

A GUIDE FOR
PRACTITIONERS
IN THE FIELD OF
**SPORT FOR YOUTH
IN EMERGENCIES**



CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION 4

I. Intention 5

II. Acknowledgements 5

III. Purpose of the Toolkit 6

IV. Toolkit audience 6

V. Target beneficiaries 6

VI. The value of sport and play 6

VI.a Health 9

VI.b Psychosocial rehabilitation 9

VI.c Education 10

VI.d Community building 11

VII. Further reading 12

PART I: DESIGNING A RESPONSE 14

1 Introduction 15

2 Preparation 16

2.1 Socio-political-cultural context 16

2.2 Sport and play profile 16

2.3 Materials and equipment 17

2.4 Link to other programs 18

2.5 Further reading 19

3 Assessment 20

3.1 Guiding principles 20

3.2 Planning the Assessment 22

3.3 Accountability 30

3.4 Further reading 31

4 Planning 32

4.1 Community sensitization and consultation 32

4.2 Selection of mentors 32

4.3 Selection of participants 33

4.4 Workshop 36

4.5 Further reading 39

5 Monitoring & evaluation 40

5.1 Objective 40

5.2 Guiding principles of M&E 40

5.3 Monitoring 42

5.4 Evaluation 43

5.5 Further reading 46

6 Transition 47

6.1 Looking toward the future – Sustainability 47

6.2 Curriculum development 47

6.3 Staff 48

6.4 Multi-sectoral approach 49

6.5 Further reading 49

7 Key Policies 50

7.1 Further reading 51

8 Glossary 52



INTRODUCTION

MOVING FORWARD TOOLKIT

I. INTENTION

Time and the space to play are among the first elements to disappear from the lives of young people in a natural disaster or emergency. In the immediate, often chaotic, aftermath, the focus is on the provision of food and essential items to ensure survival. However there is a growing recognition that the psychological, social and mental growth of children and youth requires more than proper nutrition, clean water and the prevention of deadly diseases (Bragin, 2005, 79).

In an emergency, the material needs of children and youth are often prioritized over interventions that address cognitive, physical, social and emotional development. Yet sports, games and play-based interventions can support children and youth in recovering from the trauma of a disaster by strengthening resilience and restoring healthy coping strategies. Such psychosocial programs can help children and youth to recover from the effects of displacement, disaster and war—addressing social, behavioral and psychological issues in group contexts while reducing stress and re-establishing a sense of normalcy.

Psychosocial programming typically refers to non-biological interventions focused on restoring the mental health and social well-being of communities. Therefore it should be clearly distinguished from psychiatric and psychological interventions.

In global emergency response programs, structured sport and play activities are rapidly emerging as an effective way to mitigate the psychosocial impact of disasters and conflicts on young people. Though it is a relatively new field, there is a growing body of evidence supporting the approach as a valuable complement to traditional relief programming (Schwery, 2008). While often regarded as a component of education or psychosocial programs, the added value and potential of sport and play activities has yet to be mainstreamed and there are no broadly accepted models for using sport and play as a means to help young people recover from various types of humanitarian emergencies.

Although there are a number of key documents elaborating and promoting the rights of children in humanitarian emergencies (for examples see ‘Further Reading’ at the end of each chapter), there is limited agreement or discussion on the best ways to support children’s healthy development following a disaster. Interventions must be tailored to the unique context and culture of the emergency situation while taking into account an affected community’s existing strengths, resources and coping mechanisms. Its relative infancy explains why best practices from this field have yet to be specifically incorporated into international humanitarian standards such as Sphere, INEE and IASC. For youth-tailored sport and play programs to reach their potential, empirical evidence must be collected to provide conclusive evidence about which sports-based practices best address the needs of young people in post-disaster and emergency situations. Since this is the first manual of its type and one that will no doubt necessitate continual enhancement, the authors are thankful for feedback on first-hand experiences of the Moving Forward Toolkit alongside any suggestions for improvement.

II. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This initiative would not have been possible without the support of three organizations: Nike, who initiated the project and took on the role of primary financial sponsor; CARE and Mercy Corps, who both have a long term commitment to the development of sport programs in emergencies and devoted valuable resources to the advancement of this toolkit.

Acknowledgment is also due to the International Council of Sport Science and Physical Education whose Sport and Physical Activity in Post-Disaster Intervention handbook (ICSSPE Manual, 2008) provides information which complements this toolkit. Also to Kennesaw University whose contribution to the above handbook provides valuable research on trauma. Last, but not least, the Swiss Academy for Development (SAD), who created a landscape document together with Schwery Consulting (2007) and is responsible for diverse publications relating to work in this field.

III. PURPOSE OF THE TOOLKIT

The goal is to help young people to recover from the traumatic effects of emergencies by providing practical tools that support sport and play programming thus promoting healthy physical, social, emotional and cognitive development. Such targeted attention to youth is essential to the recovery and rebuilding of communities struck by disaster.

It is hoped that the application of these resources will provide further empirical evidence to support the use of this methodology as an effective tool to strengthen resilience in post-emergency settings. The toolkit has the added appeal of supporting mainstream approaches to emergency response programming.

Although the toolkit offers recommendations and guidelines for planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating sport and play programs in post-emergency settings, it is not a rigid programming model. The guidelines are intended to be flexible enough to enable adaptation to the specific context in which sportbased programs will operate.

IV. TOOLKIT AUDIENCE

The toolkit is intended primarily as a reference guide for field practitioners (relief workers, emergency response teams, project staff and partners) responsible for setting-up and managing sport programs for young people after emergencies. The toolkit materials may also be useful for overall emergency preparation planning, proposal development, training planning, project evaluation, and other communication and information sharing.

V. TARGET BENEFICIARIES

The toolkit has a tri-tiered approach to target beneficiaries. It is primarily designed for the benefit of 'Tier 1': children and youth affected by emergencies and the mentors that coordinate sport and play activities. However, it is also expected to have a positive impact on 'Tier 2': the families and communities affected by an emergency. Once the program

has their support, organizers of the program must work alongside parents and community members to plan and implement the project; for their input and guidance is required on a range of aspects such as sourcing local materials, encouraging children's participation in the program, identifying suitable locations for activities, and so on. Involvement in a successful sport and play program can bring significant psychosocial benefits to parents and community members. A final group of beneficiaries exist under the 'Tier 3' category: other programs, standards and practitioners that are involved in or concerned with this area of work. Lessons learned from sport and play programs should be published and shared with the international community in order to develop good practices.

VI. THE VALUE OF SPORT AND PLAY

Sport and play—from physical activity to organized competitive sport—has an important role in all societies. Access to, and participation in, sport and play is a human right that is important for individuals of all ages to lead healthy and fulfilling lives. The right to play and participate in sports has been embodied in many UN conventions. In 2002, acknowledgment of sports inherent values led the UN to commission a report examining the potential contribution that sport can make towards achieving the UN Millennium Development Goals (see Chapter 7).

Sport for development programs can be used as:

-
- > A vehicle for disseminating educational messages such as safety (land mine education), health promotion and disease prevention (hygiene, HIV/AIDS)

 - > A tool for teaching positive values and life skills, improving health and wellbeing, individual development, social integration and the development of social capital (increasing cohesion), peacebuilding and conflict prevention and economic development

 - > A social inclusion tool: it can empower and promote the inclusion of marginalized groups, especially women/girls, refugees, and people with disabilities
-

FIGURE 1 > THE CONTRIBUTION OF SPORT AND PLAY IN THE 3 PHASES AFTER AN EMERGENCY

EMERGENCY PHASES

Response

- > Water supply & sanitation
- > Food security, nutrition & food aid
- > Shelter & site management
- > Health services



Recovery

- > Psychosocial rehabilitation
- > Education
- > Recreation



Reconstruction

- > Community development
- > Social Services
- > Economic Reconstruction



SPORT IN EMERGENCIES

1

- > Create safe space & activities to occupy children & youth
- > Sanitation & hygiene education/outreach

2

- > Assess psychosocial disorders
- > Refer for treatment
- > Structured to alleviate trauma and to return to normalcy
- > Pairing with supportive adult figures
- > Facilitate re-entry to school
- > Spread joy and happiness

3

- > Develop leadership
- > Promote cooperation and conflict management skills
- > Raise awareness about HIV/AIDS and other diseases
- > Improvement of daily coping and other life skills

Source: Schwery Consulting, 2008

FIGURE 2 > THE VALUE OF SPORT AND PLAY

There are four main topics that capture the value of sport and play in emergency situations (as represented in Figure 2). These are discussed in more detail below.



VI.a Health

For young people, sport and play activities are critical to healthy development and are essential for optimal growth and learning—addressing physical, cognitive, emotional and social development. Play is the *work* of childhood and is a cornerstone of healthy psychosocial development (Duncan and Arntson, 2004, 24). Through these activities, young people gain social skills, learn core values such as cooperation and respect, express their feelings and build their self-confidence and trust—leading to increased resilience, self-esteem and social interaction with others. Involving children and youth in structured sport and play activities is especially vital to the healthy development of young people. They also learn social integration and positive coping mechanisms through their participation in sport and play activities.

For young people whose lives have been disrupted by disasters or conflict, these activities become even more essential as a means of trauma healing and recovery. Play is a powerful and effective means of reducing stress and seems to hold restorative powers for young people in difficult circumstances (Bernard Van Leer, 2005, 51). Providing them with the opportunity and a safe space to play helps them to reestablish a sense of hope and normalcy – enhancing innate resilience and healthy development. Regularly scheduled structured play activities such as sports, drama, music, and art, are vitally important in the emergency and

post-conflict period because they enable children to process the events around them and resume normal childhood development (Triplehorn, 2001).

VI.b Psychosocial rehabilitation

The World Health Organization (WHO) defines health as ‘*a state of complete physical, mental and social wellbeing, and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity*’. This shows the importance of, and direct links between, physical, mental and social aspects of well-being. The effects of a humanitarian crisis on individuals and communities can be considered in terms of each of these three dimensions. The growth and development of young people is particularly at risk in war and disaster, and deserves special consideration. First, children exposed to war and violence must have food, shelter and age-appropriate care. Ensuring that basic needs are met is, in itself, psychosocial assistance. It lets children know that life will go on despite the terrible events that have occurred.

Research suggests that the participation in sport and play activities can help to restore the well-being of community members who have experienced severe stress and/or psychological trauma to normal pre-crisis levels of functioning. Although it is not yet understood exactly how sports programs are effective in resolving the young people’s stress and trauma, there is a growing body of evidence that engagement in sport can have a tremendous healing power for those suffer-

Definitions

Psychological effects of humanitarian emergencies refer to experiences which affect emotions, behavior, thoughts, memory and learning ability, including the capacity to understand everyday situations (adapted from Loughry & Ager, 2001. See also Bragin, 2005).

Social effects refer to how the experiences of war and disaster alter people’s relationships to each other, change the workings of the community and personal circumstances, for example through death, separation, estrangement and other losses. Social effects also include an economic dimension, as many individuals and families suffer substantial material and economic losses from war and disaster. This can also cause the loss of their social status and place in their familiar social network.

Psychosocial well-being is a state in which a person is able to manage life tasks of love and work, family and community, find meaning in daily life and have hope for the future. On a social level, psychosocial well-being provides strength, self-esteem and resilience in the face of shocks and difficulties. Every culture has its own more specific definition of psychosocial wellbeing and how to get it, maintain and represent it (adapted from Bragin, 2005).

ing from physical and psychological trauma and stress-related anxiety (Schwery, 2008). Sport and play activities stimulate innate resiliencies that can naturally strengthen, heal and protect individuals in times of extreme stress.

Social support networks play a crucial role in providing the necessary preconditions for youth to begin their recovery from psychologically disruptive events. Research has shown that social support provided by caring family, friends, coaches, teachers or other peers or adults facilitates the post-emergency recovery process (IASC, 2007, 5). These caring individuals are ideal participants for the Moving Forward training, whereby they can learn how to organize and facilitate structured sport and play activities designed to improve psychosocial well-being. While most youth show great resilience following traumatic events and will respond well to structured activities led by a caring adult, some youth require specialized support. In such cases, caregivers should be trained to refer youth to specialists where available.

The cultural relevance of post-disaster psychological intervention varies greatly from one culture to the next. While direct intervention by a specialist may be appropriate and available in some contexts, it may be inappropriate in others, and unavailable in many post-emergency settings. Sport and games also vary in their cultural relevance and significance. However, involving children and youth in sports and games is widely recognized for its ability to enhance social interaction and innate resiliencies and healing processes. When programs and activities are adapted to local cultural practices and traditional games, a sport- and games-based approach can be an effective, widely acceptable form of psychosocial intervention.

VI.c Education

In the absence of formal school structures, sport and play activities can be a valuable way to initiate education during and after conflict and emergencies. Targeted activities helping young people to recover from disasters are often a key element of post-emergency education programs. During these

times, the rapid establishment of structured recreational activities for children can bring about a degree of normalcy and prepare children to return to a classroom setting. Community members, including adolescents and young adults, can play an important role in leading such activities. Implementation of emergency programming must comprise strategies for longer-term education. Activities, sport kit materials and facilitator guides, for example, can continue to be part of the regular school programming or normal curriculum once the initial relief phase of the emergency has passed.

The three-phase framework for education programs in emergencies developed by Save the Children, UNICEF and UNHCR (Triplehorn, 2001) includes sport and play activities in the initial emergency response phase and supports creating “safe spaces” (see below) for young people to participate in educational and recreational activities. While often regarded as a key activity in the initial re-establishment of education, sport and play activities have continued value throughout the education system and should be an integrated part of all phases of recovery.

Safe Spaces

These are physical locations established in camps for displaced persons or communities that are protected and allow for youth to participate in structured activities. They are widely recognized as a key component to emergency response by humanitarian relief and aid organizations.

SPHERE standards state that, ‘It is important to try to provide a safe place for the children of the community to gather, to play, to meet old friends and make new friends (particularly where some children have died and some have been displaced to other locations).’

Safe Spaces provide the necessary infrastructure on which to build and house psychosocial support programming.

In the initial emergency response period sport and play interventions can be an essential ‘building block’ for emergency education initiatives as well as broader psychosocial programs. During this first phase, psychosocial and educational pro-

grams overlap and intersect, sharing the common goals of: healing trauma, establishing normalcy through structured activities, preparing for formal schooling, and investing in long-term child development. Establishing child-friendly spaces, for example, can be a first step in both types of programming, providing emergency education and psychosocial support for children of various ages. Emergency response programs can build on this common foundation to develop longer-term child-focused programs (including formal and non-formal education, psychosocial support, peace-building, health promotion and gender equality.

VI.d Community building

Sport and play can be a highly effective means of helping to normalize community life in areas affected by natural disasters and conflict. Organized sport and play activities provide a structured environment that creates a sense of safety and stability, promotes social integration, and reduces the idleness of many young people. Through regular scheduled activity, children and adults can begin to regain a sense of security and normalcy and enjoy periods of respite from the often overwhelming challenge of reconstruction. Such “normalizing” programs not only help children recover from trauma and move forward but also provide a training ground for youth and adults to learn the skills of constructive participation in the work of civil society (Sinclair, 2001).

Physical activities can also make a positive contribution to physical and psychological health and to the lifestyles of those living in difficult circumstances, for example refugees and/or displaced persons, whether inside camps, collective accommodation or in the community. Traditional games, dances, songs, and stories provide a sense of comfort and stability during crises, and also help to strengthen youths’ sense of cultural identity. Forced displacement may scatter communities and make it difficult for children to learn songs, proverbs, dances, and art forms that link generations and provide continuity. Participation in these types of group activities can rebuild a sense of solidarity and community, while also enabling pro-

social behaviors such as cooperation, communication, and skills in settling conflict non-violently (Duncan and Arntston, 2004, 24).

Sport- and games-based programs help engage youth as actors in programming and have the potential to redefine youth roles in post-emergency reconstruction. Youth groups and sports teams can organize to assist with community clean-up, construction or aid distribution efforts. Active and engaged youth also present a compelling case to entrust youth with tasks and roles traditionally reserved for adults. Additionally, through active and interactive participation, youth can learn to assume leadership and teamwork roles that are needed during emergency response, recovery and reconstruction phases.

Programming catalyst

Sport for development programs have for some time been acknowledged as a powerful tool to mobilize communities, communicate key messages and foster development. Well-designed sport and play programs in the aftermath of a disaster or emergency can be a constructive medium to use even beyond the emergency phase.

Integrated approach

Sport and play programs implemented in emergency or post-emergency situations incorporate multidisciplinary strategies and are most effective when well-coordinated with other sectors and longer-term programming. These activities complement traditional relief activities (food, shelter, water & sanitation, protection) and should be designed as part of an overarching emergency response program.

Sports programs implemented in emergency or post-emergency situations can give organizations the opportunity to provide young people with other important education and healthcare services, as well as offer opportunities for social integration and peace building. Sport and play projects can therefore provide important supportive services during the post-emergency period, and because these interventions are group experiences established in community settings, a greater number of people can be rapidly reached.

This may also have the added advantage of gaining more support from the community. For example, a multifaceted program that attempts to address the broad needs of girls may be more successful in attracting and retaining girls and may prove more acceptable to parents and community leaders than one that appears to be focused solely on sports. Having sports and other cultural activities at the same location can increase participation and provide a natural envi-

ronment for other information sharing such as basic health and hygiene, links to services, girls' rights, etc. Services focusing solely on individual interventions during and after a crisis situation will generally not be as effective, and can be an inefficient use of valuable resources. Given that the needs of those affected by a traumatic event will change with time, like any intervention, sport and play activities should be targeted to respond to these changing needs.

VII. FURTHER READING

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 - > United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace (2003). *Sport for Development and Peace: Towards Achieving the Millennium Development Goals*. > [LINK](#)

 - > USAID (2002). *Helping Children Outgrow War. Teacher Emergency Package. Technical Paper Nr. 116*. > [LINK](#)

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION PLEASE CONTACT

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PART I

DESIGNING A RESPONSE

1 INTRODUCTION

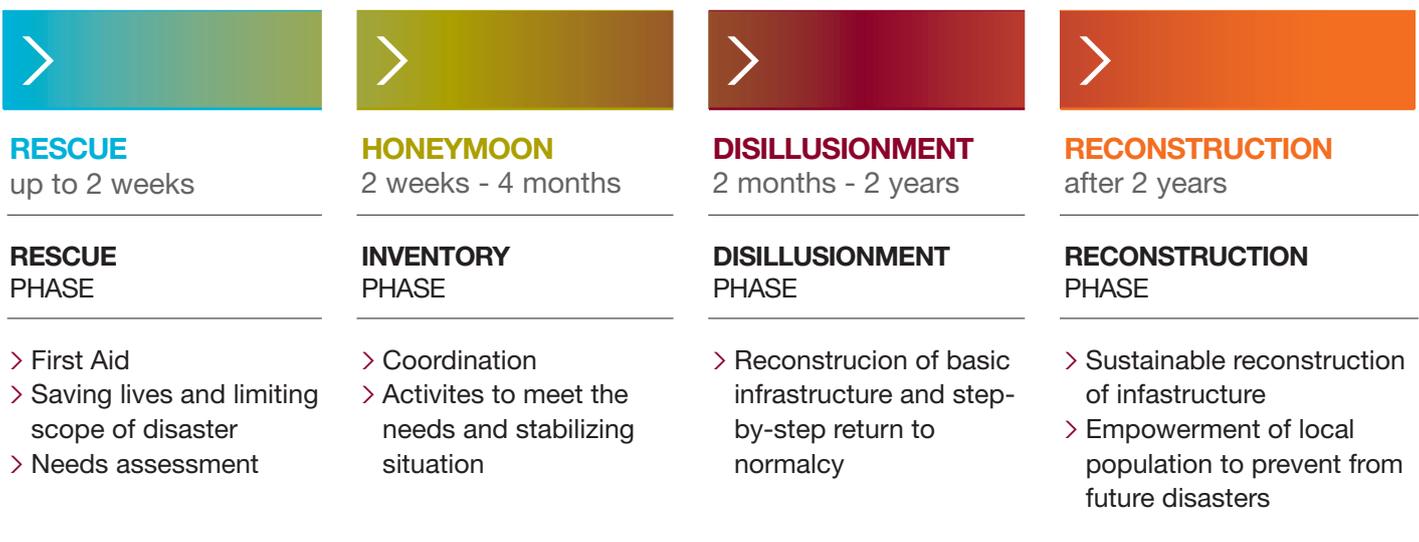
Sport and play activities can be started early in the acute phase or immediate aftermath of an emergency, giving children and youth a critical opportunity for play and socialization that will help them cope with the trauma they have experienced. During the early stages of an emergency, while the assessment and initiation of response needs are still being completed, the quick re-establishment of sport and play activities and recreational spaces can significantly contribute to the stabilization of the crisis situation (SAD and Schwery Consulting, 2007). The sooner we can intervene with play in the life of a distressed child, the sooner the child can appropriate the healing effects of the play environment (Aguilar and Retamal, 1998) (see section VI.b for a more in-depth description of the effects sport and play has on psychosocial rehabilitation). Engaging young people in sport and play activities also gives families time to focus on recovery and rebuilding.

Providing sport and play activities for young people who have had to flee their homes, are traumatized by war and disaster, and who live in precarious conditions presents many challenges. In these situations, emergency responders must quickly organize structured activities amid chaos: identifying safe spaces for activities, selecting and training instructors/coaches, procuring community-specific materials or equipment, and recruiting participants. Programs must be able to assure the provision of safety and security of the children, as well as for the people who work with them.

The following model can be used to assist in the process of designing a response. It outlines the changes in needs over time of a community working to recover from an emergency.

The remainder of this toolkit details five essential components needed to design a sport and play program in response to an emergency: Preparation, Assessment, Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation, and Transition.

FIGURE 3 > THE PROCESS OF DESIGNING A RESPONSE



Source: Schwery Consulting, 2008

2 PREPARATION

Prior to an assessment, organizations should first determine what assessments have already been done and should review available information (e.g. conduct a desk review, interview other organizations and review existing information on the country such as relevant pre-existing ethnographic literature and data on the mental health system and traditional youth activities). Further assessments should be conducted only if more information is needed. Program methods and materials require cultural adaptation. Assessments should always be coordinated with other agencies to ensure efficient use of resources, an accurate and comprehensive understanding of the situation, and to avoid burdening a population unnecessarily with duplicated assessments. A planning calendar (see [Template 2_0_A](#)) can help to monitor activities.

Even if assessments are available, it is still useful in the preparation phase to conduct focus group discussions and key informant interviews in order to fully understand the needs and interests of children and youth, and thereby design the most effective interventions.

Examples of relevant demographic and contextual information to collect in advance

- > Overall population size (and, where relevant, location) of relevant sub-groups of the population who may be at particular risk
- > Mortality and threats to mortality
- > Geography and infrastructure damage in areas where population was most affected or at highest risk
- > Access and availability of basic physical requirements (e.g. food, shelter, water and sanitation, health care) and education
- > Human rights violations and protective frameworks
- > Social, political, religious and economic structures and dynamics (e.g. role of children in society, security and conflict issues, including ethnic, religious, class and gender divisions within communities)
- > Changes in livelihood activities and daily community life
- > Basic ethnographic information on cultural resources, norms, roles and attitudes (e.g. mourning practices, attitudes towards mental disorder and gender-based violence, help-seeking behavior)

Some of the key issues to explore and questions that need to be asked include

- > Religion: Is this a strict religious community? Are there one or more predominant religions?
- > Role of the women: Is there a general view that women should not be participating in sport and play activities?
- > Recent history: What recent events still hold an influence (good or bad) over the community?
- > Conflict: Has the community recently been caught up in a conflict?
- > Exclusion: Who holds the power in the communities and who is excluded from services and activities?
- > Role of sports in the affected community

The preparation phase should last between one and three days and begin immediately after the emergency. The following subheadings address the various elements that need to be considered when preparing for a program.

2.1 Socio-political-cultural context

Essential to preparation is a complete overview of the sociopolitical-cultural context of the area selected for a sport and play project.

Humanitarian aid is an important means of helping people affected by emergencies, but aid can also cause unintentional harm (Anderson, 1999). Work on mental health and psychosocial support has the potential to cause harm, because it deals with highly sensitive issues and can impose more western constructs of various mental health disorders. Also, this work lacks the extensive scientific evidence that is available for some other disciplines.

Humanitarian actors may reduce the risk of harm in various ways, such as

- > participating in coordination groups to learn from others and to minimize duplication and gaps in response;
- > designing interventions on the basis of sufficient information (IASC, 2007);
- > committing to evaluation, accountability, openness to scrutiny and external review;

- > developing cultural sensitivity and competence in the areas in which they intervene/work;
- > staying updated on the evidence base regarding effective practices; and
- > developing an understanding of, and consistently reflecting on, universal human rights, power relations between outsiders and emergency-affected people, and the value of participatory approaches.

2.2 Sport and play profile

Identifying the sport and play profile or setting of an affected community is an essential pre-requisite to formulating a program. The objective is to design the program so that it fits as closely as possible to the existing structures. This involves program organizers conducting research into the region's historical and current practice of sports, prior to beginning a program. Some important themes to look into include identification of:

- > The most popular sports
- > The cultural relevance of sport and play
- > Existing and planned sport structures
- > Sports heroes
- > Traditional sports
- > Sports that are favored by the female population

Further research should identify which sporting federations are present in the country of the affected community and also whether there are any NGOs already implementing sport and development projects there. An easy way to determine the latter is to check on the websites:

www.sportanddev.org

www.streetfootballworld.org

2.3 Materials and equipment

The equipment used in sport and play activities needs to be easily obtainable, inexpensive, safe, available on a daily basis, durable, suitable for children of all ages and have a variety of uses. Ideally, some of this equipment would be available locally and/or built with local materials. Once the peak of the emergency has passed, these materials can continue to be part of regular school activities or normal curriculum. These materials

can include sports equipment, musical instruments – and in the initial stage – basic shelter (shade/weather protection), mats for sitting on the ground, and so on.

It is important that materials and equipment reflect the preferences of the local culture. Much of this equipment can be locally produced or purchased. However, it is important that the sourcing of local equipment does not delay the start of the program or obstruct the psychosocial rehabilitation process. Below is a list of equipment and materials that can be included in a typical Moving Forward sport and play kit.

EQUIPMENT AND MATERIALS

ACTIVITY	PRODUCT
Football	+ Footballs
Basketball	+ Basketballs
Volleyball (Fistball or Netball)	+ Volleyballs + Nets + Sets of stands
Cricket	+ Cricket bats + Cricket balls + Cricket gloves – right and left
Badminton and free Badminton	+ Badminton rackets + Shuttles + Nets
Ultimate and Frisbee	+ Frisbees
Hopscotch	+ Sets
Draughts/Checkers	+ Sets of figures + Papers with draughts field
Dancing	+ Flutes, triangles, rattles, etc. + CDs, CD player

EQUIPMENT AND MATERIALS

Local material	+ Ropes + Hoops + Blindfolds
To distinguish a team of players	+ Colored tabards or jerseys
To mark a playing area	+ Pickets with flags + Box of powdered chalk + Tape-measure (long)
For transport	+ Big bag for large equipment + Small bag for smaller materials + Ball nets
For didactic work	+ Registration book + Notebooks + Pens + Teacher's guide (Toolkit) + Chalk boards + Boxes of chalk + Whistles
For repair and maintenance	+ Inflating kits + Puncture repair outfits + Ball repair sets + Badminton repair sets

See the **Activity Guide** in **Part III** for creative ways of using sport and recreation materials and equipment in activities.

2.4 Link to other programs

A program that is built to last often has many resources in the form of links and synergies with other programs and partners in the area. In order for a sport for youth in emergencies program to evolve into a sport development program, it is critical that organizers conduct research into pre-existing youth-serving sport structures and, where these are available, integrate programming into these structures.

In addition to the websites that will allow you to access sporting federations and local NGO's (mentioned under section 2.2 'Sports Profile'), organizers should look to form ties with community programming initiatives, particularly psychosocial and mental health services for referral of more severe cases of trauma.

Partnerships

It is strongly recommended that psychosocial interventions (including sport and play programs) establish links to specialized quality medical organizations/entities where available.

During assessments or implementation, it may become evident that certain people are experiencing severe mental disorders/illnesses will be identified. These people need specific medical distress and/or have a mental disorder that requires specialized care and treatment, which psychosocial interventions alone cannot provide.

It is also recommended to establish links to rights organizations as women might need legal or other support in case of rights violation.

Complementary Activities

The above mentioned psychosocial interventions are most effective when part of a holistic multi-sector approach. Communities' awareness about discrimination of certain groups must be raised, advocacy for changes of law and legal systems might be necessary in the mid- to long-term, certain stakeholders in the community or family must be trained or educated (e.g. on reporting of violence against women, immunizations, information on drinking water, landmines, gender equality, etc.) and maternal health facilities may need to be improved. In general, well-being is very much linked to the empowerment of people.

Psycho-education - most times in cooperation with expert organizations - can be another element of psychosocial programming. The goal of psycho-education is to help a specific group of persons understand and be better able to deal with psychological/emotional problems. Examples include working with persons addicted to alcohol or survivors of domestic violence, conflict and genocide.

2.5 Further reading

-
- > Anderson M. (1999). *Do No Harm: How aid can support peace – or war*. Lynne Rienner: Boulder CO.

 - > Ehrenreich, J. H. (2001). *Coping with Disasters: A Guidebook to Psychosocial Interventions. Revised edition.* > [LINK](#)

 - > IASC (2007). *IASC Guidelines on Mental Health and Psychosocial Support in Emergency Settings*. Inter-Agency Standing Committee Geneva. > [LINK](#)

 - > UNICEF has developed “Sport-in-a-Box” kits. > [LINK](#)
-



3 ASSESSMENT

As stated above, conducting a new, separate assessment may not be necessary if sufficient information already exists to plan and design a sports for youth program. Refer to this section if it has been determined that further data is required.

Assessing the impact of emergencies on young people and their communities is a crucial first step in designing an appropriate and effective response. An assessment can serve to explore local perceptions of mental health problems, identify how children and youth were, and continue to be, affected psychologically as a result of the emergency; the types of activities youth typically engage in and how these can be modified to provide needed psychosocial support; and the individuals within communities that young people trust in order to involve them in the intervention. Assessment activities should be viewed as an ongoing process, not a one-time event to inform initial program design. Post-emergency distress occurs at different times (immediate or delayed) and manifests itself in different ways among members of the affected communities. Conducting assessment

activities throughout the response will minimize the chances that the needs of certain individuals are neglected and improve the relevancy of the response at different stages of recovery. Additionally, the assessment should be viewed not only as informing the response but as an integral component to the response. Conducting an assessment is not a benign activity and it has the potential to be therapeutic and build support and capacity if done well, or to cause distress and potentially undermine the program's, credibility and youth participation, if done improperly. It can also be used as a baseline study for monitoring and evaluation purposes (see Chapter 5).

3.1 Guiding principles

There are many potential areas of assessment in post-emergency situations. The key is to be realistic and select only the most relevant. Five or six of the most significant youth and sport-related questions should be chosen to be incorporated into the overall organizational assessment. Male and female youth and community members should

How to involve disasteraffected people in the assessment (adapted from Good Enough Guide, Oxfam, 2007, Tool 3)

Before assessment

- > Determine and clearly state the objectives of the assessment
- > If you can, inform the local community and local authorities well before the assessment takes place
- > Include both women and men in the project team
- > Make a list of vulnerable groups to be identified during the assessment
- > Check what other NGOs have done in that community and get a copy of their reports

During assessment

- > Introduce team members and their roles
- > Explain the timeframe for assessment
- > Invite representatives of local people to participate
- > Create space for individuals or groups to speak openly
- > Hold separate discussions and interviews with different groups, e.g. local officials, community groups, men, women, local staff
- > Ask these groups for their opinions on needs and priorities
- > Inform them about any decisions taken

Note: If it is not possible to consult all groups within the community at one time, state clearly which groups have been omitted on this occasion and return to meet them as soon as possible. Write up your findings and describe your methodology and its limitations. Use the analysis for future decision-making.

be involved in needs assessment and program design, since specific efforts may be needed to reach out to women and girls. Lastly, it is crucial to involve local partners and share assessment results with the local community.

Involve disaster-affected people in the assessment process

Disaster-affected men and women (and youth, to the extent possible) should be actively involved in every part of the response, including the assessment phase. The Good Enough Guide (Oxfam, 2007, Tool 3) provides guidance on involving people before and during the assessment.

Gather information from as many sources as possible

The assessment team should make use of as many available information sources as possible. Different informants will be able to provide different types of information and perspectives on the emergency. Various sources will also provide different and sometimes conflicting data, particularly where numbers are concerned. By seeking information from many different sources, the assessment team can cross-reference different responses to come up with the combined estimate or conclusion. This is called 'triangulation' of data.

Key sources of information

- > Youth and parents from the disaster-affected communities
- > Leaders, vulnerable groups, women, health workers, school teachers, institutions, CBOs, etc.
- > Local sports structures
- > Local government representatives and offices
- > Local and international NGOs and coordinating bodies
- > UN agencies
- > Humanitarian Information Centres
- > Donor agencies
- > Local and international news media
- > Suppliers and commercial organizations

Methods for information gathering

- > Key informant interviews
- > Free list interviews
- > Focus groups
- > Direct observation

- > Surveys
- > Participatory rural appraisal methods, e.g. mapping, seasonal calendars, timelines, proportional piling, etc.

Use appropriate data collection methods to gather information

The assessment team on the ground will need to select the most appropriate data collection methods for gathering information that will allow for locally adapted program design. It is advisable to use a wide range of data collection methods and for the team to be well prepared and skilled in the use of the chosen methods.

There is a tendency for some methods, such as key informant interviews and observation, to be used very informally as the main methods of assessment. Put simply, this is talking to people and looking at the situation on the ground. The information gathered will be stronger if the methodology is well-planned beforehand. Predetermine who to interview, what questions to ask and how to ask them, and decide what needs to be observed, what things you will be looking for and how to record that data before the act of observing (see **Templates 3_1_A** and **3_1_B: Focus Group Discussions with Parents and Youth**). In addition to key informant interviews and direct observation, there are many other methodologies which can provide rich information, as outlined in the table below.

It is of particular importance that assessments explore the local names of mental health and psychosocial problems, how they manifest, what are the causes and what is commonly done to address them. This information should be used to adapt the toolkit and manual where appropriate prior to program activity start-up.

Use checklists and formats to help with data collection

Checklists help guide the assessment team on what types of information should be collected. Checklists can be general or sector-specific. The assessment team should choose checklists that are appropriate to the objectives of the assessment missions. The following checklists are good resources to use:

-
- > OFDA FOG Assessment Checklist
-
- > IFRC 2005 Assessment Guidelines Sector Checklists
-
- > UNDAC
-
- > Sphere Handbook
-

Interagency assessment forms are also sometimes used in large emergencies. They promote common methodologies and facilitate sharing of assessment data. Interagency assessment forms encourage assessment teams to collect the same data in a form which can then be compared or collated at an interagency level. There is no standard global form, as formats are tailored to each specific emergency. Regardless of the format used, it is always good practice to share assessment data and results with government and peer agencies.

Connecting with local networks and partners

Assessment in areas where an aid agency does not have existing staff or programs will need to rely much more heavily on finding support from local networks and partners. Wherever possible, assessments in nonpresence areas should be done in partnership with other agencies, local or international, that already have local networks and infrastructure.

Combining program start-up and assessment

Assessments in areas where aid agency presence does not exist may occur simultaneously with the set-up of an initial provision of relief. If a decision is leaning towards a response to the emergency, the assessment team will need to lead initial program activities, as well as carrying out the assessment process.

Avoid doing harm through the assessment

Survivors of emergency situations are often already in a vulnerable and volatile state and the exploratory process of assessment may seem like a continuation of the traumatic event or revive negative feelings and trigger turmoil (Ehrenreich, 2001, 38).

3.2 Planning the Assessment

Get the right information

At a minimum, the assessment team should gather and analyze the basic information outlined below to understand the situation and needs, to design an appropriate response, and to select purposeful activities (see **Template 3_2_A**). Comprehensive assessment checklists described below provide further guidance on the specific information requirements for assessments.

General humanitarian situation

- > Location and conditions of disaster area
-
- > Affected population: size, demographics, location (disaggregated by gender and age)
-
- > Impact of disaster: physical, social, economic, political, security, environmental
-
- > Capacities and vulnerabilities of disaster affected population
-
- > Priority needs of women, men, boys and girls: food, water and sanitation, shelter, health
-
- > Contextual information: gender roles and relations, cultural issues, conflict and power dynamics, violence, discrimination and protection issues, civil / military relations
-

Response to date

- > Organization and response of disaster-affected community, with perspectives from both women and men
-
- > Response of responsible authorities
-
- > Local NGOs
-
- > International NGOs
-
- > UN agencies
-

> Donors

> Other actors, e.g. military

Operating conditions

> Security analysis

> Availability of (or damage to) logistics infrastructure: ports, roads, airports, warehousing

> Market conditions and availability of relief items locally

> Availability of support infrastructure: office, accommodation, telecommunications infrastructure, transportation

> Relevant government regulations and requirements for operations

> Cost estimates for budget development

> Availability of skilled personnel

Youth/sports-related data

> Number of affected youth (boys and girls) in affected area

> Number of affected youth with disabilities and the type of disability

> Pre-existing and desired sport and recreation activities

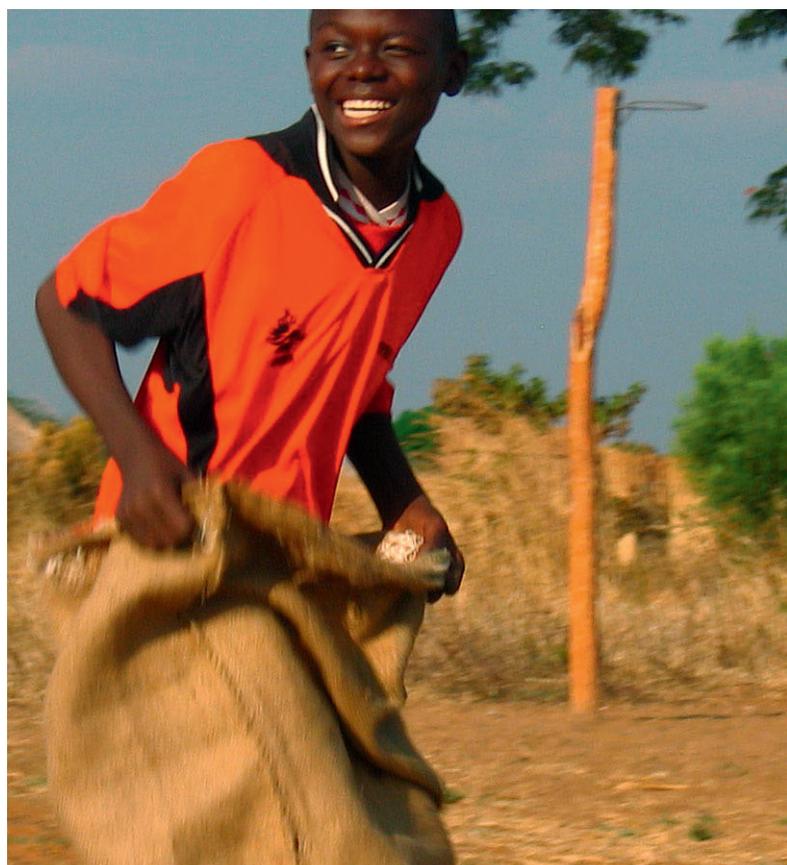
> Current availability of spaces (accessible to those with disabilities and suitable for girls) for sport and play activities

> Recommendations for individuals to serve as mentors

> Typical daily schedule of youth (to avoid conflicts with school, household chores and other responsibilities)

Often when people think of assessments guidelines, they think of a checklist to help them remember what information to gather. Checklists are an important tool for assessments, but they are just one tool within a much larger assessment process. An assessment which meets the Sphere standards requires a broader process of planning to ensure that the assessment is thorough. This should start with planning of objectives and carry right through to delivering reports and program proposals. Use the following checklist to make sure you cover the key elements of an assessment process.

Adequate planning should be put into an assessment prior to the mobilization of a field assessment team. The exact amount of time available for planning will depend on the circumstances of the emergency, but any time invested prior to hitting the ground will make the assessment more effective. An assessment team which hits the ground without prior planning will lose time and be ineffective.



ASSESSMENT PLANNING CHECKLIST

Clear objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none">> Are the objectives of the mission clear, documented in terms of reference, understood and agreed by all team members and key stakeholders?
Plan	<ul style="list-style-type: none">> Does the assessment team have a clear plan for how to carry out the assessment?
Appropriate team composition	<ul style="list-style-type: none">> Has the Assessment Team Leader been identified?> Does the team have the right mix of technical and functional skills to achieve the objectives of the assessment?> Does the team include women and men, people with local language and cultural skills?
Logistical support	<ul style="list-style-type: none">> Has adequate logistics and administrative planning been done to ensure the team can get the job done effectively and safely?
Information requirements	<ul style="list-style-type: none">> Has the team planned and identified the priority information needs to focus on during the assessment?> What information is required to meet the objectives and to conduct the analysis required?> What information is needed to ensure cross-cutting issues can be understood (e.g. gender, protection, etc.)
Involving disaster affected people in the assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none">> How will the team involve disaster affected women and men in the assessment process?
Information sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none">> Who is the team going to talk to?> What are the available sources of information?
Data collection methods	<ul style="list-style-type: none">> What mix of data collection methods will the team use? What skills or tools are required to use these methods?
Guidelines and tools	<ul style="list-style-type: none">> What guidelines and tools will the team use in the field to help with information gathering and analysis?
Analysis frameworks	<ul style="list-style-type: none">> How will the data be analyzed?> What contextual analysis is necessary to make appropriate recommendations?> What information and tools can help with the analysis?
Recommendations	<ul style="list-style-type: none">> What types of recommendations are expected of the team?> Who are the recommendations for?
Reporting	<ul style="list-style-type: none">> When will the team deliver a preliminary report? Final report?> What format will the team use for the report?> Will an internal version and a public version of the report be released?
Proposals and other outputs	<ul style="list-style-type: none">> What other outputs will the team prepare?> What is the expectation for proposals, operational plans and communications outputs?

Clearly define and agree on the objectives of the assessment

All key stakeholders should agree on the objectives of the assessment mission prior to its deployment. These should be clearly documented within the terms of reference and understood by all members of the assessment team, as well as interested stakeholders. The assessment team should also be able to communicate the objectives of the mission to stakeholders they meet in the field. See the adjacent sidebar for some typical objectives for an initial rapid assessment mission.

Typical objectives of an assessment mission

- > To understand the humanitarian needs and provide analysis of the humanitarian situation
- > To establish the feasibility and make recommendations regarding an operational response
- > To highlight any special issues of concern in the situation affecting the program strategy and operational approach

Develop terms of reference for the assessment mission

Specific written terms of reference for the assessment mission should outline objectives, suggested methodology, timings and expected outputs, with reference to individual team member responsibilities.

Define assessment methodology

Time invested in determining the most appropriate methodology for the assessment mission will help the success of the assessment mission. The team should have a clear plan of what information is required, what tools and methods will be used in data gathering, who will be consulted and how the data will be analyzed to determine recommendations.

Select the area

Agencies will need to make strategic decisions about geographical focus early in the response, which in the first instance means deciding where the assessment team should focus their investigations. Selection of priority areas should be made on the basis of available secondary information, vulnerability and in close coordination with other agencies undertaking assessments.

Select the team

Getting the right mix of skills on the team is very important. The right mix depends on the technical and functional positions and skills, as well as the personal qualities team members bring to the team, especially gender and diversity.

An assessment team should ideally be as small as possible. Small (e.g. three-person) teams are much easier to manage, so there needs to be an appropriate balance between size and mix of skills. A larger assessment team may be more appropriate when it is already known that a start-up team is required immediately. To keep assessment teams small while also ensuring the necessary skills are available within the team, team members will often have to combine roles and duties which may later be divided into separate functions.

Skills and qualities

Technical skills often required

- > Generalist programming skills: ability to analyze overall humanitarian situation, develop program strategy and project concepts, write proposals
- > Local context: someone who can facilitate contacts for the assessment team and help contextualize the analysis and recommendations
- > Technical sector specialist expertise in key sectors: water and sanitation, food security, health, shelter, logistics
- > Cross-cutting analysis skills: gender, environment, conflict, protection, do no harm
- > Communications management: media, information management
- > Survey administration and qualitative interview and focus group facilitation skills
- > Information management
- > Operational skills: security, logistics, administration,
- > Interpreting capacity (language skills or translation)

Other qualities required

- > Team leadership
- > Representational skills
- > Gender balance
- > Language skills
- > Cultural experience
- > Knowledge and experience in geographic area
- > Access to local networks

Ask for support

An assessment team requires appropriate logistics and administrative planning and support to complete their job properly and safely. Be clear about responsibility for providing support. Administration/logistics from the country office should usually

provide this support to the assessment team. Some support may also be provided by the administration/logistics team member(s), however, not exclusively since they also have a key technical role in the actual assessment. Use the following checklist to make sure this planning and support is provided.



ASSESSMENT TEAM LOGISTICS AND ADMINISTRATION SUPPORT CHECKLIST

Transport	<ul style="list-style-type: none">› Are transport arrangements confirmed for all parts of the assessment mission?› What backup transport options are available in case of emergency?› Do transport options have necessary safety equipment?
Communications equipment	<ul style="list-style-type: none">› Has a communications schedule been agreed upon between the head office and the assessment team?› Do all team members have adequate communications equipment and training?› Are back-up communications systems available?› Are all assessment team members briefed on the process and phone numbers to call in a crisis?
Accommodation and meals	<ul style="list-style-type: none">› Has accommodation been confirmed for team members?› If accommodation is unlikely to be available, has the team been provided with sleeping equipment?› Will meals be available for the team in the disaster area? If potentially no, then has the team been provided with meal provisions?
Cash and administration	<ul style="list-style-type: none">› Have team members been provided with an appropriate level of cash to cover expenses?› Who will manage team expenses and cash handling on the assessment mission?› Have adequate safety considerations been taken into account to ensure cash handling does not put the team at risk?
Visas and travel permissions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">› Do all team members have visas required to enter the country? Are support letters and other forms required?› Does the team have all necessary travel permissions and documentation to travel to the disaster affected areas and through any restricted areas en route?› Do the travel permissions cover any vehicles the team will be using?
Insurance	<ul style="list-style-type: none">› Are all team members, including both national staff and international staff, covered by insurance before entering the emergency zone?› Does notice have to be given the insurance company before deployment to activate the insurance?
Interpreters	<ul style="list-style-type: none">› Is adequate interpreting capacity available to support assessment team members with interviews and data collection?› Does the team have access to female interpreters to assist with interviewing women?› Have interpreters been trained and tested?
Team and personal equipment	<p><i>Has the team been provided with appropriate:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">› safety equipment including first aid kits, fire extinguishers, maps, telecommunications equipment, identification flags, etc.?› office equipment including laptops, portable printer, business cards, cashbox, paper, etc.?› personal equipment and supplies?› ID cards, insurance details, important contact details and numbers?
Security and safety information for the team before their arrival	<ul style="list-style-type: none">› Give a brief of security situation on the country and in the area of assessment› Brief on security-related Standard Operations Procedures (SOPs) for the assessment mission

Selection of Assessment Questions

It is necessary to draw up a list of specific assessment questions before the process begins to ensure that everyone is aware of what data needs to be collected.

Assessment questions

- > Overall participation of men and women in sport and physical activity
- > Cultures of sport – what sports are played and by whom?
- > Relevant health or education issues particular to girls and women
- > Reasons for girls' nonparticipation, i.e. household tasks, safe and appropriate facilities, gender norms
- > Roles of men and women in coaching
- > Existing training and skills
- > Access to and location of existing facilities
- > Problems of security

Analyze the data and develop recommendations

Data is only useful if it is analyzed. The assessment team must analyze the data in order to inform the development of recommendations. The team should work together to facilitate triangulation of data and ensure the information obtained by different team members can be cross-referenced with others before reaching conclusions. The analysis which needs to be conducted is in line with the objectives of the assessment and can be assisted by the use of some simple analysis tools. Further information on cross-cutting and contextual analysis is also available in Chapter 6.

The assessment team must make clear recommendations to decision-makers about the most appropriate response to the emergency. The recommendations must reflect: the priority of humanitarian needs; gaps in existing response capacity on the ground; the agency's expertise and capacity; and the operational feasibility of a response, including availability of resources. The contextual analysis should also inform the strategic recommendations.

Communicate and report outputs

The assessment team must communicate regularly with other stakeholders throughout the field assessment. The assessment team should prepare and

finalize a formal assessment report detailing findings and recommendations, an indicative budget showing the program and operational costs of the recommendations put forward by the assessment team.

The terms of reference may also request a number of other outputs be produced by the assessment team. These must also be completed and included as annexes to the assessment report.

Viewing assessment as part of the response

Providing an opportunity for youth and community members to discuss their experiences with an empathetic and active listener may alleviate their feelings of worry, fear, isolation and distress. Although not traditionally viewed as such, an assessment is a form of intervention in addition to the collection of information to inform response design. Discussing with participants the purpose of the assessment, the plans for a sport- and play-based response and the important and active role that participants will play in the design and implementation of that response may comfort youth and community members, providing some reassurance of a return to normalcy that recreation can provide.

Involving young people at the assessment stage is important to set the tone for them to play an integral role in determining the direction and design of the response and in ensuring that the resulting program resonates with the young people. In turn, project leaders must be prepared and willing to listen to, and act on, the guidance and input provided by them (Rahim and Holland, 2006). Encouraging the meaningful participation of young people will make programming more responsive to their perceived needs and improve retention in the program. Corresponding indicators that measure the success and degree of youth involvement should be established jointly with them in an effort to evaluate levels of youth participation. The assessment process presents an opportunity to incorporate a philosophy and practice of youth participation that continues throughout the intervention.

Safe Spaces (see also VI.c)

Safe spaces, which can be either covered or open, allow groups to meet to plan how to participate in the emergency response and to conduct self-help

Keeping girls safe

- > Have girls' and safety/security concerns been given due attention?
- > Ensure that girls' matches are played before dusk and that appropriate arrangements are made for transport, and that appropriate escorting/chaperoning procedures are in place.
- > Specific measures that could be taken to make it safer for girls to participate in sports programs include: improving public lighting; scheduling activities during times of the day when it is safer to move around; organizing sports activities in safe areas and/or in areas close to participants' homes so they do not have to travel long distances; etc.
- > Project leaders may wish to accommodate existing social norms about what can be done – and who can do what – in open public spaces, and offer both outdoor and indoor sports facilities.
- > In Muslim cultures, it may be necessary to establish separate activities for boys and girls, with girls' activities held in private locations. Muslim girls may also require appropriate, sports-friendly attire.
- > There may be a need to develop codes of conduct for coaches and other project staff.

activities or religious, cultural and recreational activities. Safe spaces can also be used for protecting and supporting children, for learning activities, and for communicating key information to community members. The “Child Friendly Spaces” (CFS) concept pioneered by UNICEF is one example of how these activities can be organized. Often health, child-tracing services and education services are organized in CFS.

To promote a safe environment for sport and play activities, program organizers must consider the following in determining the location and design of spaces, learning structures or schools:

- > Locate designated play areas away from military zones or installations;
- > Place schools or recreation areas close to population centers;
- > Provide separate male and female latrines in safe places;
- > Enlist the participation of the community in preparing and monitoring the area.

Recreational Spaces

In an emergency, one of the first decisions about sport and play activities will be about where they take place. Temporary shelter should be provided as quickly as possible—this can be an

existing community space, a tent or simply a roof over a frame. Refugee or IDP camps can develop quickly, without consideration for other space needs—such as schools, community centers and recreational areas. Advocate for this space as early as possible—participating in camp planning discussions and communicating with key stakeholders and decision makers. In the absence of authority, mark the space with sticks or colored plastic tape to reserve the space, taking up double the anticipated amount to account for future needs (Triplehorn, 2001). Be sure to coordinate these efforts with other groups seeking educational, community and recreational space so that activities can be integrated and well-coordinated. Places to play should be established in safe and accessible locations, for both boys and girls. Adequate sanitary facilities should be located nearby.

Safety and security should always be a foremost concern. If there are concerns about participants getting to the location of the sport and play project, consider a community escort program. The focus should be on adapting sport and play programs to target groups and in this way bringing communities together rather than reinforcing divisions. To promote a safe environment for sport and play activities, evaluate safety issues in the location and design of spaces, learning structures or schools:

-
- > Locate designated play areas away from military zones or installations;
-
- > Place schools or recreation areas close to population centers;
-
- > Provide separate male and female latrines in safe places;
-
- > Maximize the participation of the community in monitoring the area.
-

Protection

Protection of refugees, particularly children, is a central principle that guides the work of humanitarian agencies working in emergencies. The international community is increasingly aware that all children living in the midst of war are vulnerable and need protection (Kastberg, 2002). Schools and recreational activities can bring some elements of physical protection to the majority of children – providing a safe place to play, offering an alternative to destructive behavior, giving ac-

cess to nutritious meals or providing regular adult supervision. For children who have been especially victimized by the conflict, coming together for educational activities may make it easier to identify those needing special help, and programs can be tailored to their specific needs (Nicolai and Triplehorn, 2003).

3.3 Accountability

It is important to be aware that assessments can place a burden on the disaster-affected communities and infrastructure, or can even make them more vulnerable in conflict situations, particularly if they are poorly coordinated among the many humanitarian agencies conducting assessments. Sometimes communities will be asked the same question many times by many different agencies, before even receiving any assistance. A strategy to avoid this is to conduct joint assessments.

Assessments teams should be prepared to introduce their agency and describe its mandate and objectives in carrying out an assessment (See Good Enough Guide, Oxfam, 2007, Tool 1).

Accountability do's and don'ts for assessments

Do:

- > Take a 'good enough' planned/prepared approach (see Good Enough Guide, Oxfam, 2007, Tool 1)
- > Involve women and men affected by the disaster
- > Provide appropriate assistance at the same time as assessing wherever possible
- > Share assessment objectives, plans and results with the community and clearly communicate the organization's mandate
- > Coordinate assessments and share plans and results with other agencies and local authorities wherever possible
- > Ensure the assessment adequately analyzes gender, violence, discrimination, protection and 'do no harm'

Don't:

- > Duplicate the work of other agencies and contribute to assessment overload
- > Put communities or staff at unnecessary risk
- > Continue assessing without providing assistance if assistance is urgent and is able to be provided
- > Be a humanitarian tourist (visiting and observing with no purpose or assistance)
- > Make promises which cannot be kept

3.4 Further reading

-
- > Betancourt, T.S. et al. (2007). *A Qualitative Study of Mental Health Problems Among Children Displaced by War*. In Press Transcultural Psychiatry.

 - > Duncan, J. and Arntson, L. (2004). *Children in Crisis: Good Practices in Evaluating Psychosocial Programming*. > [LINK](#)

 - > Ehrenreich, J. H. (2001). *Coping with Disasters: A Guidebook to Psychosocial Interventions. Revised edition*. > [LINK](#)

 - > Kastberg, N. (2002). *Strengthening the Response to Displaced Children*. Forced Migration Review, 15.

 - > Nicolai, S. and Triplehorn, C. (2003). *The Role of Education in Protecting Children in Conflict*. Humanitarian Practice Network Paper 42. London: Overseas Development Institute. > [LINK](#)

 - > Oxfam (2007). *Impact Measurement and Accountability in Emergencies*. The Good Enough Guide. > [LINK](#)

 - > Rahim, A. and Holland, P. (2006). *Facilitating Transitions for Children and Youth Lessons from Four Post-Conflict Fund Projects*, Social Development Papers: Conflict Prevention & Reconstruction, World Bank. > [LINK](#)

 - > Triplehorn, C. (2001). *Education: Care and Protection of Children in Emergencies. A Field Guide*. Westport, CN: Save the Children. > [LINK](#)
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4 PLANNING

4.1 Community sensitization and consultation

To be effective, rights-based psychosocial interventions must incorporate children's families, communities and peers (Van Leer Foundation, 2005). Projects should be designed in a holistic and integrated way – taking children's family, community, cultural background and available resources into consideration. They should be established in consultation with local stakeholders, such as community and religious leaders, government representatives, educational actors, parents and especially children and youth. They can be involved in a variety of ways – in set up and management of spaces, activities, implementation, M&E, and so on. For example, involving male and female community members, local partners and authorities, coaches and youth in the M&E process is crucial to the effectiveness and longevity of the program. A participatory approach, using process-led techniques, will ensure a capacity-building environment in which the community can eventually take ownership of the program, enhancing motivation, productivity and sustainability.

Since sports programs concern entire communities, identifying, raising the awareness and soliciting the involvement of the “gatekeepers” (elder brothers, mothers, teachers, etc.) and local authorities is crucial (particularly for girls' participation). In order to encourage participation of children from all sections of the community, community engagement should address issues such as power structures, ethnicity, religion and gender. Projects should reflect – but on occasion take a critical stance towards – local cultural beliefs systems and resources (Duncan, 2004). Community-based projects that are respectful and supportive of local capacities to assist children are more likely to be accepted and have a positive impact. The best orientation in programming is one of partnership: shared decision-making with children in age appropriate ways, families and communities, along with flexibility and openness in learning how to strengthen family and community supports for children (Duncan, 2004).

Ideally, the project should involve young people (as much as possible) from design to completion; staff must be willing to listen to and act upon what they propose as ownership of process is just as important as the result to ensure long term activities. The project might involve them in participatory M&E, as a further means of empowerment (Rahim and Holland, 2006).

Graça Machel Report

The following comprise the recommendations of the Graça Machel report (Machel, 1996) regarding psychosocial care for children during and following armed conflict:

- All phases of emergency and reconstruction assistance programs should take psychosocial considerations into account, whilst avoiding the development of formal mental health programs. They should give priority to preventing further traumatic experiences.
- Rather than focusing on a child's emotional wounds, programs should aim to support healing processes and reestablish a sense of normalcy.
- Programs to support psychosocial well-being should include local perceptions of child development, and reestablish a sense of normalcy.
- Programs to support psychosocial well-being should include local culture, perceptions of child development and an understanding of political and social realities and children's rights. They should mobilize the community care network around children.
- Governments, donors and relief organizations should prevent the institutionalization of children.

4.2 Selection of mentors

Mentors' role

Mentors are older youth or adults respected and trusted by young people and older community members (including parents) who are selected to be trained in the Moving Forward methodology in order to implement sport and play activities. The proper selection of mentors and the quality of the training they receive will to a large degree influence the effectiveness of the programs implemented. Field evidence demonstrates that it is not enough for mentors to teach a sport or lead a recreational

activity but that it also requires skills to develop a greater understanding of emotions and interpersonal communication, as well as how to promote fair/respectful play and community responsibility (SAD and Schwery Consulting, 2007). It is important to place a high value on the quality of the leader chosen to lead the program. In a postemergency situation, properly trained mentors play a key role in: identifying children who need special assistance or protection; providing positive role models and relationships; and building children's resilience and sense of identity.

Mentor identification and recruitment

Ideally a pre-existing group of individuals (such as gym teachers, sports coaches, dance instructors, teachers, etc.) who could perform the function of mentors/leaders will already exist within the emergency-affected community. However, during emergencies, experienced teachers, coaches, and youth professionals could be in short supply or absent altogether. Those who are available may not be adequately qualified. Potential mentors should ideally be recruited from within the emergency-affected community and could include teachers, older youth, community leaders and other caring adults. As part of the same community, locally recruited mentors understand the situation facing trauma-affected children and youth (see **Template 4_2_D Mentor's Contract** in Part II).

Suggested recruitment criteria for the selection of mentors for the program are outlined in **Template 4_2_A Guidelines for Recruiting Community Members** in Part II.

Mentor Workshop

Before the start of the program a workshop of several days (at least 3 days) for mentors should be organized. This offers organizers the chance to invite potential mentors for the program (see **Template 4_4_B Workshop Invitation** and **Template 4_4_H Attendance Sheet** in Part II) to teach them new skills and encourage them to share experiences with others. It also allows organizers to determine those who are most suited to the program, based on skills and experience and their rapport with youth (see **Template 4_2_B Position Description**

of Project Coordinator and **Template 4_2_C Position Description of Project Manager** in Part II). On completion of the workshop, the successful mentors will receive a certificate and be asked to fill in a feedback form (see **Template 4_4_G Certificate** and **4_4_E Workshop Feedback Form** in Part II). For more information on conducting the Workshop, see Section 4.4.

Female Mentors

A balanced mix of male and female mentors is preferable for the programs, which is why coach recruitment procedures must be gender-sensitive. Special outreach activities, such as home visits to family, may be needed to enable women to become mentors and trainers. Organizers should give serious consideration to identifying, attracting, and training female instructors and mentors from the community to serve as role models and mentors for girls. Most importantly, they must be capable of responding to the specific issues and concerns of girls.

Female mentors can be powerful role models for boys, as well, challenging stereotypes and having a considerable impact on the attitude of girls and boys towards sports. Having a female coach for male or mixed-sex groups demonstrates that women are capable in a male-dominated field.

It should also be noted that in some cultures, it is not safe or appropriate for girls to be taught or mentored by males. In such cases, it is especially important to identify strong, capable female role models for younger girls.

4.3 Selection of participants

Inclusion – Sport for All

It is critical that *all* children and youth have access to structured activities to help them overcome the psychological disruption of conflict and disaster. However, children and youth are not a homogenous group, and their needs will vary according to factors such as age, gender, levels of ability, health and culture. It is important to ensure that emergency response programming recognizes this diversity by designing projects that

encourage participation by all groups. It is essential to adapt programming to the local context: what works for one age group in one community may not work with another age group or community. Ask participants what they want to do. Be guided by the information gathered during the assessment. In the case of sport and play activities, where access for all is the goal, implementing specific strategies for specific groups can enhance participation. When setting up a sport and play program, ask: “*Are all potential participants able to access the program? If not, how are barriers to access being overcome?*”

Principles and Resources

In order to encourage all participants to be actively involved, there are four main principles that you can change to adapt and modify activities. They are:

- 1 Teaching style
- 2 Rules and regulations
- 3 Equipment
- 4 Environment

A number of organizations (such as those below) are developing innovative and diverse sport and play programs for people with a disability who have been affected by a disaster.

- > Handicap International
- > Landmine Survivors Network
- > Special Olympics
- > International Paralympic Committee

4.3.1 People with a disability

People with a disability (whether physical, sensory, mental, intellectual or developmental) are at especially high risk in disasters. Their lives are likely to be severely disrupted by lapses in or unavailability of supplies of medication, equipment and assistive devices, family caretakers and previously effective treatment programs. As a result, they may become more stressed, anxious, fearful and isolated. Sport and play activities can benefit people of all types of abilities. Some people may have had pre-existing disabilities and others may be newly

disabled as a result of the emergency. Regardless, it only takes commitment and a positive attitude to include all participants as much as possible in an activity (ICSSPE Manual, 2008).

Young people with disabilities (adapted from Ziegler and Ikelberg, 2003)

Young people with disabilities have much to gain from sport and play activities. In addition to the postemergency therapeutic benefits, these activities can provide physical rehabilitation and much-needed social interaction and integration with peers, thereby building confidence and self-esteem. In many contexts, young people with disabilities do not have equal access to mainstream educational and recreational activities. The post-emergency environment can be an opportunity for them to participate in daily life and join their peers in fun and recreational activities.

Inclusion

Children and youth with disabilities can participate in games and sports activities:

- > With the assistance of young people without disabilities
- > With modified and adapted rules, such as football with crutches, sitting volleyball and wheelchair basketball
- > Via games and sports organized specifically for children and youth with disabilities

Involving young people with disabilities in activities by:

- > Disseminating information on sports programs in places where young people usually gather (also use media)
- > Considering space (wheelchair accessible, smooth surface) and logistical requirements (crutches and wheelchairs and other assistive devices may be in short supply following a disaster);
- > Visiting families at their home, informing children with disabilities and their family about planned activities
- > Mobilizing young people without disabilities from the same area as their peers with disabilities.
- > Involving local organizations, rehabilitation centers or other institutions working with (or experienced with) children and youth with disabilities (to identify and mobilize possible participants, inform project design)
- > Consider transportation needs

General sport and play activities should target young people with and without disabilities in order to ensure that programs are integrated—while making sure that those with special needs have adequate support and accessibility. All sports and games must be feasible for all participants; no one should be excluded on the basis of a disability. Promoting the inclusion of young people with disabilities should be emphasized and integrated from the start of the emergency program—through community and parent sensitization, coach training, activity adaptation and other practical strategies for inclusion.

Inclusion of adults and mentors with special needs is also important for the program. These people can act as ideal role models for young people with disabilities.

4.3.2 Marginalized / Vulnerable groups

Planning should involve consideration for individuals or groups who are marginalized from society. Through the assessment, determine marginalized or vulnerable groups and design strategies (such as mobilization, adaptation and participation) to include them in activities. Where appropriate, make efforts to integrate marginalized and non-marginalized groups of participants. You may need to address the prejudices of the community here to define a strategy. Recruit coaches that represent the target group – i.e. hire younger coaches to encourage participation.

In refugee or IDP camps, newly arrived children and youth should be given rapid access to recreational activities and efforts made to include them and integrate different groups. Where appropriate, take advantage of opportunities to create positive relations between refugees and host communities through recreational activities. It may be possible to encourage the community to send youth to participate in organized camp activities.

4.3.3 Recruiting and retaining girls

Design the project based on the information gathered during the assessment, making sure that it addresses any concerns raised by parents about their daughters' participation. Concerns might include guaranteeing adult supervision, using only female

mentors, activities in well-lit, open areas, and so on. Assessments should also highlight some of the factors that impede or permit girls' participation. Accommodations may need to be made in scheduling for domestic responsibilities and mobility to ensure the program is serving girls. Strategies to encourage girls' involvement should be based on this understanding. A strong outreach effort focused on girls and their parents is needed from the outset, and recruitment strategies must go beyond initial outreach and a one-time-only approach.

Ensuring that girls' voices are heard and their needs met will encourage their continued participation. For example, if boys prefer soccer and girls prefer volleyball, work to ensure that there are sufficient mentors interested in organizing an equal number of both activities so girls do not feel excluded. Set realistic goals in terms of the degree and length of participation one might reasonably expect of girls in a given community. Be flexible in setting the terms of participation, allowing girls to enter or re-enter programs easily (to the extent that this is logistically possible and not disruptive to other participants).

Most importantly, enlist the help of parents and community leaders to ensure that girls are able to participate to the maximum extent possible so that they can reap the intended benefits of the program. Without their support, it is difficult to provide a sustainable program for participants.

4.3.4 Addressing age differences

Sport and play activities offer an opportunity for children and young people of different ages to play together under similar conditions. While mixed-age activities can be beneficial, programs that offer too broad an age range fall short of meeting a wide range of needs. When designing and implementing sport and play programs, it is important to recognize the differing needs of young people. Clearly, a psychosocial sports program targeting children ages 8-12 will require a different approach (in terms of activities, coaching style, etc) than a program intended for 16-18 year olds. Activities should therefore be planned for different age groups and for boys and girls, separately

and together. Having youth organize activities for younger children can be a useful strategy: benefiting younger children while giving youth a significant and meaningful role to play (aiding in psychosocial rehabilitation).

4.4 Workshop

Training

Training of mentors is essential to providing quality sport and play programming in emergency settings. Training should support and build on the skills of interested adults and young people, encouraging them to play leadership roles (see [Template 4_4_A Guidelines for Workshop](#)). Shorter training courses are usually most effective during an emergency. Though the training time will depend on the content, a 3-5 day model is generally recommended (see [Template 4_4_C Workshop Agenda](#) and [Template 4_4_D Detailed Description of Agenda](#) in Part II), followed by individual coaching and ongoing support (perhaps including additional half-day or full-day trainings).

It is necessary to consider the following when undertaking training activities:

- > Training program must be adapted to local needs, the emergency situation and mentoring capacity (and ideally linked with other training initiatives)
- > Select participants who are more likely to integrate and apply the learning
- > A Training-of-Trainers (TOT) strategy is an effective approach for teacher training - it builds local capacity and can be implemented in the local language. Coordinate, train and coach groups who will replicate the training to animators and peers
- > Training can be an opportunity to introduce new coaching/facilitation methods – child-centered, participatory and interactive, addressing special needs of children
- > Training content and evaluation methodology should be documented for the participants
- > All training should be followed up with monitoring and support
- > Be willing to adapt and be flexible to sudden logistical changes, times of intense heat, participant tiredness and stress, and carefully consider the amount of material being taught, so it could be better learned and integrated

Training should involve a background on psychosocial support and child protection. This includes basic child development, child protection responsibilities, psychosocial impact of conflict and disasters on children (identification of symptoms/referral and building resilience/protective factors). Simple teaching/facilitation methods should be practiced using experiential/active learning methods that are based on child-centered, gender-sensitive, inclusive methodologies.

Post-traumatic loss debriefing

A debriefing of mentors being trained is a crucial element after a disaster. Experience shows that many people do not get the opportunity to speak about the emotions and fears they experienced during the disaster. Anybody who is ready to listen and share their experiences can conduct debriefing by accepting the simple rules of confidentiality, respect, and tolerance.

In more than 90% of cases medication is not needed. Project managers, coordinators and mentors should be able to provide basic psychological first aid (PFA). PFA is a description of a humane, supportive response to someone who is suffering and may need support. PFA is very different from psychological debriefing in that it does not necessarily involve a discussion of the event that caused the distress (see textbox below).

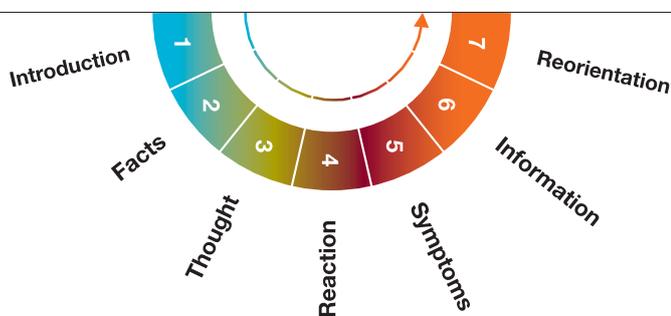
Guidance on debriefing (IASC, 2007, 119)

- > Protecting from further harm (in rare situations, very distressed persons may take decisions that put them at further risk of harm). Where appropriate, inform distressed survivors of their right to refuse to discuss the events with (other) aid workers or with journalists;
- > Providing the opportunity for survivors to talk about the events, but without pressure. Respect the wish not to talk and avoid pushing for more information than the person may be ready to give;
- > Listening patiently in an accepting and non-judgmental manner;
- > Conveying genuine compassion;
- > Identifying basic practical needs and ensuring that these are met;
- > Asking for people's concerns and trying to address these;

- > Asking for people’s concerns and trying to address these;
- > Discouraging negative ways of coping (specifically discouraging coping through use of alcohol and other substances, explaining that people in severe distress are at much higher risk of developing substance use problems);
- > Encouraging participation in normal daily routines (if possible) and use of positive means of coping (e.g. culturally appropriate relaxation methods, accessing helpful cultural and spiritual supports);
- > Encouraging, but not forcing, company from one or more family member or friends;
- > As appropriate, offering the possibility to return for further support;
- > As appropriate, referring to locally available support mechanisms or to trained clinicians.

A more elaborate post-traumatic loss debriefing normally goes through seven phases:

FIGURE 4 >
THE SEVEN PHASES OF A POST-TRAUMATIC LOSS DEBRIEFING SESSION



Source: Hausmann, 2006, 98

Traumatology

During the workshop the participants should get some basic insights into traumatology work. They should recognize the symptoms of trauma and the different reactions to it. In addition, they should know the risk and protective factors. The most vulnerable people are young females from a lower socio-economic status.

Activity selection / program content

There are two types of activities used in sport and play programs for youth: fun-oriented and task-oriented activities (see **Activity Guide** in Part III). Fun-oriented activities focus more on creating a joyful environment that briefly helps participants forget the scars and problems of the day. Task-oriented activities also have a fun component, but more importantly, they teach critical life skills such as trust-building, conflict management and communication.

It is clear that different activities will be more beneficial to some programs than others. For instance, if an assessment has revealed an issue of gender equity, then some activities will have to be chosen with that in mind. Asking questions specific to the issue that has been identified should guide you towards selection of the most appropriate activities in each case.

If gender equity has been highlighted as an issue, questions could be:

- > Are certain activities deemed stereotypically male or female?
- > Have activities for both boys and girls been considered?
- > Are there equal opportunities for boys and girls (activities, sessions, events, etc.)?

It might be necessary to provide non-traditional sports and physical activities (such as dancing, if appropriate) to encourage greater participation of girls, including those participants from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Programs should be tailored to the different needs, abilities and interests of girls. There might be a scenario in which traditional games may be more acceptable than competitive sports. For instance, teaching traditionally feminine or masculine sports to boys and girls can challenge gender norms. Girls may prefer playing games they can participate free and fully without competition. In this instance, try modified rules and equipment and focus on fun rather than competition.

Mixed-sex vs. integrated activities

Creating single-sex activities and/or designated girls-only spaces can be beneficial for girls and may provide a context for building confidence as well as psychosocial well-being. Girls may benefit from an opportunity to participate in physical activity in their own way—often the presence of males changes how girls and young women participate and therefore alters their experience. Mixed-sex sports activities may provide

males with an opportunity to witness the skills of talented female players, thus enabling them to challenge dominant stereotypes regarding the capacities of women and girls. However, organizing mixed-sex sports activities is dependent on the socio-cultural context in which the sports program is to be implemented. If females will be forbidden to participate in sports activities with boys, it would be better to introduce separate activities for boys and girls.

Considerations for program content (see Activity Guide in Part III)

- > It is important to select age-, gender-, and disability-appropriate and culturally sensitive activities in consultation with communities.
- > When determining kinds of activities that will best provide psychosocial support, consider the balance between a group and individual focus. Since children generally show a fair amount of resilience, group activities will provide enough support for the majority of young people.
- > One strategy: in the early stages (before funding and proper equipment is secured), start with traditional games and sports (elders and others can teach the games and rules, encouraging community involvement).
- > Sports like netball and football and activities like singing and dancing are low-cost options – in the beginning, a homemade ball can be used.
- > Be aware of cultural and other considerations around appropriateness of certain games and sports (consult community).
- > Instruction on the basics will allow participants to develop skills, leading to greater confidence while participating in many different activities.
- > Psychosocial sports interventions should focus on respect and team-building, rather than competition and winning – to achieve maximum benefits for young people in a post-emergency setting.
- > Activities can include: sports, games, music, art, drama, or other expressive activities such as storytelling, cultural activities.

4.5 Further reading

-
- > Bernard Van Leer Foundation (2005). *Early Childhood Matters: Responses to Young Children in Postemergency Situations*. > [LINK](#)

 - > Duncan, J. and Arntson, L. (2004). *Children in Crisis: Good Practices in Evaluating Psychosocial Programming*. > [LINK](#)

 - > Graça Machel (Expert of the Secretary General of the United Nations) (1996). *Impact of Armed Conflict on Children*. > [LINK](#)

 - > Hausmann, C. (2006). *Einführung in die Psychotraumatologie*. Wien: UTB.

 - > ICSSPE (2008). *Sport and Physical Activity in Post-Disaster Intervention*. A Handbook Prepared in Conjunction with ICSSPE's International Seminar. 2nd edition. > [LINK](#)

 - > Rahim, A. and Holland, P. (2006). *Facilitating Transitions for Children and Youth Lessons from Four Post-Conflict Fund Projects*. Social Development Papers: Conflict Prevention & Reconstruction, World Bank. > [LINK](#)

 - > SAD and Schwery Consulting (2007). *Considerations in Establishing Sport Programs for Youth in Disasters and Complex Emergencies*. Landscape document. > [LINK](#)

 - > SAD (2006). *Sport and Play for Traumatized Children and Youth. An assessment of a pilot-project in Bam, Iran*. Evaluation Report. Switzerland: Swiss Academy for Development. > [LINK](#)

 - > Ziegler, S. and Ikelberg, J. (2003). *Handicap International, Fun inclusive! Sports and games as means of rehabilitation, interaction and integration for children and young people with disabilities*. > [LINK](#)
-

5 MONITORING & EVALUATION

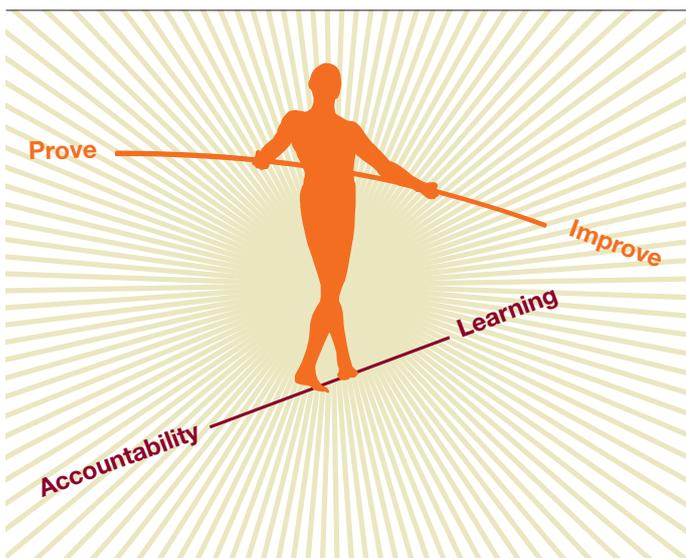
5.1 Objective

The reasons for conducting Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) are manifold. Without ongoing M&E, wellintended projects can be misdirected, undermine the objectives of the intervention and do more harm than good.

The primary objective of proper M&E is learning, e.g. strengths and weaknesses should be identified in order to improve a project or be used as a learning example for similar projects. M&E is also quite often used for accountability, e.g. to report back to stakeholders and demonstrate that objectives are being sought.

For project managers and staff responsible for M&E, it is often difficult to balance the requirements for accountability (to prove) and learning (to improve).

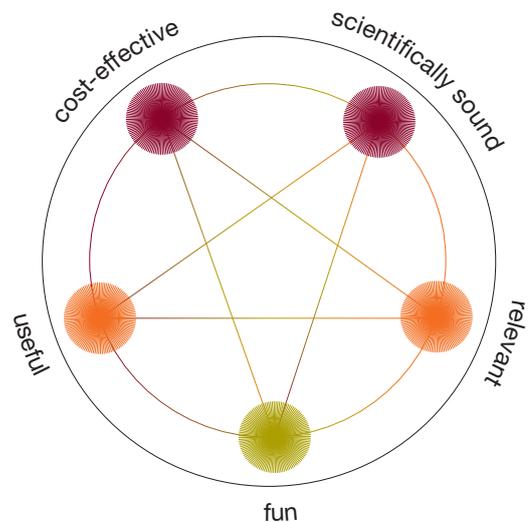
FIGURE 5 >
BALANCING THE NEED
OF ACCOUNTABILITY AND LEARNING



Source: www.idrc.ca/en/ev-85058-201-1-DO_TOPIC.html

5.2 Guiding principles of M&E

FIGURE 6 > DIFFERENT CRITERIA OF M&E



Source: Schwery Consulting, 2008

M&E has to satisfy different criteria. It must be:

- > **Cost-effective:** The costs for M&E should be rationally relative to the costs of the project. For smaller projects it makes sense to randomly select some programs that will be evaluated externally.
- > **Scientifically sound:** Techniques used to collect data must be credible.
- > **Useful:** It is important that M&E does not harm the program. It should be a research and analytical tool that operates in the background. It is neither obtrusive nor disruptive to the program's activities.

-
- > Relevant: M&E should focus only on relevant questions. If you raise a question in a survey, you should have the time to analyze it. Answer the following question honestly: Do you really need to know this?
-
- > Fun: If the evaluation is hard work, the participants may not be willing to cooperate and there is a danger that data is falsified. There are many ways to make M&E more fun (see point 4 below).
-

The following ten points offer advice on the M&E process:

1. Think of M&E at the very beginning

It is important to conduct a baseline study when a program begins. This will help to provide a description of existing conditions which can be a starting point against which progress can be assessed or comparisons made. A baseline study involves the collection of mandatory and additional indicators (see Section 5.3 below), which are monitored over time to assess fluctuation.

2. Verify that objectives are measurable

Remember that what cannot be measured, cannot be managed. Three main questions need to be answered:

-
- > What are the objectives of this program?
-
- > What results need to be generated?
-
- > How do we measure success?
-

3. Involve relevant stakeholders

A workshop involving the main stakeholders offers the best opportunity to develop an effective M&E plan.

4. Be creative in selecting tools

There are many ways of doing M&E. No two programs share the same characteristics. It is always necessary to adapt M&E techniques and try to

apply innovative and fun techniques that are specific to the particular program. Take into consideration innovative techniques such as video monitoring, photo monitoring, storytelling and the Most Significant Change (MSC) technique to conduct evaluations.

MSC Technique (Davies and Dart, 2005)

This is a qualitative research method that involves asking participants to explain what has been the most significant change for them since the program was initiated.

Participants should be encouraged to write without any restriction on the content – positive or negative – besides the rule that their stories should refer to actual experiences, not fiction.

5. Consult experts, if needed

Whereas monitoring is an internal process, evaluation can be an internal or external one. It is important to consider the pros and cons of both, as outlined by the table below.

Internal Evaluation

- > Advantages
 - > Cost and time efficiency
 - > Knowledge of internal functions
-

- > Disadvantages
 - > Potential for bias
 - > Less expertise
-

External Evaluation

- > Advantages
 - > Greater expertise
 - > Less room for bias
 - > Disadvantages
 - > Longer and more costly process
 - > Lack of internal knowledge
-

6. Include M&E costs in your budget

M&E is expensive and for small programs it can be a substantial part of the budget. Therefore, the costs have to be included in the budget and clearly communicated to the donors.

7. Don't forget the unintended outcomes

Seek information on unintended effects. Often it is the case that programs produce outputs that were unplanned. Whether these are beneficial or not it is good practice to evaluate them for future improvement.

FIGURE 7 > MEASURING UNINTENDED OUTCOMES

	Intended outcomes	Unintended outcomes
Positive	<p>Objectives</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Logframes > Standard questionnaires 	<p>Miracles</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Most Significant Change > Outcome Mapping
Negative	<p>???</p>	<p>Disasters</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Do no harm approach > In-depth interviews > Critical observation

Source: Schwery Consulting, 2008

8. Communicate approach to team

A debriefing session for those involved in M&E is a good way to promote the sharing of best

practices among stakeholders. Progression is achieved by determining those techniques that work and those that do not.

9. Don't over-report

The frequency of M&E reporting should be agreed upon during the planning process. Regular intervals of both monitoring and evaluation are recommended to ensure good practice and unbiased reporting. An M&E plan must not be too detailed. Over-reporting is time-consuming and can often lead to key data being lost in a sea of valueless information.

10. Provide feedback to stakeholders

Transparency and impartiality are essential attributes of valuable M&E. Steps should be taken to ensure all relevant stakeholders are aware of the precise philosophy of M&E in the sense that it is a tool for continual improvement with the ultimate objective of supporting a program's participants.

5.3 Monitoring

A list of possible baseline indicators which assist in determining the relative success of an objective include:

Mandatory

- > Number of children participating in the program
- > Number of females participating in the program
- > Number of children attending activities a certain number of hours per day
- > Type of activities performed
- > Level of inclusion, measured by proportion of participants to non-participants

Additional:

- > Degree of application of training and training materials by facilitators, measured by observation and survey

-
- > Speed at which activities are initiated
-
- > Level of satisfaction with service provided, measured by survey or focus group
-
- > Sex, type of activity, and other possible factors limiting participation (e.g. female-headed household, disability, ethnic background, religion, language, child or youth's stature for age, etc.)
-

5.4 Evaluation

Impact Measurement

One of the most common criticisms of sport-based development programs is that they lack reliable data. With a focus on returning a community to a state of normalcy, it is often difficult for organizers and mentors to make time for seemingly peripheral tasks such as consistent measurement of activities to assess impact. However, a program which lacks concise M&E may well have a significant impact on a community, but with no legacy, it does little to attract investment or enhance future projects.

Once the data has been collected and analyzed, a report must be written. As with any report it is necessary to first define who the target audience will be. Will it be for donors/investors, other stakeholders or

is the report for institutional learning? Ideally this report should be kept short and simple and incorporate unexpected or negative outcomes. Perhaps these outcomes were not measured but they may have had the most impact. It is important that these outcomes are considered in the report as well. Finally, the report should include lessons learned and recommendations for the future of the program or others like it.

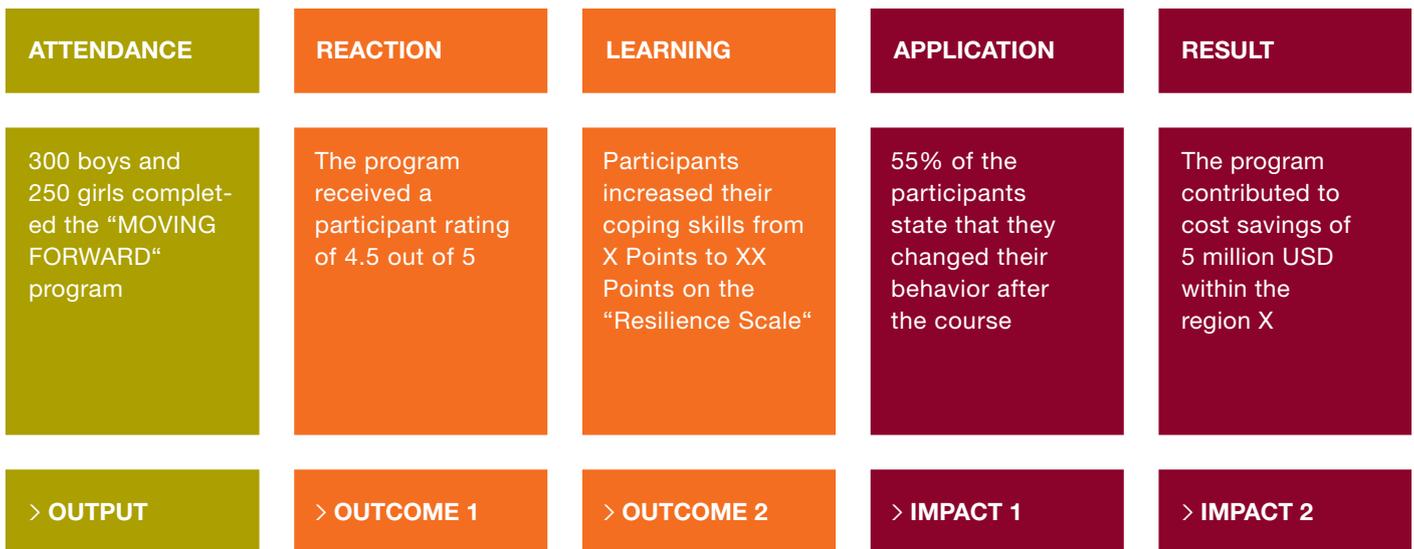
A list of possible indicators which assist in determining the relative success of an objective include:

-
- > Proportion of young people involved in activities who demonstrate improved psychosocial status as evidenced by their interaction and relationships with peers
-
- > Proportion of young people involved in activities who are better able to express difficult emotions associated with crisis-related experiences
-
- > Proportion of youth involved in community service projects who report a greater sense of self-confidence, self-worth, and competency
-
- > Proportion of young people involved in storytelling, oral history, or other cultural activities who report a greater sense of self-confidence, self-worth, and identity
-



Impact can be measured on different levels. The figure below illustrates them with examples:

FIGURE 8 > MEASURING IMPACT



Source: Schwery Consulting, 2008

The degree of complexity increases from left to right. The project management needs to decide on the depth of evaluation planned. Depending on this decision the objectives and indicators of success need to be adapted:

- > **Attendance** can be measured by a simple register (see **Template 5_3_A for Monitoring Book** and **5_3_B for Instructions** in Part II).
- > **Reaction** can be assessed with the help of a feedback round (see adjacent side bar for a practical example).
- > To measure **learning** a mixture of qualitative and quantitative tools are recommended. Especially for bigger groups quantitative surveys at the beginning and the end of the program are

popular to measure if the learning objectives are reached, but need instructions (see **Template 5_4_A: for mentors** and **Template 5_4_B for participants**).

- > **Application:** This needs to be measured towards or at the end of the program. Different techniques can help to gather the data. A set of questions can be added to the post-intervention survey. The MSC technique is an innovative approach gaining popularity among progressive aid organizations.
- > **Results:** Measuring the economic benefit is the most complex form of evaluation as it requires interpretation of macroeconomic statistical data. It provides the strongest argument for decision makers to invest (more) money.

Surveys are a useful tool to collect specific information on a number of people within a short time. It can be used for mentors (**Template 5_4_C** and **Template 5_4_D**) as well as for participants (**Template 5_4_E** and **Template 5_4_F**) at the beginning or end of the program.

There are also some disadvantages to conducting surveys (Oxfam, 2007, tool 7). A pre- and post intervention survey only makes sense if:

-
- > the objectives of the intervention are clearly defined;

 - > there is a minimal number of participants (at least 100) or of mentors (at least 30);

 - > there is a clear need from project organizers and stakeholders to gather quantitative data;

 - > the local team is supporting the idea of conducting a survey;

 - > there is enough time between pre- and post intervention surveys (at least 6 months);

 - > the human capital to process and analyze the data is available.
-

Conducting a survey is a complex and resourceful exercise. The indicators need to be sensitive enough to show improvement during the project phase. There are different standardized tools to measure impact:

Hope: The *Children's Hope Scale* is a 6-item self-report questionnaire assessing children's dispositional hope (Snyder et al., 1997). The measure is based on the premise that children (between the ages of 8-19) are goal-oriented and that their goal-related thoughts can be understood according to two components: agency and pathways. These two components, agency (the ability to initiate and sustain action towards goals) and pathways (the capacity to find a means to carry out goals), are assessed by the measure. The to-

tal Children's Hope Score is achieved by adding the responses to the six items.

Locus of Control: The *Pearlin Mastery Scale* measures the extent to which individuals perceive themselves in control of forces that significantly impact their lives. It consists of a 7-item scale (Pearlin, 1989). Each item is a statement regarding the respondent's perception of self, and respondents are asked how strongly they agree or disagree with each statement. The scale is constructed by adding together the responses from each item; thus, a range of 4 to 16 is possible. To obtain a positively oriented scale, the negatively phrased first five items should be reverse coded.

Physical Activity: The *PACE+ Adolescent Physical Activity Measure* is a short, reliable and valid physical activity screening measure for use with adolescents up to 20 years (Prochaska et al., 2001). Scoring: add the number of days of the two questions, and divide by two (average amount of days).

Resilience: Resilience can be understood as a capacity to withstand stressors. Psychological resilience may help a person face a situation, take action, and be flexible and persistent in dealing with problems and consequences. Wagnild and NYoung developed a 25-item psychological *Resilience Scale* (Wagnild and Young, 1993).

Self-esteem: The *Rosenberg Scale* measures feelings of self-worth, self-confidence and self-acceptance. Self-esteem is defined as "a positive or negative orientation toward oneself; an overall evaluation of one's worth or value. People are motivated to have high self-esteem, and having it indicates positive self-regard, not egotism. It is unrealistic to think that self-esteem can be "taught"; rather, it is developed through an individual's life experiences." (Rosenberg, 1989).

5.5. Further reading

-
- > Coalter, F. (2003). *Sport and Community Development. A Manual.* > [LINK](#)

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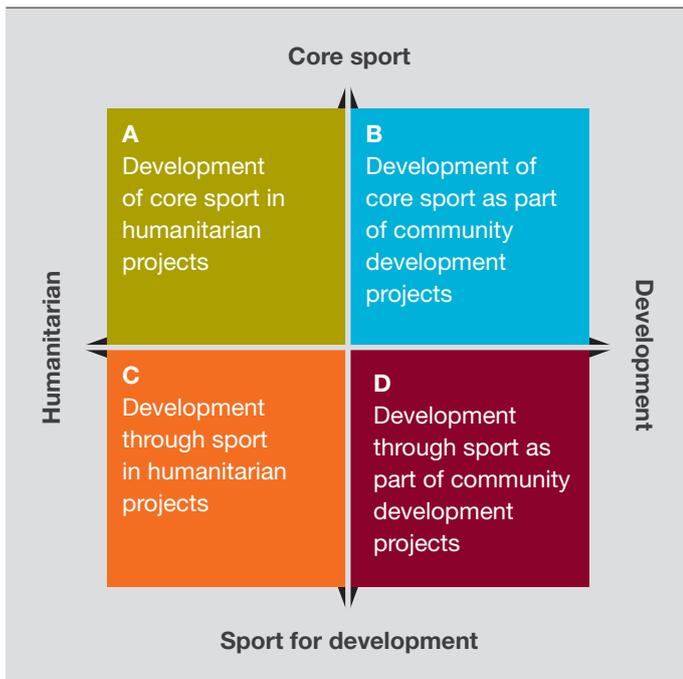
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6 TRANSITION

A community that has been struck down by an emergency or natural disaster must return to a state of normalcy and regularity as soon as possible. A daily routine is necessary to build structure into people's lives and create a sense of worth. In sport and play emergency relief programs, as with any post-emergency program, it is important **not to overload individuals** with too many concerning issues.

For the purposes of this toolkit, transition can be defined as the shift from a sport and play emergency relief program to a normal sport and play development program. A definitive timeline for this transition from one program to the other is approximately three to nine months. However, this is not necessarily always the case. In fact, there are four potential paths or *interventions* that a sport and play emergency relief program can take once it has run its intended course.

FIGURE 9 >
CHOICE OF INTERVENTIONS FOLLOWING A
SPORT AND PLAY EMERGENCY RELIEF PROGRAM



Assuming 'Outcome D' is deemed the most appropriate path/intervention, there are many preparations that need to be considered in order to make this transition an easy, unobtrusive and successful one. These are outlined below.

6.1 Looking toward the future – Sustainability

As a sport and play emergency relief program draws to a close, the idea that individuals within the community should start looking toward the future must be promoted. The emphasis now should shift from daily routine and normalcy to focus very much on sustainability of the program.

Investments should be made in capacity-building to ensure that the further development of the program lies firmly in the hands of its community and local stakeholders. Partners as well as project staff, key community actors and coaches must be involved in the project planning process.

Sustainability

Every activity performed at this stage has the objective of promoting the sustainability of a new program.

- > New skills can be taught, such as fundraising to raise money for the program;
- > New topics/themes can be introduced to the curriculum;
- > New dimensions can be added, such as developing partnerships with governments and the adoption of a monitoring and evaluation system; and
- > New procedures can be implemented, such as the adoption of a monitoring and evaluation system.

6.2 Curriculum development

The first step is to identify and develop a relevant theme. The most appropriate theme should be one that will drive the program and offer individuals meaningful lessons, relevant to their situation, alongside an opportunity to practice sport and play.

Source: Sportsconsult, 2006

Examples of sport and development organizations that have developed meaningful curricula around relevant themes include:

- > **Health Education** – Grassroots Soccer and the Kicking AIDS Out Network are two organizations that educate children and youth about the dangers of HIV/AIDS and about how they can make a difference.
- > **Peace Building** – Through its Open Fun Football Schools initiative, Cross Cultures Project Association focuses on peace building and conflict transformation in the Balkans, Caucasus and Levant.
- > **Gender Equality** – The GOAL project India uses netball as a way of addressing empowerment for young women in marginalized communities.
- > **Social Inclusion** – The Homeless World Cup uses football as a trigger to inspire and empower homeless people to change their lives.
- > **Other Skills** (e.g. IT, Language, etc.) – Bola Pra Frente is a professional educational institution working in a disadvantaged district of Rio de Janeiro. It has developed an innovative curriculum to teach different subjects such as math, literature and geography with the help of sport.

6.3 Staff

Important issues to consider when deciding on a curriculum is how knowledgeable trainers/coaches are; whether they will require further training; and if the syllabus is written in a language that they will understand. Staff workshops are an effective way of identifying these issues and ensuring capacity-building at an early stage. Follow-up training can cover specific issues in more depth, such as strategies for supporting children with special needs, girls, other groups, and for introducing of new games/sports/activities.

Terre des Hommes (TDH) Coaching strategy examples:

- > One-to-one coaching: regular follow-up of each trainee in his/her activities with children, setting of individual weekly objectives, involving self feedback and giving feedback after each activity session.
- > Group coaching of resource groups to replicate components of the main training. Trainees becoming trainers through preparation for replication (generally 2 days), animation, and feedback sessions.

Psychosocial support for mentors

Mentors have often suffered the same shock or exhibit similar symptoms to trauma-affected children/youth participants. Mentors may have experienced personal losses, such as the loss of property, loved ones, jobs and homes. When these individuals come forward to help care for children

in emergency situations, it is important to recognize these losses and their impact on coaches' abilities to educate and respond to the emotional needs of children. Mentors may need space or accompaniment in processing their own grief before they can effectively find the emotional resources to serve children. Training of coaches should be designed to help coaches address their own trauma while helping others.

Incentives

In order to prevent high staff turnover, engagement must be ensured. Some programs are able to provide payment or stipends to instructors. This approach can pose challenges and should be considered within the local context. Without payment though, it can be difficult to recruit quality mentors, yet paying them can undermine the government's responsibility. Requiring fee payment for participation might also reduce access (Triplehorn, 2001). In addition, many donors are unwilling to support these costs.

In some programs, coaches work as volunteers. Where remuneration isn't possible, other benefits can be equally as motivating such as transferable skills, equipment, education, media exposure, travel opportunities, or access to vital resources (Saavedra, 2004). In some circumstances, receiving the certificate at the completion of the training workshop and working voluntarily as a coach for children enhances social prestige and community standing.

6.4 Multi-sectoral approach

Integral to addressing issues of sustainability of a sport and play development program is the involvement of the community and a group of local partners that can help to make a seamless transition. The integration of partners from other sectors such as local NGOs, ministries of education, sports associations, and youthserving organizations is necessary to continue with a sustainable program once the responding agency has withdrawn.

Two of the issues that need to be addressed are the replacement of the equipment in the Sport and Play Kit and the refurbishment of the facilities. The group will have to identify local producers that can meet the future requirements of the program. Another crucial pre-requisite to a successful program is ensuring that an adequate number of trainers/coaches are available to support the participants and that they can have ongoing training to ensure that a curriculum is delivered according to current practice.

6.5 Further reading

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7 KEY POLICIES

Sport and Play: A fundamental Right

Young people have a fundamental right to engage in sport, play, physical education and recreational activity. First recognized by the UN Declaration on the Rights of the Child in 1959, this right is enshrined in Article 31 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, which recognizes "... the right of the child to rest and leisure, and to engage in play and recreational activities appropriate to the age of the child." Under this article, children also have the right to the provision of recreational opportunities. Several other UN instruments echo the importance of access to and participation in sport, such as the UNESCO International Charter of Physical Education and Sport; the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women; and the Convention on the Rights of the Child, which states in Article 39 that young people should receive "...measures to promote physical and psychological recovery and social reintegration..." in the aftermath of complex emergencies.

The status of sport as a right obligates governments, multilateral institutions, and other civil society groups to ensure that opportunities exist for everyone to participate in sport and physical activity. In places where these rights are denied, these actors have a responsibility to ensure that the opportunity for participation in sport and play exist.

The UN (UN Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace, 2003) defines sport as "all forms of physical activity that contribute to physical fitness, mental well-being and social interaction, such as play, recreation, organized or competitive sport, and indigenous sports and games." For the purpose of this toolkit, sport and play activities are broadly defined to include movement, exercise, games, play, recreation, and arts. These activities can be structured or unstructured—for individuals or groups, child-directed or adult-led. Especially among children, play refers to any physical activity that is fun and participatory. It is often unstructured and free

from adult direction. Recreation is usually more structured than play and involves physically active leisure activities. Sport is more organized and involves rules and sometimes competition.

Rights-based sport and play programs must be based on a Sport for All model, to ensure that all groups are given the opportunity to participate. Programs should aim to maximize access to and participation in appropriate forms of physical activity for all groups in society regardless of gender, age, ability or race (UN Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace, 2003, 2).

A rights-based approach is central to most psychosocial work done in emergency and post-emergency contexts today.

Key documents elaborating and promoting the rights of children in humanitarian emergencies, armed conflict, refuge and post conflict situations include:

Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)
The Convention on the Rights of the Child is the most widely ratified human rights treaty in history. It was first drafted in 1979 – the International Year of the Child – by a working group established by the Commission on Human Rights. The Convention was unanimously adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on 20 November 1989, and to date, it has been ratified by all States with the exception of two: the United States of America and Somalia. It is the first legally binding international instrument to incorporate the full range of human rights – children’s civil and political rights as well as their economic, social and cultural rights – thus giving all rights equal emphasis. The Convention defines as a child every human being under 18, unless national laws recognize the age of majority earlier. It sets minimum legal and moral standards for the protection of children’s rights. States party to the Convention have a legal and moral obligation to advance the cause of child rights through administrative, legislative, judicial and other measures.

Graça Machel Report: Impact of Armed Conflict on Children was completed in 1996, provides a comprehensive review of the situation of children affected by armed conflict. It provides best practice recommendations to ensure that their rights to a harmonious development. The findings and recommendations of this report constitute the “gold standard” for safeguarding the rights of children in armed conflict today.

Cape Town Principles

The Cape Town Principles, adopted in 1997, define psychosocial work and the parameters for intervention with children and their families associated with fighting forces.

Action for the Rights of Children (ARC)

ARC is a collaboration between the UNHCR and the International Save the Children Alliance. ARC’s primary goal is to “increase the capacity of the UNHCR, government, and NGO field staff to protect and care for children and adolescents

in emergency situations.” Such situations include the protection and support of children and young adults involved in armed conflicts as soldiers. ARC provides participants with background information about International Legal Standards and Principles, as well as policy and child development principles, combined with exploration of important issues such as emergency education, land mine awareness, unaccompanied children, and adolescent health issues.

UNICEF

Following the almost universal ratification of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) in 1990 UNICEF began a campaign to support the rights of children in every country where it works. A rights-based approach was taken to all of its programs from health and nutrition to psychosocial care. UNICEF argues for the realization of children’s rights under the CRC even, perhaps especially, in the midst of emergencies. Most other agencies have followed suit.

7.1 Further reading

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8 GLOSSARY

Adapted Physical Activity	> Sport and physical activity for people with disabilities.
Burn out	> Condition occurring when disaster responders show signs and symptoms of trauma and stress reactions to a disaster.
Capacity	> Available and potential resources of individuals, households and communities to cope with a threat or resist the impact of a hazard.
Coach (in emergencies)	> See “Mentor”.
Cool Down	> The period after sport and physical activity when light activities and stretches are conducted to help the body recover more quickly.
Coping	> The methods a person uses to deal with stressful, traumatic or life-threatening situations.
Debriefing	> Providing a summary update of a condition or situation to the emergency-affected population.
Post-Traumatic Loss Debriefing	> Structured group process approach to help survivors manage their physical, cognitive and emotional responses to a traumatic loss.
Disaster	> A serious disruption to the functioning of society, causing widespread human, material or environmental losses which exceed the ability of the affected society to cope using only its own resources. See also “Emergency.”
Disaster Management	> The body of policy, administrative decisions and operational activities which pertain to the various stages of a disaster at all levels.
Disaster Mitigation	> Measures taken in advance of a disaster aimed at reducing its impact on society and environment.
Disaster Preparedness	> Ability to predict, respond to and cope with the effects of a disaster.
Disaster Prevention	> Activities designed to provide permanent protection from disasters.
Disaster Response	> The sum of decisions and actions taken during and after disaster, including immediate relief, rehabilitation, and reconstruction.
Disaster Team	> Multidisciplinary, multi-sectoral group of persons qualified to evaluate a disaster and to provide necessary relief.
Natural Disaster	> A natural hazard such as an earthquake, hurricane or tsunami.
Emergency	> A sudden and usually unforeseen event that calls for immediate measures to minimize its adverse consequences. See also “Disaster.”
Complex Emergency	> Humanitarian crisis in a country, region or society where there is a considerable or complete breakdown of authority resulting from internal or external conflict, and which requires an international response that goes beyond the mandate or capacity of any single agency and/or the ongoing United Nations’ country program.

Empowerment	> A process of increasing the capacity of individuals or groups to make choices about their own lives and futures.
Grief	> A process of working through all the thoughts, memories and emotions associated with loss, until an acceptance is reached.
Hazard	> Potential threat to humans and their welfare.
Mentor	> Person who plans and facilitates sport and play activities after emergencies with strong interpersonal skills and with an interest and desire to teach sport and games.
Mitigation	> Measures taken in advance of a disaster aimed at decreasing or eliminating its impact on society and the environment.
Play	> See “Sport and Play.”
Rehabilitation	> The operations and decisions taken after a disaster with a view of restoring a stricken community to its former living conditions, whilst encouraging and facilitating the necessary adjustments to the changes caused by the disaster.
Relief	> Assistance and/or intervention during or after a disaster to meet the life preservation and basic subsistence needs. It can be immediate emergency relief or of protracted duration.
Resilience	> Ability to overcome the stress of traumatic events.
Risk	> Probability of disaster occurrence. Based on mathematical calculations, risk is the product of hazard and vulnerability minus capacity.
Shelter	> Physical protection requirements of disaster victims who no longer have access to normal habitation facilities. Immediate post-disaster needs are met by the use of tents. Alternatives may include polypropylene houses, plastic sheeting, geodesic domes and other similar types of temporary housing.
Sport and Play	> Any type of recreational activity that takes place individually or within a group. This includes such activities as physical movement, exercise and yoga, as well as participation in arts, theatre, music and crafts that may have cultural relevance to the local community. (See also “Play.”)
Stress	> A state of arousal or readiness, caused by some stimulus or demand. It is a normal coping reaction to an unusual situation
Acute Stress Response	> Immediate reaction to a life-threatening event (within 1-2 days), provoking bewilderment, disorientation, agitation or panic.
Acute Stress Disorder	> Enduring disruption after a life-threatening event (2 days- 1 month) provoking bewilderment, disorientation, agitation and panic.
Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD)	> Anxiety disorder associated with a life-threatening event and characterized by such symptoms as survivor guilt, reliving the trauma in dreams, numbness and lack of involvement with reality, and/or recurrent thoughts and images.
Survivors	> One who endures through disaster.
Primary Survivors	> Those who experience maximum exposure to the disaster.

Secondary Survivors	> Grieving relatives and friends of the primary survivors.
Third Level Survivors	> Rescue and recovery personnel who may also need help to cope with disaster trauma.
Stretching	> Follows the warm up in sport and physical activity, prepares the muscle groups for activity, and helps to prevent sport-related injuries.
Trauma	> Injury of any nature.
Psychological trauma	> Injury provoked by direct exposure to a life-threatening event and concurrent experience of horror, terror, fear and helplessness.
Vulnerability	> The degree to which people are susceptible to loss, damage, suffering and death, in the event of a disaster.
Warm Up	> An introductory step in sport and physical activity that includes light activity to prepare the body for exercise.
