</sup> He and other experts noted the need for just the opposite: more learning from doing, or what this study is about – that of finding evidence from practice. In other words, they identified a need for increased research focussing on the implementation of health promotion programs. This increased importance and focus on learning from practice has become a significant area of research, termed implementation research.<sup>84</sup>

Theory is important in implementation and dissemination research,<sup>85,86</sup> but questions revolve around how the theory is operationalised and implemented in practice, what the challenges to that are, and how they inform learning. Within the broader realm of implementation research stems the more specific study of what scholars have call translational research. Developed by working groups in preventive research sciences at the US National Institutes of Health,<sup>85</sup> translational research is increasing in importance and use in the fields of public health, medicine, and rehabilitation research;<sup>86, 87</sup> in the field of health promotion it is often referred to as reflexive or reflective practice.<sup>77, 88</sup> Translational research is generally considered under two primary types, simply referred to as of Types 1 and 2 (TIES 1 and TIES 2).

In the realm of public health, Type 1 Translational research is the primary approach used, with a main purpose to address practical questions that key decision and policy makers are likely to have, for example: Can this program

work here? How much will it cost? Who can successfully deliver the program?

Type 1 Translational research is used to assess learning generated through basic scientific research testing preventive and treatment interventions (that is, services, programs, practices and products).

Type 2 Translational research examines the design, adoption, implementation and sustainability of evidence-based or scientifically-validated interventions by what the developers refer to as “service systems”.<sup>89-91</sup> Often these are health care settings, however they may also be organisations working in health promotion such as community-based organisations, or even schools. Reflecting Green and others’ calls for increased learning through practice, I argue that Type 2 Translational research is, in effect, particularly appropriate for the field of health promotion. The study of implementation research literature, from which the Translational research derives, provides an excellent framework for examining the design process upon which the ensuing Football United intervention developed.<sup>92</sup>

Leading translational research scholar Woolf remarks on the complexity of Translational research noting that it “means different things to different people.”<sup>89</sup> For the purposes of my study we will use Woolf’s summary which, to paraphrase “simplifies its concept to refer to research-generated knowledge through multiple-phased processes, the results of which directly or indirectly serves the populations for whom they are intended, and are implemented correctly.”<sup>93</sup>

### 3.1 TIES 2 framework elements

Woolf considers that Type 2 Translational research is still in early stages of definition and that to date, much of it is still restricted to a clinical-practice setting. He proposes that the “laboratory for T2 research is the community and or ambulatory settings...where real-world settings...inform the design of interventions.”<sup>94</sup> Type 2 Translational Research examines a broad range of factors necessary for the successful delivery of interventions across diverse populations. Given its focus on real life as the laboratory, it is particularly appropriate for this research.

*The “laboratory for T2 research is the community and or ambulatory settings...where real-world settings...inform the design of*

The United States National Institutes of Health Translational Research Task Force further defines stages in Type 2 Translational Research under what they refer to as the ‘TIES’ framework.<sup>85</sup> The TIES 2 framework includes four specific stages, from which the acronym TIES is derived:

- i. The pre-adoption phase is referred to as the **T**ranslation stage-setting stage – this is essentially the development stage, which I refer to as the intervention design stage.
- ii. The second stage in the framework is the **I**nstitutional stage, or individual adoption phase, which studies the factors that may affect decisions regarding wider implementation of an intervention. Largely influenced by Rogers’ diffusion of innovation ‘Early Adoption’ phase,<sup>95</sup> this is often considered as the piloting or experimental implementation stage, as much of an intervention is further elaborated upon during this period.

- iii. A third phase of wider, expanded implementation is referred to as the **Effective implementation stage**, which studies factors influencing implementation quality and processes of change that may be involved in the wider implementation of an intervention. This period involves examining the extent to which an intervention changes in implementation, and can include assessing engagement of populations, resources, engagement of staff, and participant and or leadership attitudes, among other things.
- iv. The longer term maintenance of an intervention or program, in other words the research phase, examines factors that impact on an intervention or program's long term **Sustainability**. This Sustainability stage rounds up the four stages of TIES.

## **3.2 This research**

The research underpinning this thesis focuses in particular on the first phase of TIES 2 research, that which encompasses the development phase of a given program, or as noted above, the translation stage-setting.

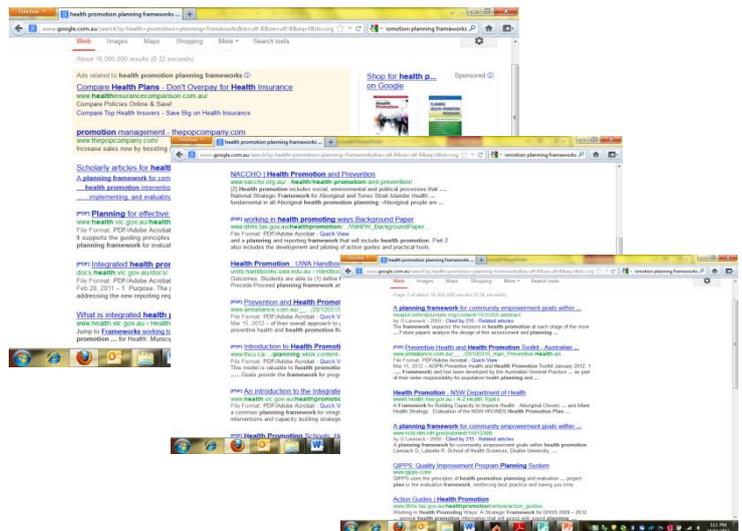
Translation stage-setting research focuses on the development and pre-adoption phases of an intervention, exploring characteristics and circumstances that could potentially influence translation after interventions are fully developed and tested. To rephrase this in terms of a community-based health promotion intervention, this translates to the examination and analysis of the context, participants and actors (or potential actors) as well as logistic and infrastructure characteristics that would be needed to support any program activity that would ensue.

The importance of context is well documented in research, with a number of processes proposed to analyse contexts such as stakeholder interviews, community mapping and literature reviews. In his advocacy for increased

practice-based implementation research in the field of health promotion, Green makes a particular call for a rise in attention to ‘setting-level social contextual factors.’<sup>79</sup> Green notes that if these issues were addressed in the design of programs as well as in attempts to measure and report efficacy it would greatly advance the current quality of research and our knowledge base. As my second Eureka moment in Sri Lanka showed, I would add that this learning then needs to be applied. We cannot just keep asking questions and amassing learning – we need to use that learning, and to integrate the learning into action. The initial action is the design of an intervention.

There are countless program planning frameworks for health promotion.<sup>61, 96-101iv</sup> All of these indicate that a planning phase is necessary, however few of these frameworks actually delve into analysis of design development in this planning phase, and how the translation of this analysis into a viable program should occur.

As illustrated in the recent United Kingdom Medical Research Council guidelines for developing and evaluating complex interventions, development phases are referred to, but the bulk of the guidelines focus on the evaluation of the developed intervention.<sup>102</sup>



*Google exploration indicates countless planning frameworks*

<sup>iv</sup> Although Google is not generally considered ‘admissible’ as a research resource engine, I find the visual of ‘googling’ ‘health promotion frameworks’ an interesting support here, as there are hundreds, if not thousands of pages of frameworks that come up.

There remains a gap in translating the knowledge acquired in the preliminary stages into the design of an intervention or program. Within this gap lie a number of questions: Just exactly how does an idea, or a felt need, become a viable program? What processes underpin this translation? Importantly, why is there a gap, and why is this area under-researched?

Is it because within the recommended participatory processes the practitioner and researcher still are separate, still are different? Is it because within the recommended participatory processes the practitioner and researcher still are separate, still are different? Historically, public health interventions were often broken into action and research. In some arenas there remains a distinction between ‘doers’ and ‘thinkers’. It is still irregular in health promotion; the work of the ‘doers’ is still often analysed, theorised or written about by the ‘thinkers’.

It is not often that the researcher is also the practitioner, or the practitioner the researcher, hence the work of the ‘doers’ is analysed, theorised or written about by the ‘thinkers’.

As a methodology, participatory action research tries to resolve this, and literature is increasingly calling for reflexive practice. For example, Boutilier, Mason, Rootman have produced ground-breaking work on community reflective practice, however they still differentiate between the researcher and the practitioner.<sup>77</sup> Their highly evolved analysis of the participatory action research frameworks still only allows for documentation, for the production of case studies; more is needed to allow for new conceptual learning, in particular during the program design phase.

In TIES 2 I had a framework to translate the learning I acquired as practitioner/researcher, but I still needed to find a method that can interrogate *my* learning.

## 4. Methodology

Qualitative research approaches are best suited to elucidate the deep understandings needed in health promotion research. Increasingly accepted as the gold standard for informing program implementation and impact, I suggest we need an increase in its use in design phases as well, to help understand the ‘breadth of conditions’ influencing program design. Just as analysis of implementation is important, so too is analysis of design: health promotion implementation is a dynamic system – so too should be the design of its interventions.

*Just as analysis of implementation is important, so too is analysis of design: health promotion implementation is a dynamic system – so too should be the design of its interventions.*

Coming from 25 years of applied health promotion practice and policy work with particular emphasis on innovative programs in multi-cultural settings, I initially found it daunting to face the task of research at the level of doctoral inquiry. I found myself continually getting stuck exploring areas of practice involved in the program implementation, spending considerable time reading in the area of action inquiry and reflective practice, until my supervisor helped me with yet another eureka moment – ethnography, and not just any ethnography, but autoethnography.

## 4.1 Ethnography

Because of the complexity inherent in the myriad of social contexts and experiences of the multiple actors and stakeholders involved in community-based health promotion programs, the research underpinning the design of an intervention needs to be able to provide learning and understanding of these phenomena.<sup>103, 104</sup>

Ethnography is concerned with the descriptive documentation of the individuals and processes within a given [research] environment, enabling a better understanding of the socio-cultural relationships within the intervention group,<sup>105</sup> or as Green and colleagues express it, “to learn from the people (the insiders) what counts as cultural knowledge (insider meanings)”.<sup>61</sup> Cook presents a solid case for the use of critical ethnography as being a particularly appropriate research method in the field of health promotion, noting its capacity to delve beyond description or quantifying and explore the often nebulous forces involved in any given life situation.<sup>106</sup>

Ethnographic research inherently involves community focused, multi-method data collection strategies. It enables the researcher to learn from people in the context within which they live, work and play – their ‘social worlds’.<sup>104</sup> Ethnography allows exploration of the socio-cultural, seeking to abstract and explain, hence providing for a deeper understanding of the experience than can be obtained through other research methods.<sup>107</sup>

Savage’s stance that ethnography is both contextual and reflexive, emphasising the importance of context in understanding events and meanings, reinforces the position that it is a particularly appropriate methodology for the design-phase research I was embarking on.<sup>108</sup> I still felt hesitant however, in that traditional ethnography is about ‘the other(s)’, whilst I had an engagement in the research

process. Spry refers to this as “the convergence of the ‘autobiographic impulse’ and the ‘ethnographic moment’”, thus presenting me with the perfect ‘methodological praxis’ for my situation: autoethnography.<sup>109</sup>

## 4.2 Autoethnography

Vryan describes autoethnography as “a way to conduct traditional ethnography with a significantly enhanced role for the researcher: the researcher is visible, a ‘strong member’”.<sup>110</sup> Autoethnography, as a method of data collection and analysis, extends beyond (just) the narrative as it seeks to abstract and explain. In other words, autoethnographers should expect to be involved in the construction of meaning and values in the social worlds they investigate. As full-fledged members, they cannot always sit observantly on the sidelines.

I am particularly well-placed to be the research instrument to tell the story of building the Football United intervention, drawing learning from how it evolved. Not all those involved in Football United share all elements of the experience and evolution of Football United, but the combination of their experiences contributes to a richness of learning. The autoethnographic perspective enables me to include context, both mine and that of the participants, to be part of the interpretation of the data informing my analysis. I cannot separate the context of what is happening from my understandings of it, nor from my professional experience as background – as Lynn Kemp puts it, I cannot “bracket away” my experiential knowledge, or any other context from the analysis.<sup>111</sup>

Autoethnography is traditionally considered to have two clear branches: emotive and analytic. Emotive autoethnography is generally characterised by large slabs of data, and largely focuses on the ethnographer’s objective to bring the readers to an empathetic understanding of what the writer is feeling. Analytic autoethnography

goes beyond the ‘me’ of the researchers, and makes more use of the data. It brings in interpretive analysis. Rather than simply explaining ‘what is going on’ the analytic autoethnographer seeks to refine and add to the theoretical understanding of the social processes under study.<sup>103, 110</sup> Analytic autoethnography was definitely my area.

In autoethnography the researcher is a full and visible member of the research(ed) group(s) and a social actor in the situation under study. Anderson presents five features key to analytic autoethnography: complete member researcher, analytic reflexivity, narrative visibility of researcher’s self, dialogue with informants beyond self, and commitment to theoretical analysis.<sup>103</sup>

The first attribute is that of being a complete member researcher: the researcher has a dual role, as member of the group under study, and as researcher. The analytic ethnographer not only documents and analyses the action, but purposefully engages in it. I felt great relief in learning of this ‘permission’ to be both a researcher and an actor within this process; to only belong to the researcher category would have proved nearly impossible for me as I find it extremely challenging to not *actively engage* in things that I am committed to.

There are two types of complete member researchers: either ‘opportunistic’ or ‘convert’. Opportunistic complete member researchers are either born into the group, are there by chance circumstances (for example, through illness) or have acquired intimate familiarity with the group through occupation, or recreational or lifestyle participation. Convert complete member researchers begin their belonging through a purely data-oriented research interest, but become ‘converted’ due to the complete immersion and membership of the group during the research.<sup>103</sup>

My occupation as a professional with expertise in community-based health promotion, and in some senses lifestyle participation as a football enthusiast, could conceivably place me in the opportunistic category. However it is probably

more fitting to consider myself in the convert category of autoethnographers for this study because my familiarity was more from other experiences than those within this research. I was neither part of the refugee settlers, nor did I belong to the support organisations with whom I was to work over the course of the research. My belonging began with the early beginnings of the study, and increased as the development processes continued.

Although the methodology involves being a complete member of the group, the researcher has the additional role of being the social science researcher – thus belonging to another group as well. Anderson and others caution as to the tensions that this can pose for the researcher, to be able to manage the documentation, observation and analysis, while at the same time being a member of the group. This multiple focus can evoke tension within the researcher – as the researcher must manage the multi-tasking. The tensions I experienced were not so much about multi-tasking, but about wondering whether my reflexivity and analysis was not perhaps skewing the direction of the development. I was engaging so much more wholly than others in what was happening – inquiring so much more deeply as to why things were happening the way they were, or why the obstacles to understanding or forward action were present.

*Although the methodology involves being a complete member of the group, the researcher has the additional role of being the social science researcher – thus belonging to another group as well.*

This phenomena is further represented in the second characteristic of analytic autoethnography – analytic reflexivity. “Autoethnographic data is situated within the personal experience and sense making of the researcher. I am part of the research process, an integral part of the story as it unfolded and that I share.”<sup>112</sup> As an active participant, rather than a passive observer, the autoethnographer then

should expect to be involved in decision-making, and potentially engage in divisive issues.<sup>103</sup> It took me awhile to come to terms with this, feeling initially that I had to refrain from anything but a facilitating role, and not engage in decisions. Interestingly the various group members most involved in the research process found this position of mine as analyst/advisor to be one that was reassuring. They had an understanding that I had some expertise in this area, and thus often looked to me for decisions when the group was in need of guidance or direction.

The third defining characteristic of analytic autoethnography, according to Anderson, is what he calls the “narrative visibility of researcher’s self”: the researcher must not only be visible, active and reflexively engaged during the research, but must be highly visible within the text. As authors, analytic autoethnographers frame their accounts with personal reflexive views, situating their data within their personal experiences and sense making. Here again I, as the autoethnographer, am different from the others engaged in the design development processes; my engagement goes far beyond the experience of the moment because I am more fully engaged in the experience through the analysis, including my own lived experience in the data, and analysis of it as integral to the whole. Further than engagement is the ‘textualising’ of this particular place of the researcher. The challenge for the autoethnographer in relation to this third characteristic is to include the self-reflexivity, and recount it, without becoming the only focus of the study, which scholars in the field refer to as ‘self-absorption’.

To avoid this latter pitfall, the fourth feature in analytic autoethnography involves ‘dialogue with informants beyond self’. This crucial element involves a conscious commitment to engage with others along the journey. Conscientious engagement with the experience as captured through the different data is needed to reach beyond the sole experience of the researcher to “make sense of the complex social worlds of which we are only a part”.<sup>112</sup>

My own penchant for self-introspection made me vulnerable to this phenomenon of self-absorption, but my sensitivity to not overly influence the course of the program design development helped me overcome it. Making sure that I had a regular engagement with various people involved in the design process, constantly bouncing ideas and reflections with them, played a large part in helping me avoid an overly personal engagement.

*Analytic autoethnography permits me, as the researcher, to combine my goal of research with my passion to help young refugees settle and belong, as well as allowing my own feelings and experiences to be included in the data and analysis.*

Just as the first four elements are logically linked and build upon each other, the fifth feature of autoethnographic study, involving ‘commitment to theoretical analysis’, is one of its distinguishing characteristics. The autoethnographer needs to refine, to add theoretical understanding to the use of empirical data to gain insight beyond that of simple narrative description. The fact that this process, in which I was engaged, was not only an intervention design process, but was destined to contribute to higher theoretical learning (my thesis), constantly reminded me that I needed to bring in theoretical analysis. Rather than simply explaining ‘what is going on’, I needed to understand what was happening in the social context and how it related to, or informed, theory.

Analytic autoethnography permits me, as the researcher, to combine my goal of research with my passion to help young refugees settle and belong, as well as allowing my own feelings and experiences to be included in the data and analysis. The pitfall, Anderson cautions, is that the researcher can potentially lose focus of the objective of doing the research and ‘over-engage’ in the field (activities). I definitely had to deal with this pull across the entire time of this adventure, and at

times probably did over engage. The pragmatics of responsibilities to the other parts of my professional life (teaching and student advising) and my family responsibilities in my personal life actually helped me to manage this situation to a great extent. Nevertheless at times I went overboard in addressing this pitfall, as my awareness of the fact that this was a research experience, in addition to wanting to contribute to building a program, pushed me to in purposefully distancing myself.

### **4.3 Autoethnography's analytic tool kit (data sources and gathering)**

This section describes the various data gathered as I explored how the *vision* might become reality. The research period is bounded in terms of the specific time frame covering the development of the design of what became the Football United program. Initial community mapping and key informant interviews occurred from late 2005.

I used a naturalistic strategy of inquiry for my data gathering.<sup>113</sup> Referred to by Denzin and Lincoln as 'committed to understanding the human experience', naturalistic inquiry explores real-life situations through observation and, in more action-oriented research such as autoethnography, documenting the engagement with the actors in the field, in a variety of ways.<sup>168</sup> The Sage dictionary of Qualitative Inquiry emphasizes that this deep understanding can only be obtained through the naturalistic inquiry methods of 'being there'.<sup>169</sup> As such, it is particularly appropriate to research investigating community-based health promotion because it enables the researcher to discover and interpret the life experiences and societal forces within which people live.

My learning was carefully documented from interviews with key players in the various fields involved such as policy, refugee settlement, football and community

support organisations that were held across a two year period. Meetings were held with various stakeholder groups and organisations, and were at times purposefully set up by myself, while at other times I was invited as either a guest or observer as people in the communities learned of my exploration. I also carefully kept logs of email traffic and notes from various telephone discussions. Denzin refers to this as an “omnibus field strategy”, a mixture of data gathering methods simultaneously combining document analysis, interviewing of respondents and informants, direct and indirect participation and observation, and introspection.<sup>114</sup> This mix is particularly important as it supports the range and richness of data needed for self-reflective, first-person inquiry.<sup>115</sup>

Further fieldwork-inspired data began with early steering group meetings, a second series of key informant interviews and focus groups held as intervention design developments started to take shape across 2006, and ended with trialling of early intervention activities through to mid-2007 – a time at which the pulling together of design elements can be considered to have become the form of an ‘intervention program’. The various sources of my data include notes from: planning meeting minutes, program documents and communications about the program as it developed, observational notes, transcripts of focus group discussions and key informant interviews. They are grouped into three distinct categories and further described below.

### **4.3.1 Email tracking/meeting minutes**

Given the extensive written records from these sources in my archives, these data sources provides perhaps the most complete ‘story’ of the unfolding of the program development. In particular these two sources illustrate the different processes occurring along the journey of design development: they document and describe the individuals and groups involved, the challenges that occurred,

responses we used to meet them, changes in the direction that the design of the program took as well as its potential structure, significant moments, and people involved. In other words, as a foundation to the analysis, this data chronicles the dynamics as the journey progresses. The email tracking in particular provides not only my voice as the research instrument, but indirectly the voice of many of the stakeholders involved along the way.

### **4.3.2 Observational notes**

Observational data, especially participant observation enables researchers to understand an experience to a degree not possible using only insights obtained through interviews.<sup>116</sup> The observational data is drawn not only from my own participant and non-participant observation and accompanying notes, but also includes observations from primary stakeholders involved in program design discussions and in trialling activities during the design development phase. Observations were gathered from steering committee members, project assistants, volunteers and refugee youth workers. Their observational data was recorded in both written transcript form, as well as from taped debriefs with me. This was a method that I used in particular with the student interns who were engaged as project assistants. This data provides not only narrative accounts of exploration of program design possibilities, but also includes interpretive content as many of the discussions explore the challenges involved in keeping the development moving toward an intervention design that could in effect be piloted, and discussions of pros and cons of piloted activities as to how they might fit within an overall coherent intervention design.

My own 'journaling' was both in the form of documenting happenings and reflexive commentary on events as they unfolded through a mix of formal and informal notations. Often during meetings, I would note reflections as to how the

proceedings were going and challenges within the dynamics of the groups involved. The sources for these notes are quite eclectic, ranging from jotting down observations during meetings and phone calls, or recording random reflections that came to me as the time went on. These notes provide corroborating data to the other more complete records provided through the email and meeting minute audit trail.

### **4.3.3 Interviews and group discussions**

Notes from a number of interviews and group discussions are included in the data. Interviews and group discussions represent the ‘natural’ data that came from the design process – in other words they reflect the most appropriate data within the naturalistic inquiry method because they occurred naturally as a part of the process of exploring what would be the most appropriate design for a program.

I was able to identify, from my own personal network, key people involved in various footballing activities, and members of community and council organisations involved in supporting refugee and newly arrived settlement. From initial key informant interviews with them and through a process of snowballing from others’ networks, I followed up to organise focus group discussions with representatives from refugee support groups and groups of young refugee football enthusiasts. As my explorations progressed, word of mouth resulted in me also being invited to share my ideas with various policy groups engaged in the communities in South-Western Sydney.



*Youth focus group 2007*

I sought to explore perceptions of the very idea of a program for promoting social inclusion of refugee youth and families through football. As my overall idea was somewhat vague, I initially sought to engage them in sharing their experiences to

date in the area and to learn what kind of ideas they have as to what might be the format such a program might take, as well as getting their input as to the challenges they have already encountered or might encounter, and potential means to address these challenges. It was from this initial round of what could be termed community mapping that a group of keen individuals emerged, with whom I formed what began as a steering committee.

Further group meetings and key informant interviews with selected stakeholders were implemented as various programmatic design ideas starting coming together. This second round of key informant interviews was held with purposefully selected key informants and members of the focus groups. They were identified from those in the initial round for either their propensity to engage with the idea, or for their opposition or reluctance to do so. This second round enabled me to delve deeper into the challenges, the processes involved, and the feasibility of different scenarios that a program design might entail. In addition, this second series of key informants interviews enabled me to assess the value that key people potentially involved in the delivery of any ensuing program would attribute to it, and the level of engagement they might be counted on to provide. I strove to keep detailed notes from these interviews, which enabled me to bring a direct stakeholder voice to the learning.

## 4.4 Managing the pool of natural data (data analysis methodology)

A critical part of autoethnography is the hard thinking about how to ‘re-present’ the data. To enable engagement with the story the data is telling, it is often presented in some form of literary analogy (L. Kemp, personal communication, 2011). My choice is that of a play.

Literary analysis goes beyond a surface reading of a text, story or, in this analogy, the play. As in the analysis of a play, the setting or context within which the story takes place includes not only time and location, it also includes the multiple levels of social reality present. A play is an evolving story with multiple stages and many acts. A play mirrors life, which is ever changing – as was the experience of Football United’s development. Stories evolve, as does life, and as do health promotion interventions and necessarily the processes to design them. A play may have many actors and, like analytical ethnography, is not a ‘one-man show’. The analysis involved needs to go beyond that of the self. Within this construct comes the challenge to reproduce the views of the other actors.

As described above, the data sources are in different forms, mixing query, reflections, observations and straight noting of activity. From this collective compiled analysis the full story emerges, and with it the contribution to learning unfolds. In examining results from different methods of data gathering, the metaphor of triangulation is the common term currently used. Triangulation is used to either corroborate findings or to ensure trustworthiness of the data gathering methods.<sup>117</sup> For this work, I have chosen a technique that more fully recognises the variety of facets involved in any given phenomenon – crystallisation. Acknowledging that there are “far more than three sides through which to view the world”,<sup>111, 118</sup> the crystallisation approach is particularly appropriate for this study where the situation for which the intervention was to be

designed was complex, involving a myriad of actors and processes, moving in many directions. The methods used to study it are thus multiple and complex.

Crystallisation, as explained by Richardson, deconstructs the traditional idea of validity without losing structure, providing a deepened and complex understanding of the phenomena.<sup>118</sup> This approach allows for the diverse, sometimes minimally structured, data sources such as my field diary notes, recognising that they will all contribute to a better understanding of the whole. Each source of data does not have to be comprehensive in and of itself – but has to be comprehensive across data sources.<sup>111</sup> The rigour and structure will come in the analysis, as opposed to the sources.



*Crystallisation of data involved in this research*

## 4.5 The play: It's parts

A theatre play has a number of different parts that combine to tell the story: the plot, subplots, characters, theme(s), tone and stage. As within any tale, it can be viewed superficially or examined more deeply. A theatre review requires

objective analysis beyond the apparent and involves more than a simple plot summary – it must be grounded in the production itself.<sup>119</sup> My ethnographic study was indeed grounded in the action from initial conception and will enable us to see beyond the superficial – to explore the depth of what is really going on as I moved from a good idea to build a viable program concept.

To be able to look more deeply into the story, to discover underlying themes, and explore the characters to understand their different facets brings in Character Notes and further Plot Analysis to unearth the various story lines. To enable me to move beyond the plot synopsis I needed to take a number of progressive steps, as summarised in the following table (Table A), and detailed further below.

***Table A: Theatre review and steps for analysis***

<b>Theatre Review</b>	<b>Steps for analysis</b>
<b>Plot Synopsis</b>	Coding according to genre: exploration of data with community based health promotion elements in mind; data entered and coded in free nodes in NVivo
<b>Character Notes</b>	Clarke’s framework for situational analysis used to delve deeper into the data to explore beyond the surface; framework elements recorded in tree nodes in NVivo
<b>Plot Analysis</b>	multiple methods to interrogate the data to find the “hidden story” within new learning; interrogating the complexity; separating the background noise

### 4.5.1 Plot synopsis

The initial experience of a play is often summarised by critics in the plot synopsis. This is the general impression when you first experience the play: you view the stage, ‘feel’ the overall story, gain an overall impression of the subject matter and genre (in this case community-based health promotion), and see the things you expect to see. Correlating this stage to ethnographic study, it relates to the initial immersion in reviewing data following the field work.

The data was coded using two separate approaches:

- i. Initial coding based on the well-established subject matter of the genre of community-based health promotion, and
- ii. Further exploration and coding of the data to discover new subject matter that emerges.

The initial coding consisted of what is considered ‘immersion in the data’.<sup>120</sup> As I began to explore the data, I put myself in a situation of ‘experiencing’ the journey. Prior to that I made a list of typical topics that would be likely to be encountered in community-based health promotion and those underpinning the program *vision*:

- The overarching goals of a community-based health promotion program, such as ‘capacity-building’ and ‘social inclusion’,
- Health promotion research concepts, such as ‘complex health promotion’ and ‘community development’,
- Program logistics, such as ‘fundraising’ and ‘program organisation’.

Against this list the data was coded within the ‘free node’ section of NVivo. Approximately 30 topics were listed. I then systematically reviewed the data a number of times with the intent to discover and identify the different, emerging subject matter that corresponded to the various elements, which guided the context of the research. This second level was coded in NVivo as tree nodes, with topics either set against the pre-determined list or identification of new topics as they emerged.

#### 4.5.2 Character notes (Clarke's framework analysis)

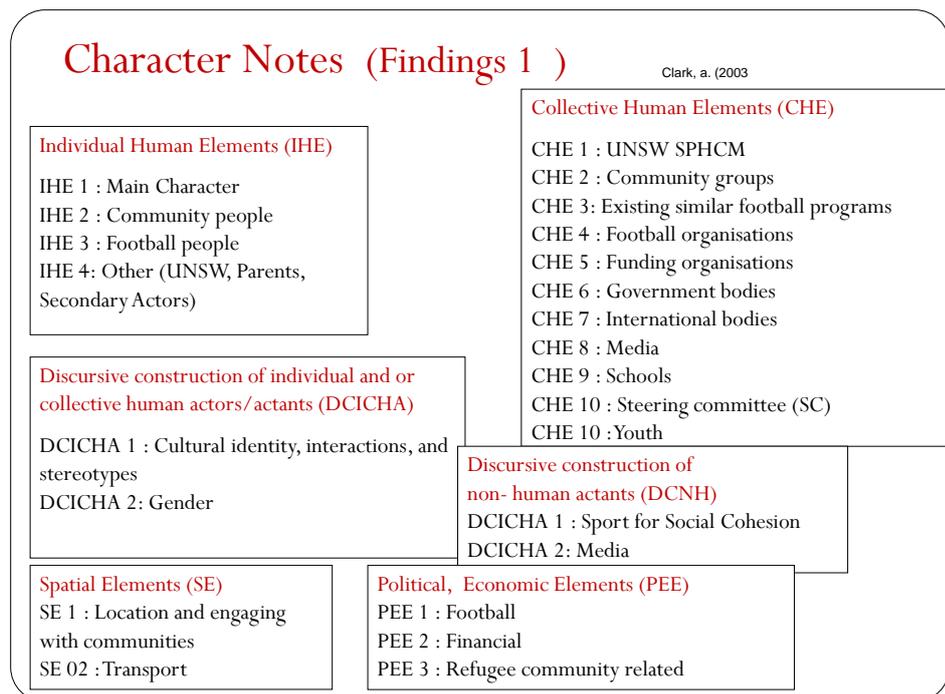
The plots synopsis development provided a good sense of things that a 'standard' production might involve. A more profound appraisal of the play is needed however to begin to look deeper into the characters, to understand their various facets, and what they contribute to a deeper meaning to the experience. This third level of analysis required a review of the initial data analysis with a more in-depth manner of coding. I chose to follow Clarke's framework for situational analysis for this step.<sup>120</sup>

Clarke's framework analysis was appropriate as it enables a researcher to draw on multiple data sources including, among other things, participant observation, key informant interviews, focus groups, and any other data sources the researcher deems relevant.<sup>120</sup> The method allows the researcher to draw together action, structure, context, history and agency for analysis of complex situations. Clarke's framework is particularly suited to a preliminary level of analysis given that it draws on ecological frameworks to map the key human and non-human elements involved in the processes under study. This mapping of connections enables a further and deeper analysis.

Clarke proposes that this method will enhance the analysis as it allows the social side to be added to the more individualistic analysis, which is the centre of ethnographic, narrative and other forms of interpretive phenomenology, thus providing for a full situation analysis. Clarke's framework enables study of the complexities and variations in any given situation. It reflects recognition of the enhanced reflexivity and interpretation on the part of the researcher, and increasingly on those being researched. Clarke proposes that there is a need to take the complexities, multiplicities and contradictions seriously.<sup>120</sup> I thus found situational analysis to be a perfect fit for my first step in unravelling the complexities I encountered during the exploratory research from which the *vision* evolved into the design of what ended up as a complex health promotion program.

Clarke’s situational analysis includes the following main categories: Individual Human Elements (IHE), Collective Human Elements and Actors (CHEA), Discursive Construction of Individual and/or Collective Human Actors/Actants (DCICHA), Discursive Construction of Non-Human Actants (DCNHA), Key Events or Issues (KEI), Political and Economic Elements (PEE), and Spatial Elements (SE).<sup>120</sup> Within each of the main categories proposed by Clarke, a number of sub-categories were created based on her description of each category (see Figure 3). For example, within the CHEA category, a list representing the body of actors was created, such as football organisations, government organisations, community groups and funding bodies. The data was coded specifically to these sub-categories, with the exception of data, which would be better suited within an overarching category.

**Figure 3: Character notes**



Once the data was entirely coded, I set out a table to further interrogate the data. The table contained the framework categories on the left side, a column in the middle where I pulled out and recorded narrative elements, and a third column in which queries that arose as I examined the data (see excerpt in Table B below).

My goal was to lay out as completely as possible all of the elements that might have been of interest within the situation studied. I was initially as inclusive as possible, noting and querying the entire data set, reviewing for multiple appearances of elements across different categories, and eventually filtering out what could be considered less relevant. This step was repeated a number of times until I was able to come to a more tightened data set in which no new queries arose.

The resulting Character Notes, which will be shared in the Reviewer’s Critique (Section 6, page 117) are extensive and shed an interesting light on the overall story, yet they only tell part of the tale. A further and more complicated review and analysis was needed to glean an understanding of the depth of the complexities at play.

**Table B: Initial data inquiry**

Situation Category	Narrative elements	Questions
Collective Human Elements (CHE) CHE 2: Community groups 1. MRCs: AMRC, PMRC, BMRC	1. MRCs: AMRC, PMRC, BMRC - seem to be focal point for connecting w migrant community members; - possible modest support (shoes, gear, ad hoc) - note that working w/ a program like FUn is possible but they want clarification of what, how; - level of involvement from youth workers would be dependent on their other activities; - indications of funding constraints (number of times in different data sources)	- see if funding constraints, time constraints of MRC youth workers is mentioned elsewhere or in other ways? - See if specific MRCs – or PCYCs come in and out or specific actors from them; does this make difference to project evolution? - There is section here where I reflect on funding challenges encountered by MRCs and the indication that they are all in competition w each other—what to do with this?

### 4.5.3 Plot analysis – story lines

The Plot Analysis endeavours to pull all the various elements of the story together. It delves into context, character analysis and story lines, with the intent to unearth the deeper, hidden story or stories. These subliminal stories may either highlight new learning, or perhaps shed new enlightenment on old issues.

Trying to find the ‘hidden stories’ in my production proved to be more of a taxing process than I would ever have imagined. I ended up referring to this very long stage of interrogating the data as ‘drudging through the analysis’. I reviewed the framework analysis, reviewed relationships, developed further tables and checked for cross-referencing, pulling out issues, querying them and then doing it all over again and again and again.

The process began with another period of immersion in the final tables from the Character Notes. I began by looking for emerging themes that each section might present, noting the theme and annotating the context. The results of initial examination produced some action-oriented and programmatic elements, such as issues involved in moving forward with the football sector (see excerpt, Table C).

I experimented with another examination which involved matrixing the results with the issues in one column, the contemplated design response(s) in another, reflective comments based on my years of experience and preliminary research in a third column, and then a final column for annotating how they related to theory (see Table C). Initially I was not satisfied that the resulting learning was anything more than a case study of challenges and attempting to overcome them. In fact, some of the learning in this step actually ended up further informing the Character Notes and Plot Synopsis.

I then returned to review my Character Notes again with the aim of an interpretive analysis looking to go beyond the descriptive, beyond ‘what was going on’ – I

needed to start to figure out ‘why’ and ‘what does it mean?’ I systematically worked through the Character Notes looking for processes, concepts and commonalities that went beyond description of actions or people, and looking to see if there were any cross-synergies. An initial list was developed, interrogated with my supervisor and reviewed multiple times until we were able to focus it down to a mix of processes and concepts that were underpinning the story lines.

*Table C: Excerpt from issues/response analysis*

Issue	Pilot Responses	Comments	What does this mean for Theory
- socio-economic barriers to participation in organised football	development of our own activities: - local park - after school	created new issues: - finding sustainable funding - sourcing qualified personnel to coach - need for material support - logistic issues:	<p>Mittelmark’s exemplary community building</p> <p>Strengths-based approach/ cap bdlg</p> <p>Evolution from attempted PAR – to CRAR – to Practice-based research and need to examine role/place of change agent</p>
- finding sustainable funding	- submitting grants - fund raising	early in program; no “track record”; significant funding difficult to source - ‘research’ makes some funders ‘nervous’	
- sourcing qualified personnel to coach - need for material support - logistic issues:	- worked network to find people sensitive to program idea - volunteers across all scopes of project - donations	need to be careful not to over-solicit volunteers Seeking “favours” constantly can lead to exhausting sources	
- over-consultation led to inertia “you are the expert, you tell us”...“sometimes democracy does not work and someone [you] have to take charge”...	- leadership needed: ABB took on stronger role – more of a director than ‘guider’	- need for constant energy source of engagement from outside to foster developing it from within (“sometimes you need to take charge”)	
- advisory group members sporadic engagement	- reformulated to use “group of advisors” as needed		
Partner groups over committed; not available to drive program; funding competitive in this sector leading to competition rather than collaboration	- implement training to build capacity both for program purposes and for participants themselves		
- initial cap building did not work	- implement training to build capacity both for program purposes and for participants themselves		

Once again I set the various concepts into a matrix, against all of the Character Notes categories, in order to delve deeper – to discern more fully if there was any difference in level. This step enabled me to start seeing two different levels ranging from a simple analysis to a more overarching meta-analysis (see Table D).

**Table D: Excerpt concept analysis matrix**

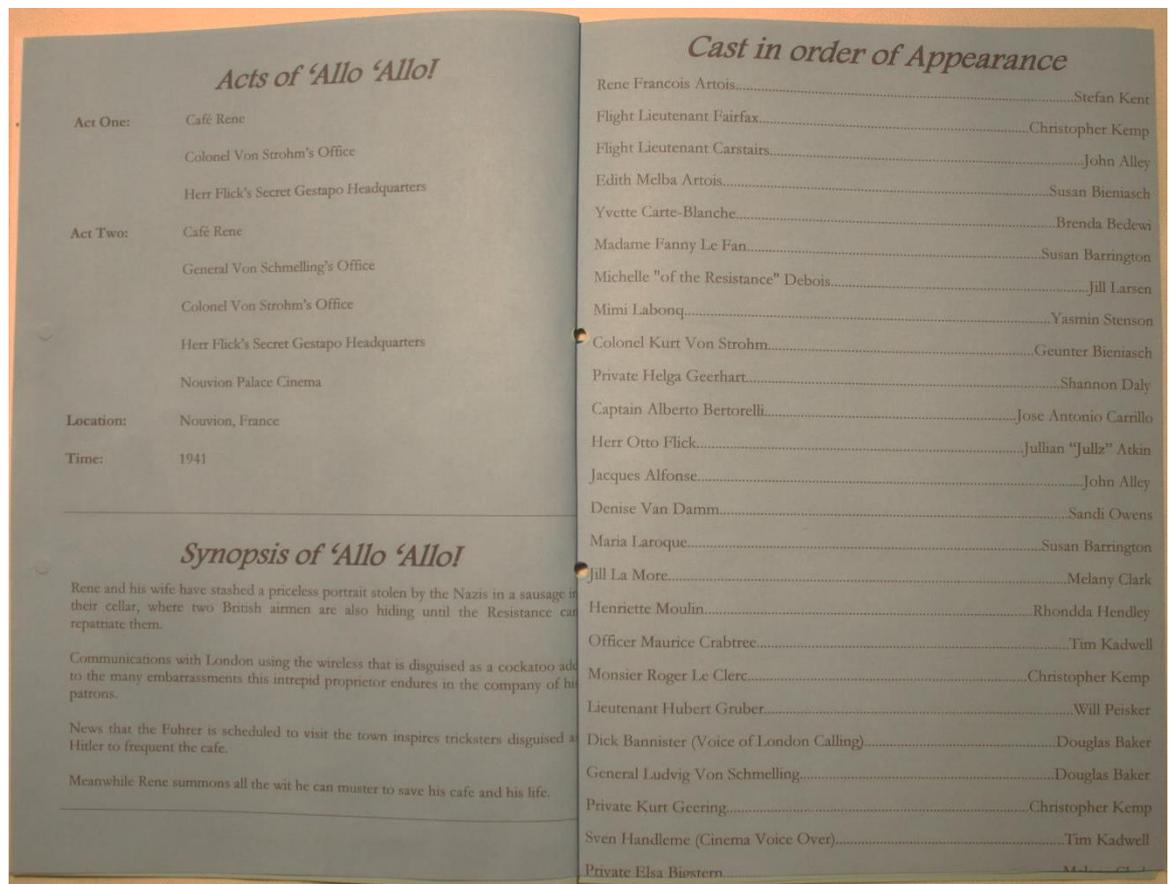
	Drivers		Believers		need overarching name		need overarching name	
	Internal	External	Believers	Non-believers	Adhering to principles	Pragmatics	Expectations	Reality
<b>IHE I people</b>	myself, Gode, Naomi, Serrie, Ray, Majiidi	Juliana, Adama, Mohamed D, Sarjo, Gary,						

I then wrote an initial draft section that attempted to pull this learning together, concentrating on the primary analysis level. Against this draft I applied an editing framework where I queried each section to bring out the following questions:

- How are they (the concepts identified) important?
- What did they do?
- How did they move the overall story of development of the FUn design forward?
- Conclusion – what do you think about (that particular section of) the story – is it about keeping these in tension? Is it about finding ways to ensure that both exist and contribute?

This final step enabled me to focus and finalise the Plot Analysis.

## 5. Playbill



*An example of a playbill including the Acts, Synopsis and Cast (actors)*

The playbill provides the audience with an overview of the story that is about to unfold. It contains enough information for the audience to be confident about what they expect to see. The plot synopsis gives the viewer a context in which to frame the play, and the character notes identify the roles of the various actors. In this example of the playbill from the local 'Wingz' amateur theatre company production of 'Allo, 'Allo!, a play by David Croft and Jeremy Lloyd, the Acts and Synopsis, as in Section 5.1 Plot synopsis, outline the setting for the play and the story, and the list of the Cast of characters both names the characters and the actors who play them, as in Section 5.2 Character notes. Worth noting, and discussed later, is that in the production of 'Allo 'Allo!, as in this play, some actors played a number of parts.

## **5.1 Plot synopsis: The same old story – or is it?**

A first viewing of the plot synopsis presents a classically simple setting: health promotion practitioner explores literature; goes through the steps of meeting and interrogating key people and some peripheral players; and notes, observes and annotates the processes attempting to build a program. When viewed superficially, the resulting scenario reflected the classic challenges that most community-based health promotion initiatives experience: there were particular political sensitivities, financial stresses and complexities with community and partner relationships. However looking beyond the surface through the initial situational analysis produced learning that would relate to practical aspects of the design process.

### **5.1.1 Passion and politics in Australia's football scene**

The challenges encountered in the football scene were extensive, with some expected and others completely unforeseen. Some of the logistical challenges that often prevent refugee youth from fully engaging in mainstream football are not necessarily unique to their situation. One key informant from the mainstream football sector pointed out to me that most socio-economically challenged families encountered the same challenges of cost and transport. What was different, according to my research, was that settled Australians generally managed the burden and helped each other out, for example in car-pooling, or negotiating fee settlement processes. Newly arrived families were often uneasy in asking for help, so generally youth engagement in the sport depended on situations when particularly sensitive and dedicated coaches made themselves available to assist eager youth to overcome the logistic of engagement. This rather classic challenge of logistics seemed at first to be one that might be relatively easy

to resolve through a well-resourced and planned program. Of course had it been so easy this thesis would never have been written.

Perhaps the most surprising of the challenges encountered during this journey was the prevailing attitude in the footballing arena. I was truly astounded to find a general lack of empathy and capacity to understand the challenges encountered by the newly arrived humanitarian settlers, and a relative 'lack of welcome' from much of the sector's organising bodies and people. I expected that a sport, which is in competition with many other sports for talent, participation and notoriety, would welcome with open arms new, often talented, and always passionate enthusiasts. I imagined that the football sector would do whatever it takes to enable their participation. I could not have been more wrong, and learned another significant lesson in the importance of understanding history before barging into action.

Johnny Warren, one of Australia's greatest footballers, described the combination of influences on Australia's football history – the history of player/club composition, governance and management of football prior to and during the period of this research – as having “entrenched cultural and institutional resistance”.<sup>121</sup>

Although Australia was one of the 6 countries in the governing body of world football as far back as 1880, football (then known as soccer) was a poor cousin compared to rugby and Australian Football (“AFL or Aussie Rules”), both of which enjoyed enthusiasm among the largely ‘Anglo-Australian’ dominated sports scene prior to World War II. Historically, the rise of football mirrors the increasing mix of cultures in Australia, which accompanied the influx of migration following the Second World War.

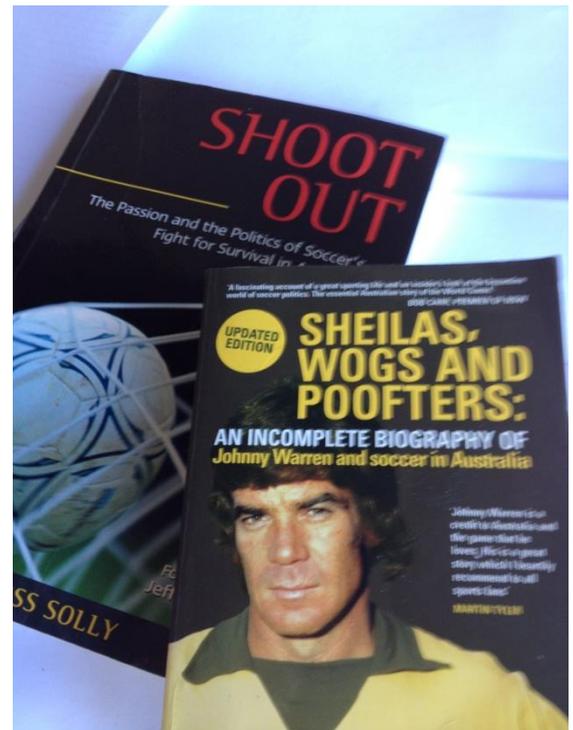
With exception of trauma-induced complexities, the post-World War II migrants, largely arrived from Southern Europe and the Balkans, experienced many of the same settlement challenges that the humanitarian immigrants of the late 1990s and early 2000s faced: cultural unfamiliarity and a lack of English language skills, relying heavily on children to break down barriers of language and cultural differences.<sup>121</sup>

Football, on the one hand, was to be a ‘safe haven’ for the ‘wogs’ as they were often referred to, where they “would gather on weekends and play the game they loved”.<sup>121</sup> But at the same time it

was somewhat of a phenomenon of marginalisation. As numerous existing clubs at the time refused access to some migrants, many groups formed what became largely ethnically based clubs.

While it is beyond the scope of this thesis to recount the full history of the complexities involved in the development of the sport in Australia, the historical prominence of ethnic based clubs at all levels of the game, ranging from local junior clubs all of the way through to the national leagues, has had a significant influence on the management of the sport prior to 2002/3. The ethnicity of the system resulted in consequences such as:

- Disenfranchised ‘mainstream’ white Anglo populations who would not engage with National Soccer League (NSL) teams, including a lack of mainstream corporate and media support for the NSL;
- Perceptions that football was ‘wog’ ball, resulting in a large transfer of players after the ages of nine and ten across to mainstream sports (rugby league and Australian Football League (AFL));



*Landmark books covering Australian football politics*<sup>121 122</sup>

- Historic ethnic rivalries played out by fans in local and NSL matches, often resulting in on-field or spectator-based violent episodes.

This ethnicity resulted in a strong aversion toward opening the sport to the newly arrived humanitarian immigrants in the latter 1990s and early 2000s. Many in the football scene professed anticipation that ‘they’ would engage in the sport via ethnic groups and consequently recreate the tensions that the sport was trying to overcome.

The governance of the football scene during the 1990s and early 2000s was organised through a system ranging from local clubs; through to state, regional and national bodies – characteristic of the federated Australian Government systems. Prior to 2002/3, and similar to most sports in Australia at the time, the Australian National Soccer Board and its constitution was based on State interests, with voting rights weighted to high participation states – chiefly New South Wales and Victoria. This largely constrained strategic opportunities for the development of the sport. The Australian National Soccer Board was often stuck in a quagmire of state and ethnic politics, where wheeling and dealing frequently resulted in some controversial people occupying Chairman and Presidential roles. Board meetings were fraught with dissension, with even a few examples of physical fights!<sup>122</sup> There was frequent and large turnover at board level(s) and in club ownership, which resulted in a general public and corporate perception that football and its administration was incompetent. On the football side, attitudes waxed from frustration to despair, and eventually cynicism as to whether the game could ever achieve its potential.

Impacts on the game itself resulted in high level players leaving the country to play abroad and factional divisions among state federations with some being so jaded by the history of incompetence at the state and national federation level as to consider alternate organisations and approaches. Tensions and dissensions grew to the point where the national government intervened. Following a nationally commissioned study about the situation, the 2003 Crawford Report, Prime

Minister Howard brought in football supporter and corporate magnate Frank Lowy to reorganise the system, providing an accompanying large infusion of funds (\$15 million) to support the reorganisation process.<sup>122</sup>

The scene upon which I entered with my eureka *vision* was thus one of ethnic suspicion and tension across all levels of the game. It was not at all an atmosphere conducive to supporting an organisation from outside the system when there were so many other priorities. The complexity, ethnic history and incompetence of the game's management all contributed to a very cynical football system with administrators struggling to run the game at all levels. The system had many challenging scenarios to deal with – footballers and clubs, jaded by a history of incompetence at the state and national federation level, were far too busy dealing with own challenges to consider alternate organisations and approaches.

This politically fraught football history, plus the differences in the culture of football as far as playing opportunities, combined to influence our program design. Rather than put the focus on bridging and integrating into the current system, it became evident that a separate and alternative type of offering was more appropriate.

### **5.1.2 Community organising**

This idea of creating new opportunities was would end up being directly and rather adversely impacted upon by the complexities discovered in exploring the community-based organisations sector. Initial consultations with diverse community members and community-based organisations produced high enthusiasm for the development of football-oriented activities for newly arrived youth. The Steering Committee (SC) that was eventually established set out with

initial enthusiasm to create the best adapted alternative program, anticipating that one of the many organisations already in operation would become home to whatever scenario resulted.

The challenges that cropped up were many, and most of them were unanticipated. Classic challenges to multiple partner collaboration such as multiple and competing priorities, unclear agendas fogging the focus and power struggles were anticipated, however our journey highlighted a number of unexpected challenges.

### **Vignette**

Often the youth workers I most depended on would call at the last minute cancelling their attendance at a meeting due to something from their core responsibilities getting in the way. The most striking of these instances was when I got a call from NK one day telling me that she had to assist a young girl with family violence issues. The poor girl had run away to take refuge in the MRC, and NK had to drop everything to help her.

The sheer number and type of organisations was surprising, particularly within the various diaspora of ethnic communities. It was not unusual to have, for example, multiple Sudanese community groups, each of which felt they were *the* most representative of Sudanese settlers. Confounding this phenomena were the power struggles from within the various groups as well as across them. Within the community support sector other significant challenges were encountered such as overtasked youth workers, and non-appreciation for the potential for a sport program to empower and create opportunities. The additional phenomenon of community organisations being in competition with one another for funding was a significant and surprising challenge. The system ended up creating competition between communities, undermining potential partnerships and hindering development of new programs.

### 5.1.3 Finances

Financial support is needed for any program, regardless of whether it is to support new aspects in existing programs or entirely separate initiatives. We, of course, expected to fund-raise to support whatever type of program we ended up designing. The twist in our experience, which was particularly challenging, was to find out that funding options in regards to what we were trying to do were extremely limited in the amounts of funds available, the length of funding cycles, the types of funding agencies open to us and the classifications of funding into which we fit. The innovation in what we were trying to do was very definitely not working in our favour.

Funding agencies in the immigration and social development sectors, while purporting to call for innovation, were sceptical as to the benefits of a new program so radically different from others previously proposed. In receiving our proposals for support, most government departments tried orienting us to the football or sporting sector. As noted in the preceding section, the football scene was dealing with major sectoral adjustments and had in no interest in alternative engagement options, financially or otherwise. Community support funding schemes were minimal, and generally oriented toward community gardens, substance abuse or support groups, legal support, education support or other areas. Sport and recreational oriented initiatives were rare and often relegated to the overloaded sports sector.

Importantly, the learning in these different areas reflects what I consider to be one of the most significant papers written about the realities of community-based interventions in the 1990s by Mittelmark et al.<sup>123</sup> Mittelmark et al. identified what they call ‘exemplar programs’. Exemplar programs are noted as such because they contain all the elements necessary to implement a program fully. Mittelmark et al. noted that it is typical for what they call ‘service oriented community initiatives’

to be “very lean operation[s] with relatively few dollars and staff and an emphasis on community service.”<sup>124</sup> As such, the funding challenges we encountered were typical – whether that would be comforting or not is another story.

#### **5.1.4 Twists in the tale**

The plot synopsis reveals much of what might be considered ‘an ordinary tale of challenges typical to community-based health promotion: the classic challenges of managing multiple stakeholders’ competing priorities and dealing with financial and time constraints. It becomes more intriguing with the complexities in the football scene. This reviewer began to speculate that more twists might surface as the analysis delved deeper.

My job as ethnographer is to do just that – to go beyond the surface and find out what deeper knowledge can be learnt. An ethnographer is more than a passive spectator, he/she is a reviewer. To better understand the play, the reviewer first needs to learn more about the characters.

### **5.2 Character notes: Situational map findings**

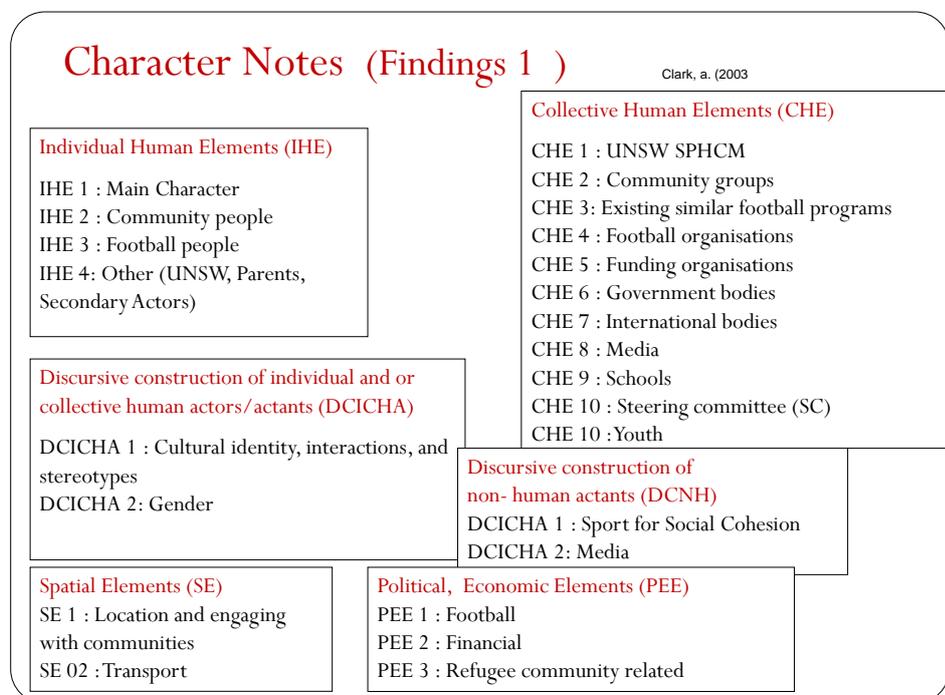
The plot synopsis, or the first layer of analysis, has focused on examining the processes involved in exploring the feasibility of developing a program that would use football as a vehicle to foster individual empowerment, health and wellbeing, and feelings of social inclusion for youth refugee and humanitarian immigrants in communities in urban areas of South-West Sydney. The synopsis highlighted a

number of classic challenges that any practitioner might encounter in developing a ‘standard’ community-based health promotion program such as politics, finances and community organising (Section 4.1).

Compounded with funding constraints, the weight of the challenges made it such that a new and at the time innovative program would need a champion, a separate leading and facilitating force. As the instigator and visionary, the onus of keeping the forward momentum of program development fell to me and the Steering Committee.

The following situational map (see Figure 3, re-presented below) presents a description of the different human and non-human elements identified from data analysis of the exploratory, early development and pilot phases of what became the Football United program. This is the first step in moving toward answering the question *How does one turn a good idea into a viable program?*

**Figure 3: Character notes (re-presented)**



It is important to note that the development of the situational map is *not* intended as final analysis, it is intended to open up the data and offers an entry point on which to begin interrogation and analyse more deeply. In doing so, the goal is to lay out as completely as one can all the elements within the data that might be of concern to the situation studied.

### **5.2.1 Individual Human Elements (IHE)**

This category includes people who have been noted in the analysis for having had a, or multiple, roles in the different aspects of the research and action.

#### ***IHE 1: The main character***

Unquestionably, as I am the instigator and the one person constant in every aspect of this research, I am the main character. This story is supported by my experiences as a student, a catalyst and a seasoned health promotion professional. I was present in most scenes from initial key informant interviews across many of the stakeholder focus group meetings through to all of the initial program activities. Many of the developments that were able to happen occurred because I had instigated links with people, which snowballed and enabled us to develop further connections. More specifics on the various roles I played across the different settings and scenes are further described in the plot synopsis and story lines sections.

#### ***IHE 2: Community people***

There were a number of members from different refugee community groups involved in this exploratory and early development phase, whose engagement influenced the various directions that shaped the initial design as well as the

choice of sites for activities. In particular, staff of various migrant resource centres (MRCs) contributed to creating links in communities where refugees were at that time settling: the local government areas (LGAs) of Liverpool, Fairfield, Auburn and Blacktown. A significant phenomenon I noted during the course of the exploratory phase was a relatively high turnover of staff members at these centres. It was not uncommon to turn up at a centre to find that the youth worker had been replaced by someone different, with no communication prior to that effect. However, the following youth workers engaged often in planning meetings/discussions: CL, AK, SB, MB, and JB. There were three key MRC youth workers who provided strong support during the exploratory, design and piloting phases: KW, GK, and NK. Of particular note also are RB and SK, founders and voluntary coordinators of the African Australian Summer Tournament. RB and SK were keen enthusiasts of finding a way to use football to support settlement and feelings of inclusion, and worked particularly actively in the early exploratory phases to provide key links to youth and adults from the various refugee communities.

Other key informants included two other community members, GH and GW who were part of a conglomerate group in one of the LGAs. They were consulted a number of times during the initial mapping phase, but eventually moved on to start their own initiative. MW, a council youth worker from another LGA, greatly assisted in stimulating interest for the program in her LGA. She provided a small amount of support funding and was key to enlightening other council employees of the challenges refugee youth encountered in trying to engage in mainstream sports. GC, a member of a Sydney-based refugee support group, provided wise counsel and connections to further stakeholders and members of local government agencies.

### ***IHE 3: Football people***

A diverse collection of people from a variety of areas in the football community supported the program's exploratory and early development phases. They came

from a variety of backgrounds including coaches (both local level and national); referees; former players; local, state and national governing bodies; as well as the professional A-League club, Sydney FC. I connected with most of them through a snowball-effect type of process, which largely started from within my own personal network. DH, a friend and at that time club president of our local council area football association, was extremely useful throughout the development process. He provided important insights on the inner functioning of football in Australia across its various levels, and as the program evolved from idea to activities, he provided gear, supported initial gala days and events, and sourced referees. DH connected me with JM, a referee, who was one of the most dependable volunteers involved in running early program activities. UR, my eldest son's coach, and a friend of his, DM (a national level coach) also provided valuable insights on the politics within the football arena. They provided the initial introduction to CF, a national television and media personality, who became one of our greatest assets. In the early days CF assisted the program by trying to help source funding, and often fostered media coverage. He became a great spokesperson for the program and accepted to become a 'patron'.

Another media personality, AH, was at the time highly placed in the Sydney professional football club (Sydney FC) in the A League. He was initially very engaged and introduced me to the Sydney FC community liaison person, who did his best within the confines of his very busy schedule to support us, providing free entry into some youth tournaments that the club supported, providing flyers and coming out to activities as an official representative of the club. AH also connected me with the Football Federation of Australia (FFA), radio stations and another national television company. AH also accepted to be a 'patron' of the program and was initially very committed to its development, including attending Steering Committee meetings regularly and assisting with various other tasks. He also provided links to what proved to be key people for the program's future development:

- JB, a high level FFA representative, who communicated with me on a number of occasions and connected me to UNHCR Australia. Jb was

referred to a number of times in the data, though at the time his contribution was minimal.

- BR, the Sydney FC community liaison person, came to support the launch of the program, initiated some opportunities for engagement early on and remained available to assist whenever his position enabled him to do so. JT, head of one of the other local council football associations and was a ‘non-believer’ in the beginning, but as he witnessed firsthand some of the challenges the refugee youth experienced, his perception changed and he became very helpful by providing contacts, initially some gear, and free access to coaching courses.
- Finally, among my personal contacts was also KL, a coach who initially provided great support during the early program activities by offering training for free, or at a minimal cost, and by running different gala day types of activities.

#### ***IHE 4: Others***

##### **i. UNSW**

There were a number of other invaluable individuals key to the success of the program. At UNSW in particular, the late Professor H, an engaged humanist and founder of a small philanthropy, provided the first seed grant that enabled me to fund much-needed human resource support to move the program forward. This funding enabled me to hire ES, one of my students who worked as research and project assistant. Her involvement provided the impetus for me to strategically explore how to move from my *vision* to a viable program through the early research activities. Coincidentally, just at the time when we were planning to start the research process of situational mapping, an overseas colleague recommended one of her students, RR, who was seeking an internship in community development. Having the two of them on board enabled me to make significant progress in the early research, in particular allowing us to increase the number of key informant interviews and stakeholder focus groups that provided the vital local knowledge needed for the foundation of the program design, as well as

setting up the program launch and other early activities. One of my other students, KW, also a youth worker at an MRC, provided perhaps the most significant contribution to the early development through sharing his own experience as a young refugee, learning about refugee youth settlement challenges through his role as a youth worker at an MRC and by providing links to important local stakeholders.

## ii. Parents

Initially we imagined that any project activity would happen by working *with* parents, as is the way in the traditional Australian community sports scenes. We had considered that parental support would be critical to the success of the program as without their trust, their children would not be allowed to participate in the program. The reality however seemed to be different. Parents of refugee kids were not really engaged for the most part with the kids' love for sport for many reasons: they were often working more than one job, juggling multiple family elements, studying themselves, and trying to support the schooling of their children. In addition, organised sports did not really exist where they came from in the sense of them being a part of 'community fabric' as it is in Australia. Youth played sport when and where they wanted or could, rather than in the overly organised fashion that community sports are set up in Australia where parents and families are actively involved with a club-type set-up.

*“Parents are difficult to access in [African] community—parents think school is to be responsible—it is not for them to be involved in coming to school stuff—parents who are recently arrived are hard to get feedback [from] for they feel somewhat overwhelmed”.*

*(stakeholder comment)*

Our community stakeholders also reflected another interpretation regarding school-based engagement, as exemplified by one stakeholder who commented: “Parents are difficult to access in [African] community—parents think school is to be responsible—it is not for them to be involved in coming to school stuff—parents who are recently arrived are hard to get feedback [from] for they feel somewhat overwhelmed”.

### **iii. Secondary actors**

Among sport and refugee community groups, representatives of NSW Sports and specific African refugee NGOs seemed keen to collaborate. As such we were keen to share our learning to date and early development ideas, and we organised a number of stakeholder meetings so that they could provide feedback and further insights into local information. Over time however, two of these groups developed a local project in which they moved forward somewhat unilaterally, making it difficult to work with them. Eventually, those two groups stopped engaging with our developments and dropped out completely.

Two members of the state football association known as Football New South Wales (FNSW), in charge of coaching and development, made some initial efforts to enable us to engage with FNSW, although it was short-lived. In the communities, local football club organisers seemed not to want to listen to advice about how difficult it was for refugee youth to participate in the club football system as it was currently set up, nor about being careful in how they go about recruiting children from refugee backgrounds.

The president of one large, state-wide refugee support organisation had been quite keen initially to engage with us in development and to support the program; he was even contemplating financial contribution, which would have been of significant assistance at that time. As collaboration progressed however, his idea of the community development/engagement component of the program did not reflect that which I was using as basis, and eventually we moved forward also without his engagement.

A final short term actor to be noted is JD, a Nigerian chief involved in the African Australian Summer Tournament. He joined an early focus group meeting with local youth in what seemed at the time to be a desire to support our development. He was outraged however, when we asked the youth to sign permission forms, which involved providing personal information. He objected to us requesting their personal information, arguing that there was a difference between research needs and how to work within the communities, and that taking information from youth was not appropriate according to community members. This experience actually provided some important learning to us in that we realised that we were not as cross-culturally savvy as we had thought. His experience at that first meeting rendered him suspicious of my increased engagement in supporting the African Australian Summer Tournament, to the point that he accused me of wanting “to take [it] over” in a following meeting. Rather than damage our progress, this potentially harmful incident actually resulted in us reinforcing our ties with the youth we had been working with. I had succeeded in building enough trust and rapport with the different youth workers and players that they defended me and my intentions in that second meeting, leaving JD to look foolish in his accusations.

### **5.2.2 Collective Human Elements (CHE)**

Analysis of the data resulted in ten different sub-categories of what can be termed Collective Human Elements (CHE), or groups of people or organisations involved in the exploratory and development processes. Some of these groups were formal entities such as Migrant Resource Centres (MRCs), while others were more-or-less formal groupings such as what I have termed ‘football programs’.

### ***CHE 1: Steering Committee (SC)***

A Steering Committee (SC) was established to guide the development of the program's design. Based on early and informal exploration of the sectors that were important for this *vision* of a football-based approach to social inclusion, the SC initially included representatives from what had seemed to be the key sectors: football and refugee support organisations (those already engaged in some football programs for refugees). The SC initially met somewhat regularly and was clearly engaged in the processes involved in developing a program design, possible organisational structure, and implementing the program launch which was a significant event in the design process. Discussion during earlier meetings of the SC contributed to developing the notion that a football program could be the catalyst of a program that would support refugee youth development more widely.

### ***CHE 2: UNSW SPHCM***

The University of New South Wales (UNSW) School of Public Health and Community Medicine is noted because it was the institutional base from which I worked to develop the program – as such it was a valuable entity. It was important also in that Professor H provided precious funds which enabled me to get the program going, and that a couple of students were active in support roles during this phase. The institution itself does not come into play further at this point as far as having an influence of any sort.

### ***CHE 3: Community groups***

This category of 'actants' is one of the more significant, and can be further sub-categorised into a number of more specific groups which are listed below.

### **i. Migrant Resource Centres (MRC)**

This type of community-based organisation was a primary focal point for connecting with newly arrived refugee and humanitarian immigrants. The MRCs have roles in connecting families and youth with services of all sorts, providing crucial support as they settle. The primary MRCs that I engaged with during this period were those in Auburn, Fairfield and Liverpool; Blacktown and Parramatta were eventually engaged as well.

At the time of this research, the primary focus of the youth workers' professional responsibilities was to provide school and job related support to youth who frequented the centres. I refer to this as 'structural support'. In fact, most youth workers did not have more than a cursory mention of what was termed 'recreational activities' within their scope of work. The level of involvement from youth workers with our process of development would be dependent on the amount of time they could take away from their other activities. Youth workers were likely to be able to support one-off event-type projects which included activities involving the arts, music and some sports, but their capacity to engage in long term recreational activities that would include further personal development objectives for youth was either not possible or minimal. The few football activities happening at the time, with exception of the African Australian Summer Tournament, were organised as 'one-offs' (gala day tournaments for example), and none were designed with a goal of connecting youth with mainstream football (soccer) clubs or other personal development-type opportunities. Exploration of the MRC situation and interviews with youth workers indicated numerous references to challenges such as a lack of funding and time constraints, as well as difficulty involving parents with youth activities. Engaging to work with MRCs on what would be an on-going, long term program seemed to be considered as possible, but they indicated the need to clarify what the expected role for MRCs and youth workers would be, how such a program would roll out in practice, and how it would be funded.

## **ii. Police (in particular PCYCs)**

The police were mentioned in the interviews through references to either the local precincts or the local Police-Citizens Youth Clubs (PCYCs). Local precincts often had migrant community liaison officers engaged to work with the newly arrived refugee and humanitarian immigrants. The role of PCYCs is to get young people involved in regularly scheduled and ongoing activities. Both the PCYCs and certain local precincts were noted as having some connection with football events such as gala days or tournaments, but two remarks indicated a possible reason why they were not more fully engaged:

- There was often mention of tensions between police and local youth, indicating a fairly high level of non-understanding between the two groups;
- The quality of programs offered by PCYCs were noted as being inconsistent, with remarks about difficult attitudes toward the migrant youth.

## **iii. STARTTS**

At the time of this research STARTTS, the NSW Service for the Treatment and Rehabilitation of Torture and Trauma Survivors, was beginning to branch out from its original role of offering psychological services and began to provide recreational support for refugees such as camps and day-time outings. STARTTS seemed to have lots of financial resources and initial contacts with them which resulted in valuable advice and contacts as well as some preliminary collaboration in the pilot phase of activities. Exploration of a more significant potential role with the organisation proved to present some dilemmas, and the idea was eventually abandoned.

## **iv. Other community groups**

A number of other community-based groups were mentioned as working to support settlement for newly arrived refugee and humanitarian immigrants, youth in particular. Only one of these groups, an African communities support group, ended up engaging with us for a short bit of time, but then went on to work independently with a representative from the NSW Sport and Recreation department.

#### ***CHE 4: Existing similar football programs***

A significant objective of the early mapping exercises was to investigate what, if any, kinds of football-based programs for refugee youth were in place at the time. As noted above, some of the MRCs and other youth-oriented groups such as the PCYCs organised an occasional football event. Most noted lack of funding as preventing anything that could evolve into a medium or long term program. One group of older African men had been running an annual tournament they called the African Australian Summer Tournament, which was started as a summer tournament to keep older youths occupied during their leisure time – to ‘keep them out of trouble’. Over the course of the situational mapping and early design phase this group became significant: two members (SK and RB) became part of our programs Steering Committee (SC) and many of the youth engaged as either key informants or as members of focus groups during the design phase research, providing significant learning about access and constraints to engaging in football for refugee youth. My participation in their tournament organisational meetings and attendance at the tournament matches was significant as it enabled me to build the rapport and trust that would be necessary to develop the program which became Football United.

#### ***CHE 5: Football organisations***

To endeavour to work out a program that would use football as its vehicle to assist refugee and humanitarian settlement necessarily involved understanding how the sport is organised within local communities, and what mechanisms or opportunities might be available to foster their engagement in the systems. This involved exploring where this type of program would fit within the current football setup.

The local system of football is organised into four different levels: local clubs (community-level), which are managed by district-level associations, which in turn are managed by the state-level associations (Football New South Wales

(FNSW)) and the national governing body of the sport (Football Federation Australia (FFA)).

At the time of this research the FFA was in a period of its own reflection about what its 'community engagement' could and should be. Unfortunately for us, their interpretation of community engagement involved working with the local club system already in place, and did not seem to want to consider any alternative types of arrangements. At the time we were told that the FFA was not there to work directly with local community groups, so they referred us on to the state association, FNSW. We were advised by key informants in the football arena to not ask the FFA for funds as they did not have funding for special programs such as the one we were trying to develop. We were advised that we would be better off to concentrate on asking for in-kind support such as getting access to players for guest appearances and official endorsement. The meeting with their newly appointed community person resulted in an offer to propose our requests to the management committee and to assist us in contacting their sponsors, however there was no follow up on their part after the initial meeting.

One of our earliest strong supporters, AH (who was introduced in the previous section, 5.2.1), was at the time highly placed in the Sydney professional club, Sydney Football Club, (Sydney FC) in the A League (highest professional level of play in Australia). He provided an important connection to the community representative who participated in a number of activities, and paved the way for some of our youth to engage in Sydney FC hosted tournaments.

Early meetings with FNSW indicated that those in decision-making roles did not seem to think that access to football was difficult for the groups we were looking to support. As with the FFA, they noted that they would not be able to provide much in the way of financial support, but if a program was developed they might be able to come on board by provide training or possibly some gear, but not much else.

### **Vignette**

I was waiting for the second meeting with NB from FNSW. He had been assigned by the CEO of FNSW to work to support me and the program I was seeking to develop. The first meeting with NB was not exactly encouraging so I was rather nervous about this one. I stopped in to say hello to the CEO with whom I had a good connection. Rather than ask the receptionist to announce me to NM, I decided just to go down the hall. As I exited the CEO's office I glanced to down the hall. As I had been facing the CEO, NB thought I had not seen him NB, and rushed into his office closing the door (as if to pretend not to be in). He had a hard time concealing his frustration when I knocked and entered a few minutes later.

Both the FFA and FNSW offered to work with us in helping youth 'connect with clubs', however this did not result in much concrete action. In our own efforts to 'connect with clubs' we encountered significant challenges, which are addressed further in sections 5.2.3, 5.2.4 and 5.2.5.

Across the various data are references to the complexity of trying to understand the Australian football scene, the labour intensity of trying to figure out where a program might find its 'fit', and the challenge in trying to facilitate club connections for youth. This complexity is addressed in further detail later in sections DCICHA 1 and PEE 1.

### ***CHE 6: Funding organisations***

A preliminary scoping of the types of funding avenues available was done in the stages of research when the elements for program design started to emerge. This area was new to me at that point and much of the learning came along later as I progressed with further development related to program piloting. Initially it

seemed that funding organisations might include the MRCs, government departments and charities.

Small charities were likely to provide support in forms of small grants (\$2000-\$5000) for short term activities such as coaching courses, a school holiday camp or a gala day event, but this small amount of funding would not support the significant human resource costs necessary to run a long term program.

MRCs expressed interests to engage as partner groups through their youth workers, but did not have the funds available to contribute to supporting costs of any kind. Initially it seemed that the most relevant funding would be available through government agencies such as the Department of Immigration and Citizenship (DIAC) and potentially the Department of Sport and Recreation (DSR). There were, however, a considerable number of challenges involved in getting support from any of these groups, which are addressed further in section PEE 2.

### ***CHE 7: Government bodies***

As a newcomer to this area, the ‘vastness’ of the myriad of types and number of government bodies with the potential to be involved was initially overwhelming. Knowing where to begin to explore the *vision*, as far as support, was mind-boggling. Once again discussions with key stakeholders (my champion K in particular) enabled me to begin making sense of where to go. As noted above, the two agencies that seemed logical for support were DIAC and DSR. The constraints to obtaining funding support for programs such as the one that I was seeking to develop (which were addressed in Section 5.1.3) came to light as I explored this area, and were significant to the development process (explained further in Section 5.2.6 – PEE 2). Ultimately these constraints prevented us from obtaining any funding from DIAC and DSR.

### ***CHE 8: International bodies***

The only international body that was encountered in this early stage was UNHCR-Australia (Australia for the United Nations High Commission for Refugees). We met with them hoping that we would get information and potentially some financial support, given that they obviously were refugee-oriented in their focus. However UNHCR-Australia's focus was solely on fund raising to support the overseas activities of their international organisation, so they did not come into play except as a 'friendly entity' for most of the program development and trialling.

### ***CHE 9: Schools***

The first idea of using schools as a venue came about through discussions with MRC youth workers who mentioned instances of racism or exclusion of 'newcomers' by the current students. In exploring avenues with local migrant resource centre (MRC) youth workers, I learned that most non-English speaking secondary school-aged youth begin their schooling at Intensive English Centres (IECs), which are situated on the grounds of mainstream high schools. I learned that the MRC youth workers had often noted incidences of racism and racial bullying, with the newcomers often being called "the imports". We discussed much about how schooling support is provided and began to explore an initial idea of using a school-based approach, as this is a venue where youth spend much of their time. The concept of trying to address these difficulties, and to help the newcomers settle more easily through a common love of football, seemed ideal. In addition the opportunities for play and training; capacity-building through mentorship/leadership programs could be incorporated, helping the youth address these issues in the larger community. This is interesting given that as the program developed, schools (in particular IEC schools) figured as significant program sites.

### ***CHE 10: Youth***

The principal collective human element involved in this program is, of course, the youth as primary stakeholders. However interestingly, with exception to a couple youth focus group meetings and a few MRC youth workers, youth did not feature much in the data. The need for a youth liaison person to be involved to insure engagement with community members on regular basis is noted often.

Also noted was the challenge of managing the different age groups encountered during early development and subsequently in the data. The representatives of each age group wanted to pull our focus towards their own cohort, resulting in a constant shifting of priorities as the needs of young children are different from those of older youths. It was suggested that youth liaison person could have helped liaise with representatives managing the different age groups.

## **5.2.3 Discursive Construction of Individual and/or Collective Human Actors/Actants (DCICHA)**

### ***DCICHA 1: Cultural identity and stereotypes***

Cultural identity and stereotypes emerged as important issues throughout the exploratory and early design phases of the program.

#### **Cultural identity**

In the very early days of the exploration phase, the driving idea was to develop a program that enabled refugee youth and families to engage in mainstream football clubs. As we progressed, it became apparent that achieving this would be unlikely, if not impossible, because of a number of intervening factors. Logistically, time

and again, transport and financial issues created barriers to youth's capacity to join clubs. At the familial level, the particular barrier of language also emerged. A lack of English language skills resulted in parents feeling uneasy in communicating with the wider community and government services. This lack of language skills, in combination with their children learning English rapidly at school, resulted in tensions between the generations in families. Parents often depended on their children's new skills to navigate their new environment, leading to feelings that the parents were losing their traditional leader (parental) roles.

In the exploration phase, it was often noted that Australian-style football differed from African-style football, which was considered by the Africans as more 'entertaining'. Cultural differences regarding football were also importantly noted in the manner that the game is accessed; many of the newly arrived immigrants came from areas where the concept of football as an organised entity was very different. If groups wanted to play games or organise tournaments, they just set them up and got about playing. Logistic organisational elements that manage the competitive aspects in Australia such as tournament regulations, grounds reservations and insurance limit this freedom to engage, and are often misunderstood by refugee communities. When access to grounds is refused for not having made the proper insurance arrangements, those to whom it was refused often interpreted this as a racial or cultural slur rather than a legal one applied to any group.

At the community level, there were many different immigrant cultures settling, and a variety of different African countries represented. There was a strong cultural identity with home countries. As I was trying to develop an inclusive program design, I considered it critical to engage with representatives of all local community groups, not only to get their involvement but to build the trust that was essential for a program's success. It sometimes turned out that community ethnic workers would likely only engage if their specific community was present.

## **Racial stereotypes**

Discrimination and racial stereotyping were two themes that continually emerged from the data. A few African players indicated that they felt discriminated against during games or in selection processes, though they were unfamiliar with the procedures with which one can register complaints about abuse and/or racism. Other youths stated that they were unfamiliar with identifying action as ‘discriminatory’, though their descriptions clearly identify it as such. As mentioned earlier, there were also frequent incidences of racial slurring in schools with high refugee and migrant settlement.

The issue of racism made it difficult to generate support within the ‘mainstream system’ for the African Australian Summer Tournament. Former racial conflicts in Australian footballing history, such as between Croatians and Lebanese-Italians, were often used as an excuse to not support African-based ethnic teams. Some interviewees referred to managers within the football ‘system’ in Australia as “older white Aussies”, implying that the system is prejudiced against a more multicultural view of Australian football. There were suggestions that integrating anti-racism into the program design would be useful and that the program should work with football institutions to address this issue at different levels.

## ***DCICHA 2: Gender***

Football, as a means to connect, can be effective as it is the one truly global sport, and is a sport that either sex can engage in (in many countries). During the program design mapping, it was clear that there were minimal sport offerings happening that specifically catered for the ‘special needs’ of refugee girls. One obstacle to providing such opportunities was that some communities do not want girls to engage in sports, or are not sure if it is a good idea, as in their home country cultures girls are not allowed to participate in sport. Given that girls’ participation is highly encouraged and fostered in Australia, at times there occurred elements of inter-generational conflict on the issue of engaging girls in

sport, or in any social activity for that matter. This was particularly true when it came to a mix of girls and boys together on teams.

Despite the obstacle of inter-generational conflict on the issue, many of the girls were interested in sport. The Sierra Leonean community recognised this interest and started a girls' football program. One strategy proposed by different community members was to ensure that elder males were engaged in organising the program to give it credibility. Another idea we trialled in the early months during our pilot phase involved special promotion toward girls, encouraging mothers to also participate in the sport with their children. This was made possible by providing childcare services on site.

#### **5.2.4 Discursive Construction of Non-Human Actants (DCNHA)**

As one might imagine, the most evident of non-human actants emerging from the data were those relating to sport – in particular football. Media has a small mention as well.

##### ***DCNHA 1: Sport as social cohesion***

The interest in sport as a unifying factor to promote social cohesion strongly emerged from the data. Many instances of the belief that the passion for football (soccer) has the power to unite, the power to be used as a vehicle to bridge wider gaps in the community, were noted. However, I often got the feeling that rather than being a multi-cultural society, Australia was a society of multiple cultures where the different groups existed in parallel rather than engaging together. This certainly was the situation in regards to opportunities for football engagement expressed by newly arrived youth and families during this exploratory and design period. One idea suggested in one of the focus group sessions was to do a 'reverse

integration’, in other words, to organise events that would motivate non-Africans to join African teams.

Key informants and youth participants in the focus group meetings all shared the idea that football was a great way to meet other young people, but that for most refugee and newly arrived humanitarian immigrants there were ‘just too many barriers’. The youth in the focus groups did play with teammates from other national, ethnic and language groups at times, but also liked the national identity concept of playing with members from their own community groups.

Despite the desire to focus on building a program that offered ongoing development and support opportunities, a ‘one-off’ tournament in Gunnedah was highlighted as a powerful example of uniting refugee youth and Indigenous Australians. KW, the lead organiser of the tournament, expressed the significant impact it had as “it was a uniting of two sub-groups of Australian population both of which had their own dilemmas with main-stream Australian society, and it was very, very powerful”.

### ***DCNHA 2: Media***

Media did not really figure in this part of the analysis as an organisational element. Media personalities and media coverage do however feature in that they helped draw attention towards the efforts to develop a program, which resulted in some support of both human, and importantly, financial resources. Thus the media can be considered a particularly important supporting element towards enabling the program to develop.

## 5.2.5 Key Events or Issues (KEI)

### *KEI 1 Emergence of program design*

As the idea of assisting youth to join clubs seemed increasingly challenging as a basis for a program, a second idea to support the African Australian Summer Tournament was proposed. The idea was that the tournament was an established, existing opportunity that we could support. However, the tournament was largely ethnically divided by ‘clan’, which at times created problems when the competition became overly personal. At the same time, the uniting factor in football was again evident, in that the rules of the game transcend any language or cultural barriers, allowing all people to simply play.

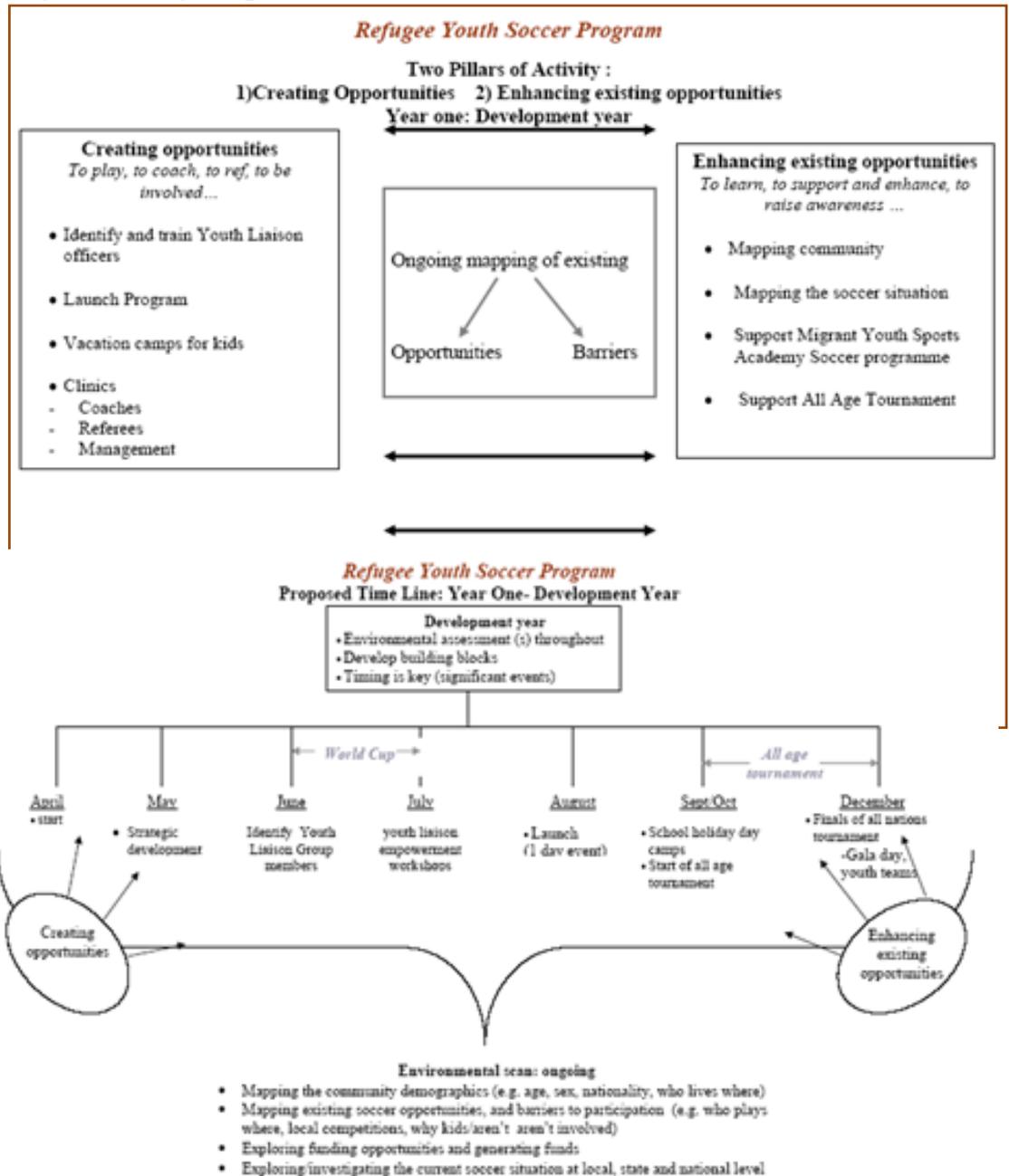
The Steering Committee (SC) contemplated whether our goal should be to integrate into existing football structures despite the challenges for refugee youth that were inherent in the system, or whether we should try to provide a safe environment of our own. Given the inaccessibility of the current systems, was it not better to create our own? Ultimately we decided upon a ‘stepped’, or dual, approach.

Recognising that football not only offers an entry into promoting racial harmony and integration, but also builds capacity in practical life skills, the SC sought to avoid a program design that overly favoured one-off events that characterised most initiatives at that time. We favoured the development of an ongoing program with a depth of activities that would provide capacity building opportunities. We imagined that by offering development opportunities through avenues in addition to play, for example coach and referee training, and sports management experiences, we could facilitate the means for the refugee youth to engage with the traditional community sports system of organised football.

A dual approach was developed: on the one hand we would work to support existing opportunities; but also create new opportunities such as providing referee and coaching training, playing opportunities outside the system, and school holiday camps. We thought that by initially providing these additional elements we might establish a bridge to integrate into the system.

A two-pillar program design was developed through SC meetings, key informant interviews, focus groups and the mapping exercises (Figure 4). This design recognised and acknowledged that things were happening in the communities before the idea for this program had arisen – the right pillar. The goal in this area was to *enhance these existing opportunities* such that they more fully supported refugee youth engagement. Because our learning had indicated that the current activities were not reaching many youth, and were particularly lacking in the area of football for refugee youth, we did find that extra and specific opportunities for those young people were needed. The left pillar represented the development of *new opportunities* that would be tailored to those needs. A three year development schedule was drawn up, and the process of seeking support begun (Figure 4).

Figure 4: Program pillars and timeline



Interestingly, this approach appeared so complex to those who come from a traditional football background (Sydney FC representative for example) that they had difficulty comprehending it, while most SC members were at ease with such complexity.

One of the opportunities in the ‘enhancement pillar’ (the right pillar) was to support initiatives already underway, such as the African Australian Summer Tournament. Involvement with the group provided rich engagement with, and thus learning from, the various African communities. The interaction however was not without challenges that were noted in sections IHE 4,iii and KEI 3.

Activities from the ‘creating opportunities pillar’ (the left pillar) within the program design that were trialled during the first year included:

- Program launch in August 2006;
- The first coaching course was run at the end of 2006;
- Participation in small-sided games tournament sponsored by Sydney FC and Football New South Wales (FNSW). These two activities were examples of the support provided by the SFC community rep;
- The first overnight camp was held in January 2007;
- The second camp was held at the end of June 2007.

From the experiences of the various camp activities, as well as further challenges in trying to support connection with mainstream football, the format of an overall program design, which focussed more on the ‘creating opportunities’ side (the left pillar) began to emerge. Activities were to include regular training and playing opportunities, coaching courses, and occasional tournaments and gala days. During this period, interest in the program grew due to some significant media support as well as through word-of-mouth from enthusiastic participants and their families.

### ***KEI 2 Program Launch***

As the program design became clear to the Steering Committee (SC), even though we did not have much by way of funding support, we decided to officially launch the program.

There was concern in using precious funds to



***Program launch, August 1, 2006***

cover the program's launch, but it was my experience from many years earlier that if you believed in a program then you just got on with it and, if it was successful then funding would follow. We were confident that our learning and passion for the *vision* would result in a successful program, so we decided to hold a public launch in the form of a gala day including activities and a tournament. We paved the way for media attention by working with the UNSW media team, and our patron CF made sure that the SBS television channel covered the event. The launch was a significant event in that it brought a crowd of 100+ youth and their families, created media connections, and helped us to connect with many volunteers and MRC youth workers. It also provided insight as to how to handle logistics at future events.

### ***KEI 3 Hiccups Along the Way***

A few encounters along the way created both potential and real glitches in our progress which resulted in some important learning.

The first occurred early in the mapping phase. As part of the consultations with key informants, I organised a meeting with a supervisor from one of the state-wide refugee support organisations. My enthusiasm for the *vision* inspired him,

and without consulting me he communicated the program idea to all the youth workers before I could consult with them individually about the idea and explain the program. The abrupt nature of this communication worried me as I had been trying to implement a highly personalised consultative process designed to build trust on an individual level. I felt that this process was disrupted by his blanket communication and feared that those workers I had not had a chance to meet yet might react negatively, wondering why they had not been consulted ahead of time. Fortunately this did not happen, but the experience provided valuable learning about taking care in communicating – to whom, how much, and when.

The second hiccup had a more serious, albeit short-lived, impact. One of the African Australian Summer Tournament management committee members, JD, was initially supportive, but then began to undermine our work by being publically critical of my intentions in regard to the program (ref IHE 4,iii). His publically expressed suspicions regarding my motivations for starting this program resulted in me needing to spend significant time proving my sincerity, to ensure that his doubts did not break any existing or future partnerships. Eventually this was overcome, largely due to support from three SC members and a group of keen young youth workers who played in the tournament.

A third hiccup involved a confrontation between the African Australian Summer Tournament and the state football system – Football New South Wales (FNSW). FNSW would not sanction the tournament due to previous problems with aggressive play and insurance issues, preventing accredited officials from refereeing. I tried to assist by bringing in friends to referee, but because FNSW would not officially support the tournament, registered referees were not allowed to be involved as they would not be covered by insurance, and could potentially lose their refereeing license. There were also a number of political issues as well. Reference was made not only to the aggression incident, but also to the prowess of the African teams as they typically won competitions they competed in, which often resulted in aggressive crowd and team behaviour.

Another hiccup was related to our quest to get funding support for the program. During the various stakeholder meetings, the Department of Sport and Recreation (DSR) and the Department of Immigration and Citizenship (DIAC) heard about our ideas and invited us to present them to their joint steering committee. I had hoped it would be an avenue to some funding support, however DIAC suggested that the only funding suitable for our ideas would be Harmony funding<sup>v</sup> designed to foster integration. It seemed more to me like forcing the integration of refugee kids into mainstream football, without understanding that the newcomers need and want to remain connected to the comfort of their own ethnic community groups. Forcibly splitting them to join the closest football club could result in them potentially feeling misunderstood and isolated. As I met with more and more people I began to understand that with all the background ‘baggage’ (torture, trauma, multiple displacements) refugee immigrants had suffered, it was normal for them to gravitate towards people who understand where they come from, who speak the same language and have the same cultural values and experiences. We did not consider it right to apply a forced mixing process, so at that point we decided not to apply for DIAC Harmony funding. That in itself was not such an issue, except that it meant the lack of potentially significant financial support.

Following on from the previous issue, another hiccup occurred when one of the DSR participants decided to go for this DIAC funding opportunity, and worked with a couple of groups (that we had been initially collaborating with) on a separate project with essentially all of the elements of our proposal. The Steering Committee (SC) debated whether or not to support this other project given that it seemed almost as if they deliberately collaborated with us to a point, and then went off on their own, essentially taking much of our learning and design for their own purposes. On the one hand, half of the SC considered it necessary to support any project that would provide activities for refugee children. On the other hand,

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<sup>v</sup> ‘Harmony funding’ is the term we commonly used to refer to a Department of Immigration and Social Inclusion grant which occurred annually to support programs that fostered immigration in Australia. We were initially hopeful that we might qualify for support through this granting scheme, however were dismayed to learn that they were only offering support for national-level programs. We were just beginning so there was no way we could have qualified.

the other half was not pleased with the process by which the group ‘stole’ the program idea. We eventually supported them for a short time, but as our own activities grew, and the other group did not seem to need or want our engagement, we eventually went our separate ways.

We encountered significant learning from another hiccup along the way regarding processes to support and engage youth. Following our first coach training session there was a lack of follow-up for the newly certified coaches by the SC member responsible for it. This caused multiple impacts as the program progressed in that we had depended on their engagement to assist the running of activities, and to begin the community engagement/sustainability process. Not being able to access that important human resource delayed activity implementation. Some community members tended to move frequently, thus making it difficult to keep track of where they live, as well as their ability to stay with one club. This likely explains how the initially trained coaches were ‘lost in the shuffle’.

Another hiccup arose in managing the program’s evolution due to the fact that after the launch the SC members’ engagement waned significantly, and as time went on, only myself and N attended every meeting. While this was not bothersome in that we moved ahead anyway, it did shake my *vision* and expectations of participatory program development and management.

A final hiccup arose in one of our program elements in the enhancing opportunities pillar (the right pillar). We had the opportunity to register some younger children in a local Police-Citizens Youth Club (PCYC), but what seemed to be an excellent opportunity turned into a logistical nightmare. Few of the families had vehicles, thus myself and another SC member spent hundreds of hours and kilometres driving the kids back and forth. It was almost comical, as the kids did not even know my name, they just called me the ‘car lady’. Exacerbating the situation was the fact that their attendance was often sporadic; often some of them would not show up, with rarely much by way of explanation from the families. This provoked frustration from the clubs, as well as within the SC.

Eventually the situation became untenable, and we were ready to stop the activity and go back to the drawing board when a local youth worker put me on the spot – “you can’t just leave now you have started”. From this experience was born the idea of using a local community setting to offer football training/playing on a Saturday, one of our key lessons learned.

### **Vignette**

We were holding a meeting to discuss the challenges of trying to maintain the youth engagement in the PCYC team, which we had begun as part of a partnership with the PCYC. Our volunteers had literally been exhausted in trying to drive kids to and from practices and weekly games. In addition often families would move away without informing us, and with no warning the kids would no longer show up for games. It had really become all too hard and we were at wits end. I suggested we might just rethink a bit, inferring that we needed a bit of time to consider what to do. PO, the youth worker most involved with liaising with the families, said, “You can’t just stop now, everyone is depending on you”, inferring that the families all expected some kind of footballing activities for their children. So we scoured the local area to find a park where we could set up our own footballing activities, scrounged some gear on loan from DH and KL, and began a weekly Saturday morning drop-in program, Football in the Park (FIP).

## **5.2.6 Political and Economic Elements (PEE)**

### ***PEE 1: Football***

The politics of football in Australia is intense given there is competition for memberships, resources and players, encompassing levels ranging from local to state and national. It was critical to tread lightly within this arena.

After a significant investment of time in exploring the idea of forging links with football associations at many levels, I came to the realisation that for the most part, the existing football (soccer) structures were not convinced that a program specially designed to meet the unique needs of refugee youth was necessary. This attitude was not reserved, however, to the football-specific sector. One of the most shocking meetings was when a representative from a local council department informed us that “all the families had to do was to read the signs posted all over the communities” to know where to go to play football. One of my more satisfying moments then followed as the local council youth worker angrily rose from her chair to give him a 5 minute lecture on the realities of the challenges to settlement experienced by newly arrived refugee and humanitarian immigrants.

### **Vignette**

The 'town meeting' was in full swing, with an excellent agenda and facilitating by MW, the council youth worker. Tensions were mounting as all from the refugee support sector, and myself, were trying to find ways to get the message across KS, the council employee in charge of field rental. KS was not understanding the need for some council support to allocate a playing field to the project, "Well," he said, "if the kids want to play football, all they have to do is read the many signs up and about, and get their families to sign them up at their local club." MW 'exploded' in fury and frustration and proceeded to give him a scathing lecture on the realities of refugee and humanitarian settlement realities and challenges.

From Football New South Wales' (FNSW) standpoint, the previous clashes among ethnically based clubs provided grounds for football organisations to distance themselves from ethnic community-based programs because of security-type issues.

Although we did meet a few clubs who worked actively to support the special needs of the refugee youth; most of those interviewed politely accepted to listen, however nothing concrete emerged from these meetings. This was one of the driving factors toward the development of a separate program that would evolve to provide football playing opportunities for the refugee community members. This program ended up being largely driven by us with support from the refugee support community organisations.

### ***PEE 2: Financial***

The early grant from Professor H provided me with the crucial seed money to support the background research necessary to design a program, as well as a bit of funding to enable it to begin. Financial support for short term activities, school

holiday camps for example, was easier to obtain than long term engagement by funders. The early small grants combined with considerable in-kind efforts (volunteer time and donated or borrowed gear) allowed us to implement many of the early activities in the initial program pilot phase. A longer term program required funding for personnel, gear, insurance, grounds fees, research and related costs. We explored two avenues to access the resources needed, longer term grants and partnership contributions.

Community-based migrant resource centres (MRCs) were the most viable and engaged of local partner groups, however they had their own funding issues and could usually not provide more than minimal, if any, financial support the program. In-kind personnel time was often among their contributions, but as addressed earlier, youth workers were predominately funded for case work, hence it was difficult to get substantial time allocated to this program. Discussion with key informants and focus groups indicated that although there were a number of kinds of grants available, government funding through DIAC all came from essentially the same 'pots'. This had the phenomena of creating competition for funds amongst organisations that would partner otherwise, thus dividing energies and creating mistrust whereas trust and synergies were exactly what was needed to bring the communities together.

We found that the DIAC and DSR grants were compromising, for us, in their requirements of 'mandatory integration' as a condition for funding support under its Harmony Grants program. In other words, to be eligible for support, programs could not seem to focus only on refugee immigrants nor on single ethnic groups. Mechanisms that linked population groups or sub-groups to the mainstream population needed to be clear and omnipresent in programs. As I investigated this further it felt that they were promoting coercive program design, which did not account for the newly arrived groups' needs nor the realities of their settlement. This program design did not take into account the understanding that the trauma humanitarian immigrants had gone through, and the 'scariness' that many of them felt coming to such a strange place, was able to be offset by connecting with

people from their ‘home’ countries. Humanitarian immigrants need that connection with people from their home countries for a whole lot of reasons, and that by reconstituting their diasporas, they were able to feel comfortable and supported. The granting conditions also did not take into account the logistic barriers we had identified and experienced first-hand in our pilot attempts to provide bridging activities.

Our attempts to provide training for potential older youth to become coaches and referees were also impacted by the difficulty to access these sources of funding. Originally we had imagined that if we provided referee and coach training for the older youth, it could provide a dual purpose. If the program trained its own coaches and referees then we would have a potentially sustainable human resource entity for the football activities. In addition we had hoped the training could also facilitate a bridge to access mainstream clubs for those who were trained. Financial constraints were encountered in this exercise as well. The courses were relatively expensive, and the state certifying association only offered a \$10 per person discount.

### ***PEE 3: Refugee Community learning***

We also discovered a number of key challenges rooted within the refugee community sector. As noted earlier, there are significant financial challenges that this population faces which add stress to the transition, and often prevented youth from engaging in mainstream football. Similarly, requesting funds from the participants for any special program participation was not an option.

Language was a major barrier on many occasions, in particular with the parents. Often the children were responsible for translating for their parents. This created difficulties in building trust with the parents, but also raised questions about how to conduct research in such communities where parental consent is obligatory.

Having experienced significant trauma and loss, parents were also particularly concerned for their children's safety. Some Key Informants proposed that parents may not fully understand the value of the program and that if they did, they would be more willing to assist. It was suggested that one way to promote this understanding would be to involve the elder males in the program, noting that this would help build its credibility in the community.

Promoting girls' access to participation in sport was difficult to negotiate given the strong cultural justifications. One solution proposed by community youth workers was to engage with mothers and get them involved in the program.

### **5.2.7 Spatial Elements (SE)**

#### ***SE 1: Location and engaging with local refugee communities***

Refugee youth were faced with many obstacles of a logistical nature in trying to join and engage in the local football club scene. Most had no access to transport to get to training and games, and no funding to support the costs of membership and gear. Additionally, the cultural difference in relation to playing the sport was quite important. The refugee youth were not familiar with the systemic structure of organised clubs, and the necessary conditions that regulated them such as reserving and paying for field access, insurance coverage, and the need for certified referees. In their home countries, if they wanted to play football they got a group together and played at the nearest open area available.

#### ***SE 2: Transport***

The costs related to transport, as well as the poor transportation facilities and infrastructure in lower socio-economic areas, was challenging. Providing safe and

reliable transportation created a major obstacle at times to the successful implementation of a program aiming to support the newly arrived kids into mainstream programs. Working with the Police-Citizens Youth Club (PCYC) was an attempt to manage the financial difficulties, but transport still remained an issue. Getting the participants to the field and back home took significant coordination of people and time, as well as some financial resources for petrol. Some argued that if the parents had a better understanding of the program benefits, they would be more willing to support transportation to and from the program. Our findings indicated that parents or guardians most often did not have the capacity to do so, either lacking in time, a vehicle, or both. Since the PCYC registration did not succeed in engaging them in Football in the Park (FIP), it was decided that the program would no longer transport kids to other existing programs, but rather bring the program to them.

### **5.3 Complex characters mirror a complex situation**

Many of the different characters had multiple roles. Sometimes they engaged through their different roles simultaneously while at other times their role alternated depending on the situation. At times, a character may have had the same role, but it played out differently in the story line – or he or she could have had multiple roles across different parts of the story. As such, a core character can have many facets or roles depending on scene. An example was KW. He will always be a Sri Lankan immigrant, with all of the experience and impact that carries. During the course of this play he is also a student and a youth worker. In some scenes his role of youth worker serves to provide key background information; in others he engages as a steering committee member who is advising, even driving, the action forward. In other scenes again his role of student assists to engage in the query and analysis of what is going on, and finally his role as a passionate defender of refugee rights also engages to help keep the development momentum moving forward when the challenges seemed insurmountable.

I was the only character constantly involved across all stages and scenes, however my function varied across the roles of: Visionary, Designer, Driver, Inquirer (researcher), Critic, Promoter/Lobbyist and Chronicler. The Visionary/Designer roles were constantly underlying all of the others, and were usually influenced by the Critic, in the sense that I was always thinking about where the design process was going, reflecting on its potential impact and on barriers in keeping the *vision* alive, and trying to keep the processes involved as participative as possible. My passion for the *vision* was largely responsible for this constant driving; my role of Inquirer engaged to keep the reflexivity constant. In this sense I was also an almost constant Driver, and often a Lobbyist or Promoter of the underlying value and potential of the *vision*/good idea. My role as student enabled the design process to be fed with learning from health promotion and community development theory related to the developing program design, and in effect also moved me into the role of Chronicler as I documented, recorded or consolidated progress.

Even though I was the only constant, this is still an ensemble play – not a monologue. The different characters interact, and engaged through their roles differently according to story lines; at times their roles are major, at others they are ‘bit’ players.

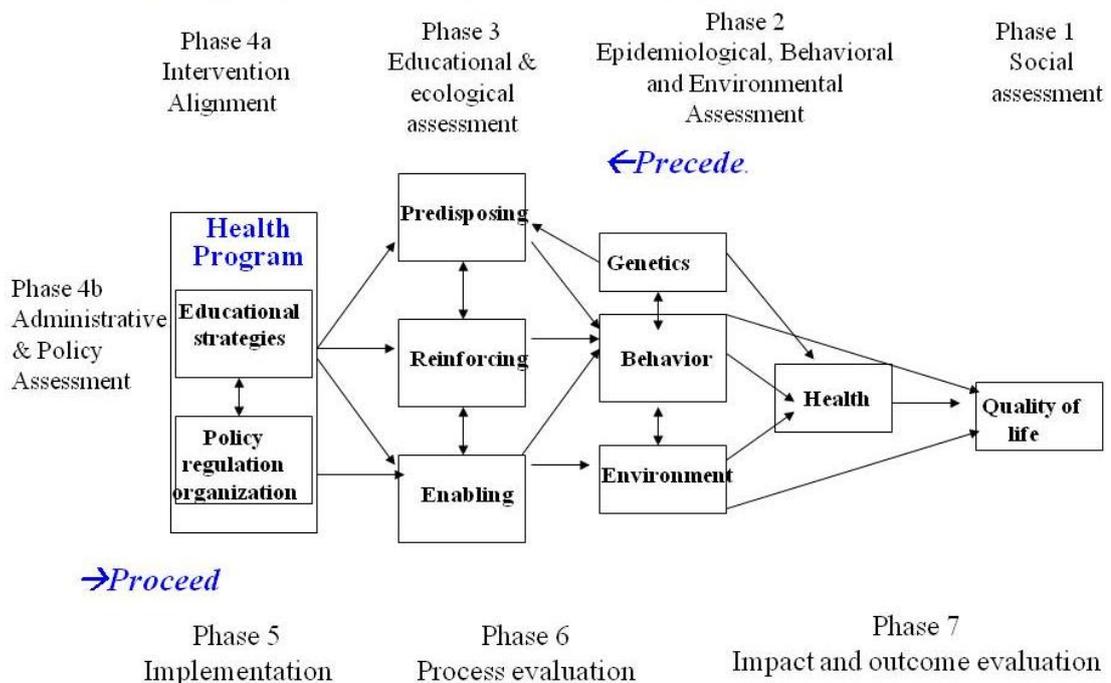
The sheer volume of the characters, collective as well as individual often seemed to mirror the cliché ‘a cast of thousands’. At this point the reviewer needs to figure out what is background noise, what is and who are context, and how to decide who to listen to. The sheer volume is almost overwhelming – how does one not become paralysed by this complexity? In the sense of the design phase of a community-based health promotion program, how do we manage to translate these multiple actors and forces into a viable and effective intervention?

Complexity is, of course, expected in community-based participatory health promotion. As addressed earlier, each of Ritchie and Rowling’s health promotion foundation characteristics: context, multi-strategy, participatory and dynamic properties involve multiple elements of intricacy.<sup>65</sup> Adams et al.’s evaluation of a

complex locality-based project in New Zealand highlights further complexity in noting communication issues as well as responsiveness to the diversity of stakeholder needs and expectations.<sup>125</sup> It is generally recognised that complex health promotion programs need to be adaptive and responsive to the flux of the socio-ecologic contexts in which they are situated, to the multiple and evolving stakeholders, and be able to manage challenges and take advantage of opportunities.<sup>62, 126, 127</sup> To manage this complexity in implementation, interventions need to be delivered with an iterative, responsive and emergent philosophy; it stands to reason then, that program design should be developed in this same way.

As addressed in the early sections of this thesis, there is a plethora of health promotion planning frameworks, and all acknowledge the importance of an evidence base and an appropriate underpinning theory. Amongst the various frameworks is Green and Kreuter's 'PRECEDE-PROCEED' model (see Figure 5).<sup>61</sup>

**Figure 5: PRECEDE-PROCEED model<sup>61</sup>**



Green LW, & Kreuter MW, *Health Program Planning*, 4th ed., N.Y.: McGraw-Hill, 2005

The planning phase of their model (PRECEDE) is one of the most considered and thorough of planning models to date. Three very extensive investigative phases lead to the beginning of any given intervention. Important in each phase is that the investigation should not only identify issues within the population of interest, but also opportunities or strengths that can contribute to the overall intervention that results from investigative planning stages.

The first phase of PRECEDE consists of a social assessment and situational analysis. Applying a socio-ecologic approach, this first phase involves a thorough examination of the socio-economic-cultural fabric within the intended population/community. Green and Kreuter emphasise the potential of this phase to include both social and situational contexts with suggestion that they can foster creative intervention strategies.

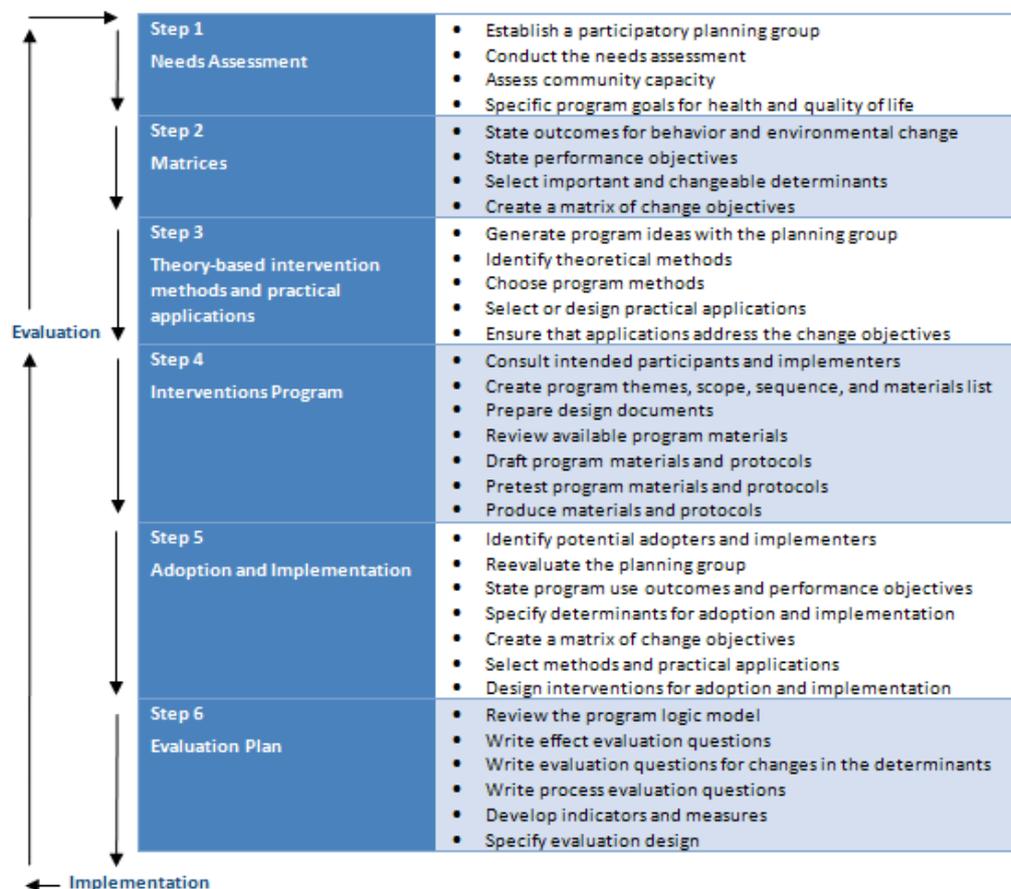
The second phase involves an Epidemiological Assessment, enabling the identification of specific health problems or protective factors. This phase is to be done with particular attention as to how the elements may interact with those identified in the first phase.

Building on the learning and relationships within the various elements from the initial two phases, an Educational and Ecological Assessment comprises the third phase of PRECEDE. To allow planners to manage the countless factors identified in this phase that could potentially affect or have an effect on the socio-economic system or population in question, Green and Kreuter propose grouping them into three broad categories:

- i. Predisposing factors: human elements that may assist or impede motivation for behaviour adoption or change (such as attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and knowledge).
- ii. Reinforcing factors: positive encouragement, feedback and benefits that may encourage or discourage certain targeted behaviour.
- iii. Enabling factors: resources, skill, obstacles and environmental changes that can help or hinder the sought after behavioural changes.

Bartholomew et al. propose another, even more extensive program planning approach, which they call ‘intervention mapping’.<sup>96</sup> As with other planning frameworks, they emphasise the importance of broad participation of community members. In my situation there were also a large number of diverse communities (and sub-communities), so this participation needed to include engagement across a broad range of groups. Considering that “the complexity of intervention development has been somewhat overlooked in health promotion training”,<sup>128</sup> the authors have developed an extensive iterative, yet systematic, approach consisting of 6 progressive stages; overseen/managed by a ‘participatory planning group’ (see Figure 6).

**Figure 6: Intervention Mapping Steps and Tasks adapted from Bartholomew (2011)<sup>96</sup>**



Study of planning frameworks such as PRECEDE-PROCEED or the Intervention Mapping Approach might provoke wonder as to why I did not just apply one of them to my situation and not go to all the bother of undertaking a convoluted

journey of discovery leading to the development of Football United. As an experienced practitioner and teacher of health promotion, I was of course inspired by these and other models. There are two fundamental reasons for not just ‘cookie-cuttering’ (applying without modification) them however. Firstly, these models are all situated within an organisational context of some sort. They suppose that the planner – the person or persons actually doing the exploration – are working from a clinic, community health centre, local or state health department, or some other such organisational base. Even if the resulting program plan is not ultimately run from that organisation, there is an organisational base from which the investigation and ensuing plan derives. This was not at all my situation – I was just an individual with a *vision*. The second, very important reason for not adapting one of these planning models is that even with an exhaustive situational assessment, such as in PRECEDE-PROCEED, the planner is only that – a planner, and not a designer. She/he has a relatively clear picture of the goals and objectives an intervention aspires to achieve, and draws from an array of already trialled, tested and measured activities and program elements; applying variations adapted to the different contextual situations identified in the situational assessment phases. In essence, those phases consist of a process of contextualising, whereas my journey began with an idea – a *vision* – but was essentially ‘tabula-rasa’ (clean slate). The design needed to realise this *vision* would emerge from our experience in the field.

This is not to imply, however, that there is not learning to be had from the examination of various planning models as to the methods and means of engagement. In particular, Green and Kreuter suggest that crafting an effective health promotion program will almost always require you to sift and sort through many factors, with a frequent “pause for a reality check” in between phases.<sup>129</sup> Bartholomew et al. emphasise the iterative processes along with the need to revisit often and ‘fine-tune’.<sup>96</sup> In effect, the heart of the issue is first to acknowledge the complexity, and rather than be overwhelmed by it, to find a way to digest it.

## 6. Reviewers Critique

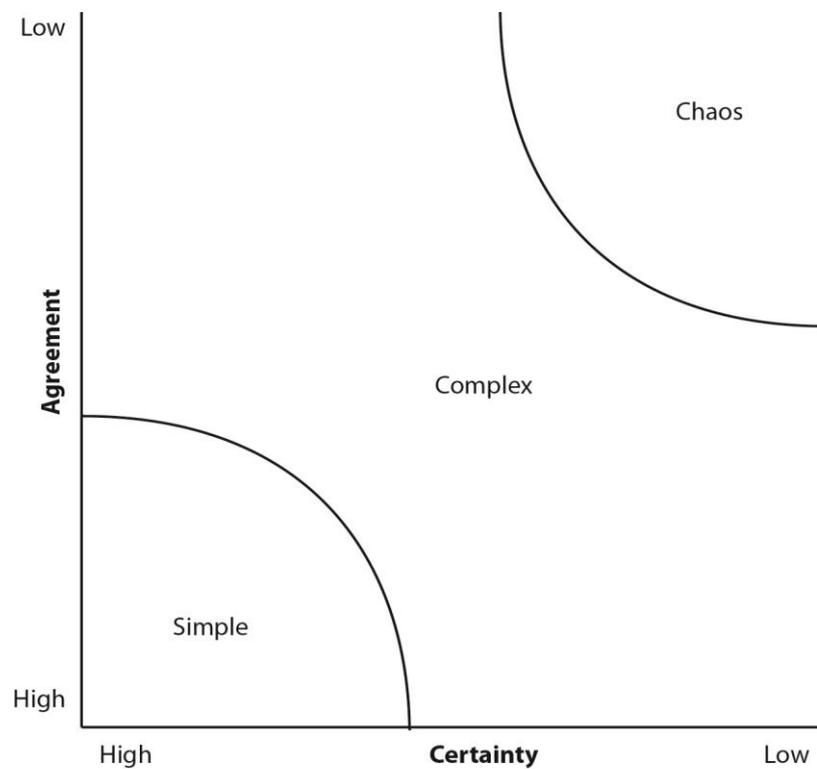
Community-based health promotion interventions range from simple to complicated to complex. Often the *evaluation* of complicated and complex interventions seems almost overwhelming to practitioners and researchers. Complexity scholars propose a number of ways to work through the complicated and complex types of interventions.<sup>127, 130-134</sup> Learning from and adapting some of their processes prior to developing the design for an intervention can be useful.

Complexity scholars generally consider the range of interventions to move from simple, through complicated, and onto complex, with the complexity reaching chaotic levels in some theories.<sup>133</sup> Simple interventions are relatively straightforward and easy to deal with – they comprise a single set of agreed objectives and anticipated outcomes, have standardised delivery mechanisms, involve a single delivering organisation, and basically can be considered to have a cause and effect relationship.<sup>133</sup>

Differentiating the characteristics between complicated and complex interventions becomes a bit more challenging. Both reflect ecological systems with multiple forces, levels, stakeholders, interrelating aspects and potentially competing interests. Campbell and Ling propose that complex interventions are further characterised by multiple input and feedback loops, adaptations, and multiple components that may act independently or interdependently; whereas in complicated interventions things tend to function more predictably.<sup>127, 135</sup>

Common in the different frameworks proposed by complexity scholars is the issue of ‘knowing’ – figuring out what we know and managing it, or identifying the knowable. Plsek and Greenhalgh’s framework focuses on certainty, or ‘knowing’ about what the problem is and the level of agreement on what to do about it (Figure 7).<sup>134</sup>

*Figure 7: Simple, complex and chaotic knowledge framework adapted from Plesk and Greenhalgh (2001)<sup>134</sup>*



The more simple the situation, the more agreement there is about what is going on and how to manage it; as the context increases in complexity, the certainty and agreement lessen (often diverging dramatically) with ensuing consequences in implementation and evaluation. Additionally, there is less confidence in the ‘knowing’, or in the case of interventions, ‘knowing how or what to do’, which produces the phenomena of feeling overcome by chaos. This feeling of inertia is particularly acute in a design phase because one is working in a process of creation, with a vision of objectives, but without a specific plan yet; often, as in the case of Football United, with little or no funding to support the work. So the situation in and of itself can be daunting, which is exacerbated as it becomes apparently more complex.

In an attempt to take the ‘overwhelming’, and thus the ‘paralysis’, out of complexity; Westley, Zimmerman and Patton integrate social innovation science with complexity theory to provide an excellent analysis of social change processes.<sup>133</sup> They provide analogy to common actions and focus their analysis on whether outcomes are more or less replicable, and to what extent (see Figure 8). Their table portrays characteristics of working on simple, complicated and complex problems, highlighting the fact that as we move toward complexity, the processes become more intricate.

*Figure 8: Simple, complicated and complex problems adapted from Westley et al. (2007)<sup>133</sup>*

<b>Simple: baking a cake</b>	<b>Complicated: sending a rocket to the moon</b>	<b>Complex: raising a child</b>
<b>The recipe is essential</b>	<b>Rigid protocols are needed</b>	<b>Rigid protocols have limited application or are counter-productive</b>
<b>Recipes are tested to ensure easy replication</b>	<b>Sending one rocket increases likelihood of success with the next</b>	<b>Raising one child provides experience but is no guarantee of success with the next</b>
<b>No particular expertise required, experience increases success rate</b>	<b>High levels of expertise and training in a variety of fields are necessary for success</b>	<b>Expertise helps but only when balanced with responsiveness to the particular child</b>
<b>A good recipe produces nearly the same cake every time</b>	<b>Key elements of each rocket must be identical</b>	<b>Every child is unique and must be understood as an individual</b>
<b>The best recipes give good results every time</b>	<b>There is a high degree of certainty of outcome</b>	<b>Uncertainty of outcome remains</b>
<b>A good recipe notes quantity and nature of parts needed and specifies order in which to combine them, but room for experimentation</b>	<b>Success depends on a blueprint that directs development of separate parts and specifies the exact relationship in which to assemble them</b>	<b>Can't separate the parts from the whole; essence is the relationship between different people, experiences and moments in time</b>

If we heed Green and Kreuter’s advice to sift and sort, at this point the reviewer is faced with a situation and learning that is complex. To return to my analogy, the reviewer now needs to apply some sort of attenuation filter to systematically work through the complexity to unearth the deeper understanding of the story.<sup>61</sup> The challenge is to work through the complexity; filter out the background, offstage and audience sounds; and focus on recurring bits to understand how the various elements and forces come together. Complexity scholars Funnell and Rogers advise to focus on the characteristics that are most relevant in developing a program theory to decipher the complexity.<sup>130</sup>

If we can succeed with an effective filtering mechanism, one might consider that the complex becomes merely complicated; the chaotic feeling of being overwhelmed (feeling unable to act) becomes one of analysis, understanding, and then managing. We need to unpack the complexity, and in doing so will often find that we move in a sense back from complex to complicated. Through our attenuation system we discover what is knowable as we unearth forces and elements that we see have meaning and impact (see Figure 9).<sup>133, 136, 137</sup>

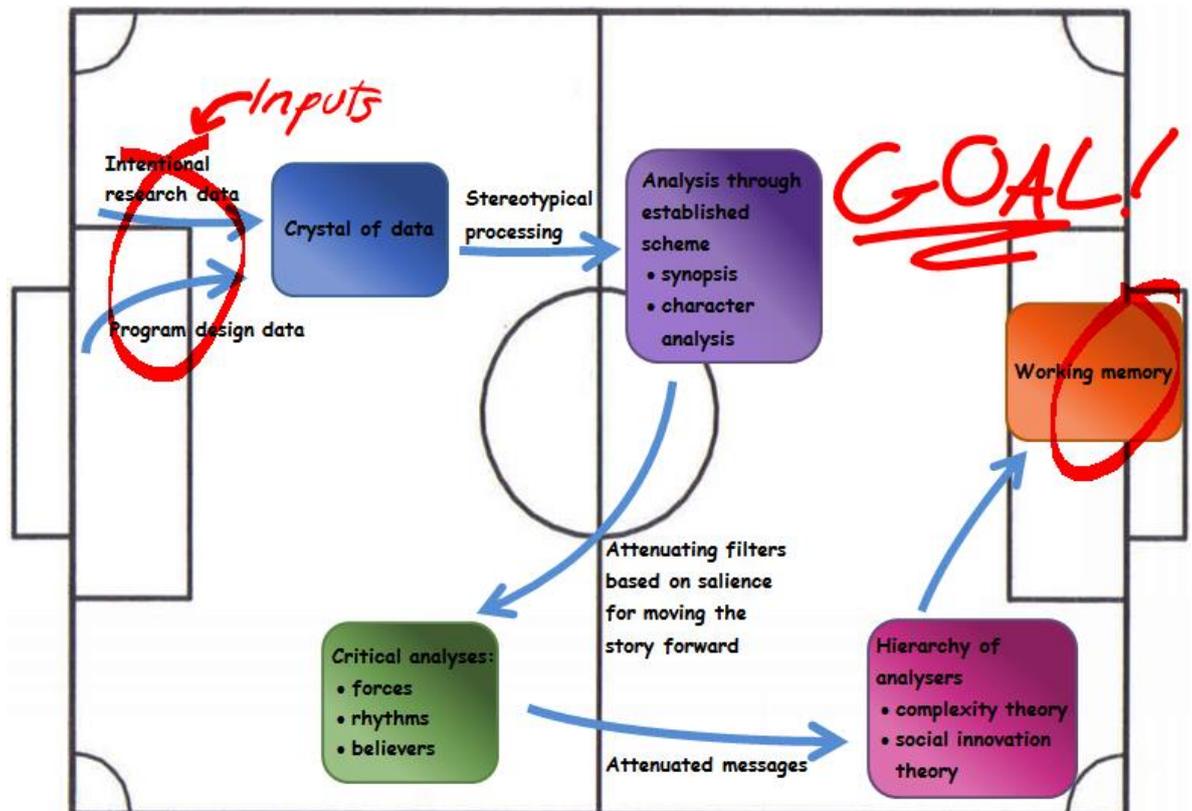
*Figure 9: The Cynefin framework adapted from Kurtz and Snowden (2003)<sup>137</sup>*

<p><b>Un-ordered – complex, patterns emerge through interaction, cause and effect perceived but not predicted and have retrospective coherence. We cannot be sure patterns will repeat because sources of patterns are not open to inspection (and this may itself disrupt patterns)</b></p>	<p><b>Ordered – knowable, cause and affect separated over time and space but could be known with sufficient time and resources, instead rely on expert opinion, Systems theory/reductionist</b></p>
<p><b>Un-ordered – chaos, turbulence, no cause and effect perceivable</b></p>	<p><b>Ordered – known, linear cause and effect, not disputed, repeatability, predictive models. Best practice can be described</b></p>

Westley et al. propose, however, that it is not about rendering the complex as merely complicated; it is about *engaging with the complexity*. The key in their theory of social innovation is the engagement processes.<sup>133</sup> They argue that to truly bring about social change, one engages with complexity rather than managing it. It is this process of engaging with the various processes and paying attention to how we engage that eventually brings about the change.<sup>133</sup> In doing so, social innovation scholar and activist Eric Young proposes that “we can see complexity not as an obstacle but as an opportunity.”<sup>138</sup>

My own attenuation filtering process (see Figure 10) was the application of the editing framework to the draft sections of the Character Notes, where I queried each section to explore: what are the forces, what did they do, how did they move the story forward and what do we conclude from it?

*Figure 10: Taking the inertia out of complexity (ABB attenuation filtering model)*



Three primary story lines emerged from my process of attenuation. Interestingly they build upon each other and cross-connect frequently, reflecting a phenomenon of cross-synergies.

## 6.1 Forces

A number of forces, both human and non-human, contributed to moving the development of Football United from a *vision* to a viable program design and ensuing pilot program. I use the term ‘driver’ at some points here, as they were often driving forces in moving the design process forward. There were both internal and external forces involved. For the most part the driving forces were human, however there were a couple of non-human, or phenomenal, forces that came into play as well.

### 6.1.1 Internal forces

I considered internal drivers as those people who were engaged and active throughout the design and early development phase of the program. Their engagement was regular and significant, hence they are considered as internal drivers in that they engaged and contributed to the development activities. This is all the more significant in that as they engaged, they could not necessarily be sure that our efforts to build a program would eventually be successful or not.

The primary internal driver was myself. I played a variety of roles, starting with that of initial Visionary. I was the main character as far as taking the *vision* towards developing a design for a program, moving from idea to exploration of the feasibility, performing analysis of the setting and characters, mobilising key individuals and groups, and undertaking initial experimentation of approach. I often presented myself as a student doing my PhD when I went to meetings with

people working in the refugee support sector or with refugee community groups. It was as if I felt the need to justify why I – a non-refugee – was exploring this idea, as if my role needed to be justified. I was not usually comfortable with this either – why could I not feel legitimised simply by the fact that forces within my life experience had inspired me with a *vision* that I believed in and wanted to explore?

*Why could I not feel legitimised simply by the fact that forces within my life experience had inspired me with a vision that I believed in and wanted to explore?*

The other characters engaged in the design phase, and working ‘from within’, were from many different ‘walks of life’: people involved in community-based refugee settlement support organisations (NK, KW, PO, GM); refugee community groups settled in the Sydney area (RB,SK); football groups of one kind or another (CF, AH, KL, DH, JM, UR); students (KW,ES,RR); university colleagues (CE); and media (CF, AH).

### **6.1.2 Internal driver engagement**

Three young people from the refugee support sector were key players across most of the exploration and early design period. One, NK, continued to play a significant part in the early piloting as well. Two of them had multiple roles, and all three engaged in every stage of the design and early development phases. Their primary roles involved providing important learning about refugee community settlement, covering a range of topics such as the historical backgrounds of the different refugee groups, lived experiences before arriving in Australia, the challenges faced in settlement, the opportunities available and the barriers encountered. They also provided a wealth of information about structures and support systems, provided links to key members of the communities, engaged in fund raising and helped in the delivery of activities. They helped to keep the *vision* alive through their mostly continual engagement.



A few football sector actors were early drivers in the design of the *vision* (CF, AH, KW, DH, JB). They played crucial roles in assisting me to understand the ‘football scene’ in Australia – to understand who is who and how things work, and provided connections to high level actors in the football scene, who would later provide valuable support. CF and AH also enabled significant media connections and coverage, which served as external drivers as well, while KL, DH and JM engaged in the actual football activities through coaching, refereeing, donating gear and managing activities.

Two internal actors, students ES and RR, were instrumental in the design process. They provided valuable human resources support through their roles of engaging in supporting preliminary research and program development assistance. They also brought a passion to explore, learn and engage, and an excitement and enthusiasm for the *vision*, which helped keep us all going forward.

Key to the development of this programs design was the internal actors’ common passion for helping refugee immigrant youth feel good in their new country, overcome their trauma, and access opportunities for growth and belonging. Crucial as well was their underlying passion for, and understanding of, how football could be a vehicle to support this. These combined to contribute to the development of what would become the overall program framework. Finally, they provided the energy to not only begin initial activities, but also to keep going back to the external environment to maintain outside interest in the program – thus helping things to move forward. Out of the group of early internal drivers we set up what we called at that point a Steering Committee (SC), a group made up of representative stakeholders from the different key sectors involved in this area of football for community development.

As time went on it was the implementation of activities that served to keep the SC engaged: the gala tournament for the program launch, the refereeing and coaching courses, and the African Australian Summer Tournament. The day-to-day work (further research, coordination and fund raising) largely ended up in my hands and

that of my student assistants (and in some cases, NK, KW, GM and PO from the MRCs). It was at this time that a sense of internal/external phenomena began to develop. Initially I felt this as a tension; I initially interpreted this lessening of the engagement as possibly indicating that we were not on the right track, that the ‘good idea’ was not good enough to last over time, or that the *vision* was not really a shared vision after all. This is when my ‘driver’ and Visionary roles kicked in, as I was still convinced of the power of the *vision*.

### **6.1.3 External forces**

The forces external to the core development group were most often from football, community-based refugee support organisations, or refugee communities’ sectors. Some of the people were initially very engaged as internal drivers, but this engagement changed as time progressed, and they became more of an external supporting force than one driving from within. Occasionally a government funding body employee or member from a donor organisation would come into the picture, providing support of one kind or another, such as donation of gear or a small financial grant.

Much of the external support forces came in the form of providing necessary information, networking support, and even financial and media support. Members of the community-based refugee settlement support organisations and refugee community organisation members essentially provided insight into refugee settlement experiences, the systems available to support them, and the challenges in reaching youth and families to enable them to participate. A few key members from the football sector assisted us to understanding the systems and structures under which mainstream football is managed. One KI from the football sector in particular provided links to influential people in the system, however most of those high up in the football system did not provide much contribution early on.

Of the non-human external forces, media coverage of events was a significant force. The attention was a facilitating factor, often drawing in new engagement of groups or individuals in one way or another. A particularly significant example of this was when two people from small charities, having heard about the program launch through the media, provided initial funding support – their passion for football sparked their interest in supporting the program.



Creating avenues: Anne Bunde-Birouste, Godfrey Mfashingabo, and Craig Foster at last Saturday's launch.

**By ADAM SCROGGY**

REFUGEES in Blacktown have the opportunity to come together through 'The World Game', as the Refugee Youth Soccer Development Program kicks off throughout Sydney.

Launching last Sunday at Granville Park in Parramatta, nearly 200 people turned out to the event, including ex-Socceroos Craig Foster and Andy Harper.

Program Convenor, Ms Anne W Bunde-Birouste, said it was important to provide an avenue for refugees to participate in sport.

"Some refugees are coming from war-impacted areas and very dire, overwhelming circumstances, but arriving in a new society can be overwhelming in a different way," she said.

"Many are keen to participate in soccer but don't know where to start. From an integration perspective, it's crucial to create avenues for the youth to have fun."

A senior lecturer in Public Health at the University of New South Wales, Ms Bunde-Birouste said so far the development of the Blacktown

"In Blacktown we're looking to work with the migrant resource centre, and we're also starting to connect with some of the local soccer clubs. The Blacktown City Demons in particular have been really great and welcoming."

Ms Bunde-Birouste said having the two ex-Socceroos on board has proved to be an excellent boost for the program.

"Craig and Andy have been really great. At the moment the program is run on a purely voluntary basis, but in the future we are looking to develop a co-ordinating entity, including a youth liaison officer for each community," she said.

"But that all depends on what we can get as far as financing goes - a voluntary basis can only go so far."

Aimed at people aged eight to 25 years old, the Program will promote social inclusion and address issues of disaffection amongst young refugees.

"We have two different pillars of activity - one is to support and develop programs that are already happening, such as the African Cup," Ms Bunde-Birouste said.

"The second is to implement training programs,

*Media coverage from the early days<sup>167</sup>*

External human forces (drivers) waxed and waned as far as active engagement. Although many people often expressed enthusiasm at the idea, they were mostly helpful in contributing information about community demographics and cultures, and sometimes provided further key contacts. In terms of active engagement, these people were useful when called upon for things like providing information required for designing the program, disseminating information out to participants and communities and providing support for special activities. Their engagement thus was often only upon request; if I let connections slide, they did not continue to engage. The program was not a core consideration for them.

The different non-human external drivers noted ended up playing a major role in moving the development forward. The positive coverage of significant events by the media resulted in new support in terms of funds, personal engagement and in-kind contributions, and sparked renewed engagement by members of the development group. The small grants we received served to reinforce our energy and engagement, boosting our drive to keep the program development going.

Interestingly, often the barriers encountered along the way turned into external drivers.<sup>vi</sup> They played an even more significant role in that they fostered phenomena of perseverance on my part as the principle driver. The difficulties, rather than discouraging me, pushed me forward and strengthened my resolve to find solutions. The more constraints there were to enabling access to football for the newly arrived, the more their passion to be able to engage became important, and thus reinforced my own conviction that the situation as it existed was not acceptable. This actually reflected a cyclical type of phenomena that occurs throughout the story. In this case, these external drivers then became my own personal internal drivers.

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<sup>vi</sup> In particular the financial constraints, cultural misunderstandings (such as discrimination and stereotyping) on all levels mentioned, or the organisational set up within the migrant support system, turned into external drivers.

### 6.1.4 Working with the forces

Internal actors have their own internal driving forces that they apply to engaging with the *vision*, and these generally come from a number of sources rather than one. In this situation a passion for football; a vision of its capacity to be a vehicle for positive change; and a passion for supporting refugee youth and families in their settlement to a host country were certainly the key common driving forces.

External forces needed to be managed, or driven, to engage them. At the least, they needed to be inspired with an impetus to engage and contribute. But this idea of active engagement is not a static place for either group. There is a flux, a movement in and out, for almost all of the forces. For example, some of the very early internal drivers shifted to become external drivers following the exploration and design phases, once actual activities got under way in the form of a program pilot. The query here is ‘why?’ Is it because they no longer feel ownership – it is no longer ‘their’ project, so they feel less needed? Is it the issue of people being committed when they can see a need to build something, but once built, feel they do not need to continue to support? Or have they just moved on to engage in other passions? My experience in this situation is that it is a mixture of all of these, and that both internal and external drivers are useful and needed. What is important is to be aware of them, to understand where things are at, and to find ways to ensure that both exist and contribute. For this to happen a facilitating, mobilising, and constant force is needed, which is the role that I was playing. My role as main character then became once of actor/director.

## 6.2 Rhythm of engagement

Related to the phenomenon of being an internal or external driver is the level of constancy or ‘rhythm’ of engagement, and the effect of both on the story. The characters who engaged regularly or over a long term can be considered as committed and stable players; as opposed to those whose engagement was either short term or which waxed and waned, thus being known as inconsistent players.

Initially, during the early exploration of this ‘good idea’ that led to the *vision*, and as the *vision* started taking shape into a ‘program design’ with multiple components, members of the initial Steering Committee (SC) and a few of the other internal drivers were consistently engaged. There is a difference though between being consistently engaged and continually engaged. Those who were continually engaged (stable characters) were those involved in the day to day movement, design and action involved in the exploration and development of the program. The consistently engaged were those who remained present when needed, either because they regularly checked in to see what was happening, or they reacted by engaging when solicited. Both internal and external driving actors fell into this category of consistent engagement. In other words, there were members from the external driving category who did not necessarily drive from within the program, but who would support or engage at any request we sent their way. Particularly significant in this way were two people from district football associations (DH, JM); without their participation most of the early football activities would not have been possible.

Inconsistent engagement was most often found in certain community organisations and representatives from them, or in refugee community groups. A few characters from the football arena came and went as well.

### 6.2.1 Exploring rhythm of engagement

In analysing the plot one might wonder how much of the flux in engagement was required by the story, and how much might be that the actors perhaps forgot their lines or entry cue?

Continual engagement was at times related to a position that enabled the group or individual to remain present or active. For example, students who were either employed in the project, or involved due to an internship, were continually engaged as their role of student required them to be. One of the internal driving youth workers, N, managed her job responsibilities such that she made time to be continually engaged in the program development, even if it meant working overtime to accomplish other required tasks. Another reason for continual engagement was a passionate interest in the *vision*, and a deep desire to support refugee youth on a positive path to settlement and feelings of belonging. This was the case for many characters who would be considered as consistent engagers, in particular students ES and RR, youth worker NK, and football and media star CF.

Turn-over or inconsistent engagement often occurred from groups and individuals who were overworked and over-engaged in other activities or causes, or were due to a fluid/fluctuating employment or living situation. Often youth workers at MRCs and other community groups had significant case-work overloads, which combined a wide range of areas of responsibility such as employment, housing, education and domestic relationship issues; in addition to the psychological support needed for the many torture and trauma sufferers. Sporting activities were seen at that time as recreation and were thus not considered high on the list of priorities to support, nor did they figure in MRC employee job descriptions, so youth workers were not able to spend a lot of time on them.

There was a lot of overall movement in the refugee settlement support sector. Fluctuations and scarcity in funding resulted in high employee turn-over in MRCs and other community-based support organisations. Instable income in refugee family units resulted in families/individuals moving around quite often, which was a challenge as far as keeping people engaged in geographically-located activities. The turn-over also impacted on being able to communicate with potential participants to let them know when opportunities or activities arose. At the same time many were engaged in numerous types of community activities, which resulted in competing priorities or multiple activities being scheduled at the same time.

Our story reflects accepted best practice in health promotion, which identifies that a coherent and effective approach to community engagement cannot be designed, developed and implemented without a strong human resource base to realise it.<sup>83, 123, 139, 140</sup> The regularly engaged (either consistently or constantly) actors provided continuity and progression in reflection on design – as to what we wanted to do/develop and how best it could be done – and engaged in action to do it.

The high turnover in characters was initially problematic on a number of levels. On a relationship level, creating confidence and trust is crucial to connecting and working with communities of which one is not a part, as was my case and that of R and E who were the other two most stable elements of the team. When actors moved on or disappeared, this often lengthy and always laborious step needed to be started all over again with the new people. On an operational level, the movement – or in some cases disappearance – of key individuals actually created problems for program delivery.

### **Vignette**

We were really excited to have been able to train a group of young guys as coaches for the first time. We were particularly encouraged because we hoped to be able to have them work with us on our very first overnight football camp. It was to be a way to enable them to get some experience under a professional coach, and for them to also earn a bit of money working with us. We were astounded to find out that, 2 weeks before the camp, we could only track down one of them! The rest had moved away and the case worker who was to be keeping track of them had not done so. A very good and frustrating lesson to learn!

As time went on, we learned that this phenomenon of movement was part of the situation in which we were operating, and we adjusted our expectations and our processes to work within it. Again the necessity for a constant driving force was crucial to overcome this ‘coming and going’.

### **6.2.2 Does type of engagement matter?**

How and when the characters engage is very important to not only the impact of the play, but also to the unfolding of the story. Whether there is backstage noise, lines or entries are timed appropriately or perhaps even forgotten affects the story.

Durie, Lundy, and Wyatt use the terminology ‘*Time and Rhythm*’ to acknowledge similar findings of changes between what they call substantial and flexible amounts of time engaged.<sup>141</sup> They note that there is a need to acknowledge the importance of both the ‘lead-in’ and ‘follow-on’ periods of engagement projects,

and to account for these in planning for engagement. Within their analysis also comes the element of timing, and they caution that perhaps communities are not always 'ready' for proposed change strategies or programs.<sup>141</sup>

Bisset and Potvin have studied the different ways and times that various actors come and go by applying Callon's actor-network theory to study program iteration in community-based health promotion program implementation.<sup>142</sup> They suggest that the critical elements related to the sustainability or effectiveness of a given program emerge or are inserted as the program adapts to the interests of the various actors, and that this movement is a key factor in a program's chance to effect change. Durie's group also refer to what they call "staying the distance", proposing that what I have referred to as consistent and committed characters are those who enable the building of the necessary trust for community members to engage.<sup>143</sup>

Many scholars recognise the need to have at least a small, stable, continuing element to manage program implementation. Israel and colleagues' study on challenges and facilitating factors in community-based participatory research note this as critical for both sustaining needed relationships and commitment, and for knowledge and experiential maintenance.<sup>144</sup> The variation in rhythm of engagement in my work supports this, but reveals that in the design and development phase a larger group of actors can be depended upon for certain contributions. A short term engagement, if significant in some way, can also make a big impact. This was the case of the initial funding contributed by the UNSW professor H, which enabled us to begin the research, or the case of A who connected us with significant members of high level football associations.

## 6.3 Believers

Critical to advancing the design development were the (group of) individuals I call the ‘believers’. The believers were those who could understand the *vision* of the power of football to bring people together and to become a platform for engagement, social inclusion and creating opportunities. Some of the believers involved came from the refugee support or refugee community sectors; and from community-support organisations, one such being the local Police-Citizens Youth Club (PCYC) centres. Others came from within the school of public health (being either staff or students). Then, of course, there were refugees themselves, and a few believers from the football and sports sector. The majority of the actors from the football world who were involved at different points in this story were passionate about football, and many believed in the magic of football – the power to bring people together.

Among the believers were also people who were not really directly involved in the related sectors, that is those not from refugee, football, or public health orientations. An example of these was people with what I call a ‘high humanitarian fabric’. Having heard about the program development, they felt a strong desire to assist and became engaged in whatever way presented itself. In a sense, these people could understand the *vision*, even though they were not previously engaged in any of the sectors it involved.



*Early days having fun with football*

Interestingly, ‘Non-believers’ were mostly from either the football sector or from the government sector (at both local and national levels). Many in the football sector believed in the power of soccer to unite, but also thought that there were no problems associated in engaging with the game; that anyone who would want to play would be able to do so. They considered that the system was open and inclusive, thus in a sense they were non-believers in the need for a different approach. They had passion for the game but lacked understanding of the realities of the system. Where their beliefs, or their vision, fell short was in their lack of wanting to understand or accept the limits in the mainstream systems. Most of them, and many of the government people as well, just figured that there were plenty of club or school-based opportunities for anyone to engage with, and all they had to do was want to join in. Relatively few understood the depth of the challenges involved for refugee and newly arrived humanitarian immigrants to participate in organised football at club level, or the limits to school sport in the public school sector.

### **6.3.1 Believer – non-believer interplay**

The believers were instrumental in helping develop the program design, were key to making important contacts necessary to get activities going, and provided crucial support to me in keeping the *vision* alive and moving forward. This latter point is very significant as the challenges I faced were many, and it was often tempting to throw in the towel and feel that it was all too much to try to do. Footballing believers provided me with crucial understandings of the very complex setting of the football scene, including inside knowledge of the often political machinations of how the sport is set up. They also provided very practical support by way of supplying gear and materials, and running activities. Among the footballing believers were two key people (F,A) who were also high profile media people. Their engagement enabled us to get significant early

exposure to the *vision* in the national level media which assisted us to build the profile and access financial support for the program development and early implementation. Believers figured, in essence, among the driving forces.

The non-believers either had little impact (in that they just did not engage) or, as noted in the plot synopsis, they actually could become barriers to supporting the project design development. Sometimes the barriers were passive, such as people in a position to assist just not doing anything. However at times the barriers were active, which prevented us from implementing key activities, such as when the Football New South Wales (FNSW) refused to support the African Australian Summer Tournament. Although a passive non-believer did not actually impede on development, they did in effect slow it down, as we would then have to find other pathways to get to where we wanted to go or do things we felt important. Active non-believers on the other hand did block development. This was particularly difficult when the barriers they put up involved either program activity, or not enabling funding applications. But as with the driver section, overall the barriers raised by non-believers had the effect of increasing my resolve to persevere, and they generally turned into external drivers *for* the program rather than against.

## 7. Engaging with both sides to the story, the social innovator

The age-old idiom that ‘there are two sides to every story’ is pertinent in contemplating the story lines which emerged from the critic’s review, as within each story line there is a ‘thesis and anti-thesis’ phenomena with interplay between them often occurring. Interestingly, similar findings are also found in Durie, Lundy and Wyatt’s United Kingdom Arts and Humanities Research Council (AHRC) research study of complexity theory as a basis for analysis in research on conditions that facilitated the creation of enabling environments for community engagement – their work focussed on examining processes of emergent behaviours within community engagement with research.<sup>141</sup> They also found similar contradictory ‘for/against’ or ‘pro/con’ trends in their research. They contend that these phenomena were not to be considered in opposition, but that the relationships needed to be considered in a much more nuanced way; in fluid and dynamic terms, allowing them to adapt and evolve – leading to what they refer to as “an emergent outcome.”<sup>141</sup>

This story began with an idea, a vision, a feeling that the universal passion for football (soccer) could somehow be harnessed to help newly arrived humanitarian immigrants settle into their new life in Australia. When forces aligned to move me from imagining to ‘doing’, a journey began. Westley et al. refer to this sensation as ‘the calling’ – the sensation a social innovator experiences which moves him or her to action.<sup>133</sup> In their analysis of social innovation, they accept that the answers are initially elusive, and that during the beginning of the journey the understanding and means to address change emerge. The beginning of this play was filled with questions more than anything: How it might work, if it could work at all?; What would the vision evolve into?; What is necessary to occur?; Who might come on board, and how?; and importantly, what would make that happen?

Emerging from each of the preceding sections, it is clear that the consistent presence of the actor/director is the thing that enabled this vision to become a viable program. Community builder or development scholars would call this character a ‘change agent’.<sup>140</sup> In their analysis of what they call ‘exemplar [health promotion] programs’, Mittelmark et al. refer to this personage as ‘community organiser’, and highlight the need for this person to be a strong leader.<sup>123</sup> They note that “the most critical decision in the genesis of a community-based program is the selection of a community organizer”, as the most important decisions to be taken in community-based health promotion are the choice of this character.<sup>145</sup> Business strategy scholars Ginsberg and Abrahamson refer to this character as ‘change advocates’ and ‘champions of change’,<sup>146</sup> noting importantly that they can “facilitate extreme strategic shift...by introducing new perspectives...and by taking political and symbolic actions that counteract institutional inertia and resistance to change”.<sup>147</sup> Finally, social change scholars would label this person a ‘social innovator’.<sup>133</sup> For the purposes of the rest of this tale I have chosen to use the term ‘social innovator’ rather than the term ‘change agent’ that is more frequently used in the health promotion literature. Westley et al.’s work most accurately connects with the approach and experiences I have had along the way, and has inspired me to learn more about their theories of linking complexity science and social innovation to understand the processes involved in community-based health promotion – which is really about social change.

Health promotion theorists have generally come to regard community-based health promotion programs as complex interventions set in complex systems,<sup>77, 132, 148, 149</sup> and increasingly look to complexity theory to contribute to the evaluation and research on program impact. My journey has extended to include social innovation theory and analysis of the *design phase* of a program. From this research we embrace the emergent aspect of innovation and accept the researcher as a social innovator, allowing her to engage with the complexity, which enables the program design to emerge from within the research journey.

Westley et al. consider that successful social innovation goes beyond the frameworks, theories and models that are appropriate to deal with complicated situations.<sup>61, 96, 98, 101, 133</sup> In fact, they go so far as to caution that disaster can occur if we try to manage complex systems with a protocol or framework used in complicated situations. These carry the risk of being unresponsive to the subtleties of varying needs, or at times even erroneously categorising the elements involved in the complexity; illustrated in their analysis of the complex system of mass education, wherein those with different learning styles are often erroneously categorised as having a learning disability rather than an alternative way to learn.<sup>133</sup>

In addition to their emphasis on engagement with the social processes, Westley et al. note the importance of relationships as being “key to understanding and engaging with the complex dynamics of social innovation.”<sup>150</sup> In their analysis of the social innovator, they propose that an attitude that “embraces paradoxes and multiple perspectives is paramount” to bring about successful social change.<sup>150</sup> The social innovator needs to have an understanding of, and engage with, both the complicated and the complex in the community spaces in which they work.<sup>133</sup>

The reviewer notes a number of key qualities emerging from this story that characterise the social innovator. This key individual needs to have the capacity to learn about, and understand, the community’s history and dynamics, and to anticipate and work with a community’s needs and challenges. To do so, the social innovator herself needs to have a capacity to be reflexive and adaptive, and needs to be responsive to community needs. Understanding the rhythms of engagement, and learning to work with them, is particularly important here. As I began to understand that different actors would not only come and go, but that the intensity of their engagement changed, I was able to manage the rhythms and forces to the benefit of the program design development. Similarly, the key to effectively engaging with the tension between the believers and the non-believers lies in knowing who has what stance, to what extent they are willing or wanting to act to support their belief (or non-belief), and to work with it. Believers can be

powerful advocates and proponents for a program, supporting its development and its actors; enabling it to develop, maintain and progress. Harnessing this ‘belief-power’ effectively is crucial to successful design development and program implementation. Likewise, knowing to what extent a non-believer will either be a barrier, or just a passive non-engager, is crucial. A passive non-believer is not harmful, whereas an active non-believer can effectively block development or worse.

Social innovators also need to be able to engage forces – both human and non-human, and internal and external – within the community such that they can seize and create opportunities to implement and grow their programs. Crucial to the social innovator is his or her capacity to gain trust. Engaging with the common passion and vision allows for building that trust, but it is persisting with the engagement that enables it to be maintained. Here again, managing the rhythms and working with the believers and non-believers is essential. Embedded in this management is a need for resilience on the part of the social innovator so that they have the capacity to cope with the ups and downs. As I mentioned previously, working with negative external forces had the effect of strengthening my resolve, often resulting in enabling me to turn challenges into opportunities. Westley et al. address this aspect of social change by noting that courage is needed to continue along the change process.<sup>133</sup> Referring to this process as transformation, they add the element of patience to the array of social innovator characteristics, proposing that it partners with persistence as a key character trait in effective change agents.

Rather than merely accompanying and facilitating the processes, the social innovator’s qualities extend to include an energetic persistence – a capacity to persevere. In managing the flux and flow of the varying commitment of the characters, my own determination was often reinforced. I endeavoured to not let go of the *vision* and my own belief in it. Westley et al. emphasise that one of the primary qualities in an effective champion for change is a high level of vision.<sup>133</sup> Rosemary Bosler and Donna Bauman have studied the persona of a change agent in culturally diverse communities. They suggest that clarity of the vision is

essential to impact change, but also emphasise that modelling the vision by commitment is key, rather than forcing the vision.<sup>151</sup> As the primary driver, this modelling was one of my key roles, both in engaging with the internal and external driving forces, and in attempting to inspire the non-believers. In reviewing this play, I add that the social innovator also needs to have a capacity for creative vision, with a passion for a vision for change. It is this creativity and passion that enables the effective social innovator to be able to either seize or craft the opportunities that are needed to maintain the driving force. A significant quality in this creativity is the nature of the change agent to be highly intuitive and perceptive. Bosler and Bauman cite Lao Tzu's philosophy that "intuitive knowledge was the purest form of knowledge".<sup>152</sup> This intuitive knowledge is honed by a highly engaged process of examining the scene and reflective contemplation with impressions gathered. I can honestly say that at times along this journey, as I contemplated the trajectory, I would find answers to the challenges more out of feeling a 'sense of something'. At times it would be more like a 'eureka moment' and jump out at me; other times it was more like a niggling or flickering, almost intangible thing. This intuitive capacity served me often in the journey, and likely contributed to my capacity to persist when the complexity felt overwhelming.



*First special girls' event*

## 7.1 Challenges of being the social innovator

As the initial visionary, and principle driver, I was the main character in the role social innovator. This initially created a dilemma to my personage of teacher and researcher in the field in regards to the best practice rhetoric in participatory community development and health promotion theory. I often felt what could be referred to as almost ‘mired down’ in trying to apply, as strictly as possible, principles of letting the development be driven from within the stakeholder communities.<sup>77, 153-155</sup> In the stakeholder consultation and program design phases, trying to continually assure that all players were engaged, consulted and actively in-putting frequently resulted in a stagnation – a lack of progress. As the initiator and driver, I was constantly juggling with the desire to maintain principles of consultation and participatory decision-making versus the need to just get on with the development. I was hesitant to be too directive, feeling that I might undermine the concept of participatory community building. This consultative process was frequently not understood by the community members or even the Steering Committee (SC), who often wondered why I continued querying and discussing, rather than taking the lead in decision making. I realised that they were not understanding what I was trying to do, which prompted the understanding that at times a pragmatic approach was needed. A driver was needed; I had that role and also needed to be a leader in taking a decision and moving the group forward.

### Vignette

It was the third time the same group in the town was meeting to discuss the program elements. I really hoped that this time we could come away with some decisions, as I felt we had gone around and around the same discussion points and not advanced. I tried as many different ways as I could think of to draw out some decisions, reiterating discussion points, posing questions, providing suggestions through ‘hypothetical scenarios’. I was getting very frustrated, and was near to blurt out that I thought that since this was ‘their’ program I thought they’d be able to come up with some decisions. Little did I know that they were wondering the same thing – but about me. All of a sudden, RB expressed it, “well Anne, **you** are the expert here – what do you suggest that we do?”

It is critical to apply participative processes conscientiously, and traditionally a Steering Committee of some sort is formed to manage program development and implementation phases.<sup>96, 153, 156</sup> We had, what seemed to me, the perfect composition for our steering committee with representatives from all the sectors, and all members passionate about our vision. When participation of the SC members began to wane, I was at first perplexed and hesitant to take on too much of a driver role, as I was wanting to adhere to a participatory process that would be more driven by the various community members. In the end, despite attempts by me to be consultative, to identify and foster emerging community leadership, ultimately the Steering Committee requested that I take the lead on the program given my learning and experiences. An academic colleague provided me with an alternative way to view this situation, suggesting that rather than a single advisory group, we were in fact working with a group of advisors. Each member brought support and counsel from their areas of engagement or expertise, and we did not need to be concerned if they met as a whole entity regularly. What was important was that there was a driving force, with guidance from within the different

communities concerned: a social innovator was needed. This social innovator needed to be able to understand working with the believers and the non-believers, to engage with the internal and external forces, and manage the rhythms.

At that point I needed to recognise and acknowledge specifically that this was one of my roles, and perhaps along with role of the researcher, this role of social innovator had become the most significant. This realisation shifts the thinking about the way in which we consider research in community-based health promotion. Even in the most evolved versions of participatory action research, the researcher is still only engaged in the research, with members of the various communities involved in parts of the research.<sup>77</sup> In considering community-based health promotion through the social innovation lens I acknowledge that social innovations enable the researchers to be an engaged and fully functioning member of the processes of change, rather than only in the research processes. In the critic's review I understood that this would not be problematic unless I let it become so by poorly managing the role. I could heed perform as my character of seasoned professional and teacher and conscientiously apply the participatory methods to the design development as applauded in theory and practice, yet still engage in the change agent role. This in itself is tricky, as it means managing the challenges even more intently. Paul Pettigrew, who has studied transformational change within a multi-organisational partnership from the change agent's perspective, notes "this role can have its exhilarations when things go well, but can generate equal and opposite despair when things go wrong".<sup>157</sup> He also proposes that the role of the change agent intertwines at times with the function of some of the more active characters, which was often the case in this play.<sup>158</sup> My roles of visionary, internal driver and student all coalesced into this dual role of social innovator and researcher.

Westley et al. carry this thinking a step further, indicating that rather than leading the way like a General leading the charge in a battle, the social innovator works *with* the processes and is part of the dynamics of transformation.<sup>133</sup> If we are going to progress towards a best process approach to community-based health

promotion, rather than a best practice approach, this journey highlights not only the place for the researcher and practitioner to be as one, but enlightens us to the legitimacy of being a change agent or social innovator. From this research we understand that community-based health promotion is indeed all about social innovation and that there is a need for a mobilising, catalysing element – the social innovator. In this sense, I suggest it is more about examining and validating that role. As Westley et al. note, what is needed is for the social innovator to engage with the tensions and the synergies, to maintain the focus and the energies involved in social change when multiple forces, even politics, are pulling at them in different directions.<sup>133</sup>

## 8. A Tale of Two Endings

As the reviewer winds up her critique, we realise that the final eureka moment is in fact twofold. Going back to the initial vision, *It must be possible to harness the passion for the 'World Game' (football/soccer) to help refugee youth settle into their new country*, we realise that for the initial vision to transform into a viable program design a constant driving force was needed, and we come to understand qualities underpinning that force, which we will further review shortly. There is another ending that this adventure has brought to light, which is the value of autoethnography as a method of inquiry, in particular its significance within the often neglected development phase of community-based health promotion.

### 8.1 Social innovator

As noted earlier in this thesis, health promotion experts such as Larry Green are increasingly calling for more learning from doing, and that we consider a 'best processes' approach rather than 'best practices'.<sup>84, 98</sup> Social change champion Eric Young similarly notes that social change comes from "diverse knowledge of transformative processes."<sup>159</sup> Westley et al. consider that it is this 'knowing', gained from applying complexity and social innovation science to the analysis of successful social innovation processes that will enable us to engage in future social change endeavours successfully.<sup>133</sup> Who would understand this 'knowing' better than the social innovator who has travelled the path?

When I began this journey, I wondered if I would be able to move from practitioner to researcher, and spent considerable time anguishing over this dilemma. Would I be able to refrain from engaging to actively contribute to program design development and eventually the implementation? It is widely

accepted that the nature of effective health promotion is that all phases need to be participatory and reflexive in nature.<sup>62, 77, 160-162</sup> As we saw early in this piece, there are multiple variants of this participatory and reflexivity: action research, participatory action research, reflexive practice, and reflexive community-based action research.<sup>77</sup> To date however, the researcher is still largely an outsider to the action, often accompanying and engaging with the various actors involved in the research, but not the program implementation action itself.<sup>8, 83, 142</sup> This separation denies the researcher the possibility to engage his or her own experiences with the learning, implying that the learning processes need to be external. Research in health promotion still focusses on evaluation (of impact) and essentially distinguishes between the ‘doers’ and the ‘thinkers’. My specific case suggests that the doer can in fact be the thinker, that the work of the doers can be researched, documented, understood and theorised. The social innovator and researcher can indeed be one.

From applying a complexity and social innovation lens to examine the depth of learning within this story, we can begin to consider community-based health promotion as a social innovation process. This research enlightens us to the value of autoethnography as an effective valuable methodology of investigation in community-based health promotion. It is particularly appropriate for the first stage of the TIES 2 implementation science – the often under-researched design phase of a community-based health promotion program.

## 8.2 Autoethnography and Health Promotion Research

The autoethnographic approach allowed me as the researcher to engage actively in the exploration and emergent processes which resulted in the Football United program design. The autoethnographic approach I used in this journey enabled me

*The autoethnographic approach allowed me as the researcher to engage actively in the exploration and emergent processes which resulted in the Football United program design.*

to engage with the complexity of the experience to the extent that I acquired a deep understanding in a way that other methodologies would not permit. Going back to Section 3 (methodology), we are reminded that the autoethnographic methodology was specifically chosen to enable me as the researcher to engage fully with the world I was researching. As a Complete Member Researcher (CMR), not only was I engaged as a full member of the cast of characters, I was legitimately an integral social actor in the play: I could actively engage in the program design development as I researched it, and even “be involved in the decision-making, and potentially engage in divisive issues”.<sup>112</sup>

Autoethnography is especially appropriate for the design phase of community-based health promotion because it effectively enables the researcher to go beyond the ‘what is,’ to explore the ‘why this is (and what can be done about it)’.<sup>106</sup>

Health promotion theorists are united in acknowledging the need for a significant community mapping or investigative phase in planning a community-based health promotion program.<sup>61, 96-101</sup> Mittelmark et al. advise that the preparatory phase, which I am referring to as the design phase, is possibly the most critical phase in a given program. They caution that to rush it could be fatal to program success – it thus requires a solid research approach upon which it is based.<sup>123</sup>

The diverse planning frameworks all include investigative phases, referred to as mapping, needs analysis, stakeholder analysis or other terms.<sup>61-64, 66, 75, 79, 96, 98-</sup>

<sup>102, 128</sup> Yet the focus of the frameworks tends to be oriented to well-defined problems or issues, and the exploration of stakeholder engagement with proposed solutions.

Gilmore and Campbell refer to the needs assessment as “a systematic study of the discrepancy between what is and what should be.”<sup>96</sup> This perspective assumes that the planning or design teams know what they want to do, which of course is often the case. But equally as often, and as in my case, the situation is wide open. There was not one, or some, concrete epidemiologic problem(s) to solve. There was a social issue and a vision, with some positive energy to explore it.

This vision then began the emergent processes that situate this research as exemplary of the very initial phase of implantation theory TIES 2 – the translational stage setting or design development phase, as noted earlier. This phase precedes the planning of a program implementation.

Autoethnography provides a research approach that enables us to explore and examine the “real world setting that informs the design of interventions”.<sup>94</sup>

The autoethnographic method can have significant implications for health promotion research, in particular, the practice-based research that is increasingly sought from

*Through this research methodology we learn about what is ‘knowable’, thus some of the complexity is rendered simply complicated and is then manageable.*

*Through autoethnography, the social change processes are underpinned by a robust research technique which enables analysis and processing – allowing us to apply the learning for future social change endeavours.*

theorists.<sup>62, 84, 98, 163-165</sup> As we look for more practice-based research to inform policy and theory, an autoethnographic approach is particularly effective. It can empower the practitioner to become the researcher. Autoethnography acknowledges the researcher's experience, and *expects* that it will inform the research.<sup>103, 110</sup> Yet it is not just about the researcher, and there are specific methodological parameters (Anderson's 5 features, refer to Section 4.2 of this thesis) in analytic autoethnography that ensure the researcher engages in a high level of dialogue with informants and in commitment to theoretical analysis (refer to section 4.2 this thesis). As such, this is an excellent method to provide the foundation for practice-based research.

Analytic autoethnography, supported by learning from social innovation and complexity theories, enables engagement with the complex processes and systems that will necessarily be encountered in trying to design community-based health promotion. Through this research methodology we learn about what is 'knowable', thus some of the complexity is rendered simply complicated and is then manageable. What is left as complex becomes less frightening, and we understand how to engage with the forces, rhythms and believers within the complexity.

### 8.3 Closing comment

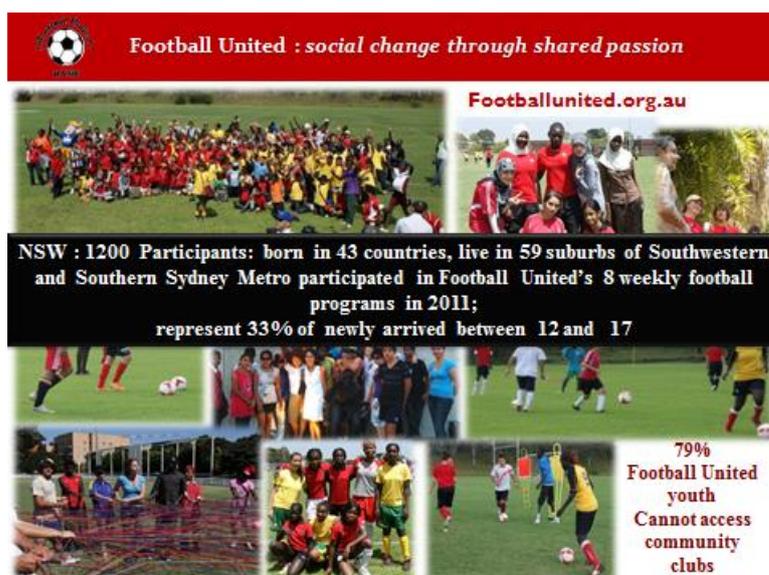
To close this critique, I propose that we begin to consider community-based health promotion as a set of complex social innovation processes, where the genesis of the social change is a desire to change the 'what is'. Because the mechanisms of transforming the *vision* to action often seem elusive, the social innovator can be particularly aided through an autoethnographic approach. Through autoethnography, the social change processes are underpinned by a robust research technique which enables analysis and processing – allowing us to apply the learning for future social change endeavours.

## 9. Epilogue

The Football United program is now flourishing in its seventh year of operation. The program continues to use an iterative and emergent style to implementation, applying a responsive approach to incorporating new design elements that are effectively meeting emerging needs, new challenges and opportunities.

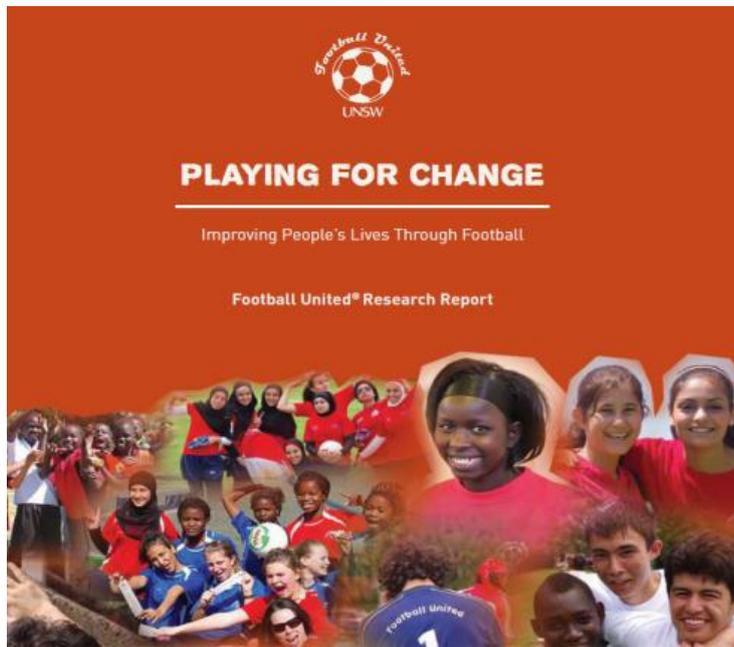
Football United began in 2006 with the goal of supporting refugee and newly-arrived young people and families in their transition into Australian society. The *vision* has evolved to become a program which combines a number of effective mechanisms for engaging and re-engaging young people with refugee experiences and disadvantaged youth into their communities, fostering their educational engagement and promoting cross cultural harmony.

Since its beginnings, Football United has delivered positive outcomes for over 4000 participants. Working with over 50 community based organisations, Football United has worked with hundreds of young people, teachers, volunteers and community workers as participants, coaches and leaders in some of the country's most disadvantaged areas. Football United's localised programs align with social and educational outcomes sought by each respective region, school, and their broader community.



*Football United, snapshot in 2012*

An Australian Research Council funded study was implemented on the program from 2008-2011.<sup>50 166</sup> Results of the study note that the program has achieved quantifiable improvements in the lives of individuals and their communities, underlining Football United's positive impact on participating young people's sense of self, and appreciation for and engagement with peers from diverse backgrounds. Learning from interviews found unanticipated connections between participating in Football United and learning English, positive engagement with school, and building self-confidence. The study indicates that the Football United



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program can assist in overcoming the cultural, language, financial, logistical and relational challenges experienced by young people and their families in engaging with sporting activities by bringing a sport they love to them, and providing offerings adapted to suit each unique situation.

The local scenario from this research, as noted in the Plot Synopsis: Passion and Politics in Australia's Football Scene, challenges with Community organising and Finances (section 5.1 of this thesis), remain similar and omnipresent. Yet I feel that the learning I have acquired in undertaking this autoethnographic study has fortified me with a deeper understanding of the complexity of the social innovation processes involved. This learning has provided me with a resilience that enables me to engage with the complexities and often, although not always, avoid the inertia and panic they can evoke. Importantly, it has also provided me with a significant capacity to share this learning with the program staff and

students who are engaged with the program. They embrace this sensitive and responsive implementation design rendering Football United an excellent example of best process in social change through community-based health promotion (all modesty aside).

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