WAGENINGEN **UR**

For quality of life

Master thesis

Sport participation and socially vulnerable youth

A study on the relation between sport participation, self-concept, self-esteem and sense of coherence and an analysis of factors that are related to sport participation of youth at youth care organisations

MSc thesis
Chair Group Health & Society (HSO)

Sport participation and socially vulnerable youth

A study on the relation between sport participation, self-concept, self-esteem and sense of coherence and an analysis of factors that are related to sport participation of youth at youth care organisations

Vera Scholten

July 2015

MSc Applied Communication Science
Specialisation Health & Society

Supervisors:
Dr. Kirsten Verkooijen
MSc. Sabina Super

Thesis code:
HSO-80333

Acknowledgements

Dear reader,

After a six month period of learning and hard work, I am proud to present this master thesis about youth and sport. This master thesis is part of the master program 'Health and Society' at Wageningen University. The subject of sport in relation to health intrigues me. Personally, I think that physical activity is beneficial for everybody. I enjoy practicing sport myself and I am sure that sport has many beneficial effects, like distressing and distraction of daily life. Socially vulnerable youth, which stay at a youth care organisation, can be in a difficult situation. Especially for them, sport can offer distraction of daily life and opportunities to distress. In addition, sport can bring people together and encourage social contact.

By conducting this master thesis, I learned to search for research participants and I experienced to work on a big project (mainly) on my own. With the great guidance, I was able to write this scientific report. During the research, I discovered what sport could mean for a (vulnerable) person. We all know that sport is related to improved health, but the underlying mechanisms of this relationship are still seen as a 'black box'. I enjoyed investigating the relation between sport and youth development and to be able to explore a small piece of the 'black box'.

It was not possible to write this thesis without the help of many people. First, I want to express my gratitude to Sabina Super for her patient guidance, useful feedback and inspirational ideas. Her guidance was really helpful and it was a valuable experience to be guided by Sabina. Next, I want to thank Kirsten for her time and useful feedback. Third, I want to thank the sport coaches, youngsters and especially employees of the cooperating youth care organisations for their time. Although often the employees at youth care organisations were very busy, they made time to participate in this research. It was interesting to see how such a sport program is organised. The stories of sport coaches, employees and youngsters gave me more insight in what happened during such a sport program and how these different kind of people experienced that. Lastly, I want to thank my loved ones: my boyfriend, family and friends. Thanks for supporting me and listening to me. And I want to thank my boyfriend for his advice and support. Since we live together, he motivated me to work hard on my thesis and to challenge myself.

Enjoy reading this thesis, and keep on practicing sports!

Kind regards,

Vera

Abstract

Introduction – In the literature, the sport setting is seen as an opportunity for youth to develop competences and to gain experiences, that can be used in other non-sport settings, and are hypothesised to contribute to positive youth development. Especially for socially vulnerable youth, it is believed that sport could contribute to positive youth development.

Goal – The aim of this study is twofold. First, the aim is to contribute to knowledge on the relation between sport participation, physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence of socially vulnerable youth. Second, the aim is to contribute to knowledge on what factors are related to sport participation of youth at youth care organisations.

Methods – The relation between sport participation, physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence of socially vulnerable youth was examined by questionnaires. In total, 19 youngsters at youth care organisations aged 12 till 18 filled in the questionnaires. The exploration of factors that were related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth was performed via 12 in-depth interviews with sport coaches, employees and youth of youth care organisations.

Results – Findings of the questionnaires were that a significant relation between sport participation, physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence was absent. However, sport enjoyment was significantly related to six components of physical self-concept. Findings of the interviews indicate that that participation culture and enjoyment of sport were related to sport participation of youth at youth care organisations.

Conclusion – The findings of the questionnaires and interviews indicate that enjoyment of sport participation can be important in relation to youth development and sport participation.

Keywords: SOCIALLY VULNERALBE YOUTH, SPORT PARTICIPATION, SELF-CONCEPT, SELF-ESTEEM, SENSE OF COHERENCE

Table of contents

1. Introduction

1.1 Background

The sport setting is seen as an opportunity for youth to develop competences and to gain experiences like communicating and playing with other youngsters (Haudenhuyse, Theeboom, & Nols, 2013). It is proposed that these experiences and competences developed during sport, like improved endurance and physical coordinating skills, can be used by youth in other non-sport settings (at school or at home) (Gould & Carson, 2008). When these experiences and competences are used in non-sport settings, it is hypothesised they can contribute to positive youth development (Fraser-Thomas et al., 2005). Positive youth development can be for example enhancement of interests, skills and abilities (Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, & Hawkins, 1998). Positive youth development is believed to lead to healthier behaviour (like more frequently participation in social and sport activities and less risky behaviour) and positive health outcomes (Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2005; Holt, 2007). These proposed positive health outcomes can be for example improved mood and subjective sense of well-being. In figure 1, this proposed relationship between sport and positive health outcomes among youth is depicted schematically. This figure is created by the author of this thesis.
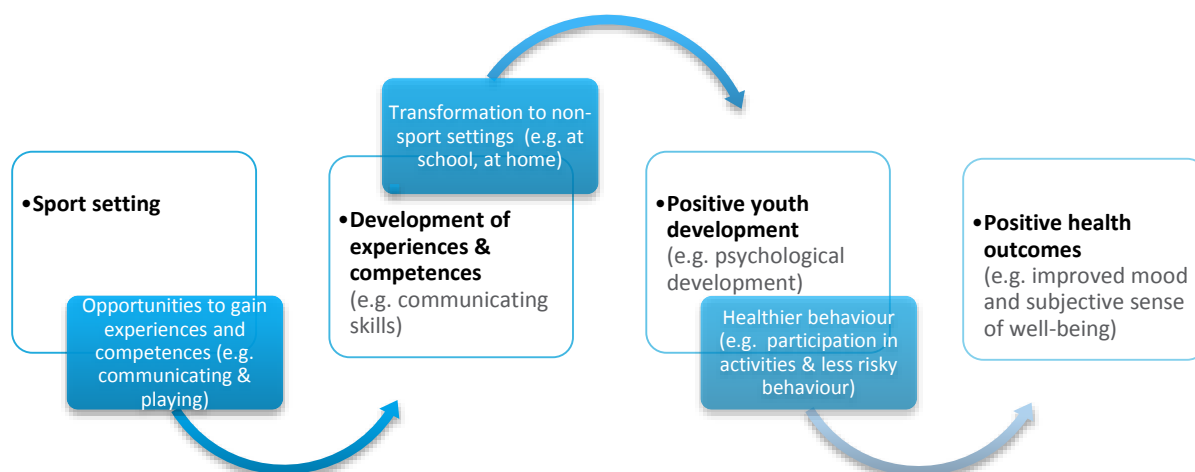
Figure 1
An overview of the proposed relationship between sport and positive health outcomes

Especially for socially vulnerable youth, the sport setting is believed to be an opportunity to develop competences and additional health benefits (Haudenhuyse et al., 2013; Theeboom, Knop, & Wylleman, 2008). Socially vulnerable youth is youth that is confronted with a variety of problems and is therefore in a vulnerable position (Walgrave, 1992). The sport setting is seen as a way to get socially vulnerable youth involved in activities in an organised context (Haudenhuyse, Theeboom, Nols, & Coussée, 2014). The sport setting can get socially vulnerable youth involved in activities because sport is an activity which can be entertaining. In addition, sport is highly accessible and it is possible for large numbers of youth to be involved. Since sport is highly accessible, it can provide a rich context for interventions to reach the 'harder-to-reach' youth (Feinstein, Bynner, & Duckworth, 2006; Spaaij, 2009).

In the literature, sport participation is associated with positive health outcomes (Bailey, 2006; Fraser-Thomas et al., 2005; Holt, 2007; Holt & Neely, 2011) but also with negative health outcomes (Maffulli, Longo, Gougoulias, Loppini, & Denaro, 2010). During sport, mishaps can occur, which can lead to negative physical health outcomes like pain and (prolonged) injuries (Maffulli et al., 2010). On the other hand, positive physical, social and psychological outcomes of sport participation are present in the literature.

Positive *physical* health-related outcomes are for example increased fitness (Tomporowski, Lambourne, & Okumura, 2011) and decreased risks of different diseases like cardiovascular disease and diabetes (Reiner, Niermann, Jekauc, & Woll, 2013). Sport participation is supposed to stimulate the social integration by providing a sense of belonging to a group, developing social networks, civic pride and community cohesion (Bailey, 2005), hence several *social* outcomes are present in the literature. Sport participation is also linked to positive *psychological* outcomes like improved self-concept (Findlay & Bowker, 2009; Slutzky & Simpkins, 2009) and self-esteem of youth (Ekeland, Heian, & Hagen, 2005; Findlay & Bowker, 2009; Slutzky & Simpkins, 2009; Sonstroem, 1997; Tremblay, Inman, & Willms, 2000). In sum, in the literature sport participation is associated with positive physical, social and psychological health outcomes.

1.2 Problem statement and goal

The problem is that knowledge about the relation between sport participation and psychological development lacks among socially vulnerable youth. The proposed aspects of psychological development of sport participation that are further investigated in this research among socially vulnerable youth are physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence. Randomised controlled trials found inconsistent outcomes in the relation between sport participation and global self-esteem (Ekeland et al., 2005), which indicate that additional research is needed. Remarkably, cross-sectional studies among youth indicate a positive relationship between sport participation, physical self-concept and global self-esteem (Klomsten, Skaalvik, & Espnes, 2004; Slutzky & Simpkins, 2009; Tremblay et al., 2000). Sense of coherence is supposed to be positively associated with sport participation, but this relationship requires further research as well (Honkinen, Suominen, Välimaa, Helenius, & Rautava, 2005; Sollerhed, Ejlertsson, & Apitzsch, 2005). Remarkably, often studies about sport and youth development are conducted among youngsters, but research with socially vulnerable youth lacks. This thesis aims to contribute to knowledge on the relation between sport participation, physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence of socially vulnerable youth.

The second problem addressed in this thesis is that little is known about factors that are related to sport participation of youth at youth care organisations. Research indicates that socially vulnerable youth can benefit from sport (Haudenhuyse et al., 2013; Theeboom et al., 2008). Because of the proposed positive health effects of sport on youth, sport becomes an important part of intervention programs targeting vulnerable youth. If youngsters refuse to participate in the sport program, the proposed health outcomes of sport participation will be unattainable. Therefore, this thesis aims to contribute to knowledge on what factors are related to sport participation of youth at youth care organisations.

1.3 Relevance

Youth care organisations provide crisis relief for socially vulnerable youth. The goal of youth care organisations is to get youth with developmental problems fully participating in society (Jeugdzorg Nederland, 2011). Since sport is assumed to contribute to positive youth development (Fraser-Thomas et al., 2005), which is supposed to lead to healthier behaviour and positive health outcomes in youth (Haudenhuyse et al., 2013), sport can help youth care organisations to achieve their goal. For youth care organisations, it is important to get empirical support for positive developmental effects of sport on socially vulnerable youth. Without this empirical support, it can be difficult to show the positive value of sport activities which can lead to a low priority for sport programs at youth care organisations. The societal relevance of this study is that knowledge on the relation between sport participation, positive youth development and health outcomes among socially vulnerable youth can help youth care organisations to attain funding for sport programs and thereby to conduct sport programs. Knowledge about what factors are related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth, can help to make sport programs for socially vulnerable youth succeed.

2. Theoretical framework

In this chapter, a theoretical framework is presented which forms the basis for the examination of the relation between sport participation, physical self-concept, global self-esteem, and sense of coherence of socially vulnerable youth. First, the positive youth development approach (Damon, 2004) is explained, which forms the theoretical basis of this thesis. Second, the relation between sport participation and physical self-concept is explained using a model of the structure of self-concept (Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976). Third, the relationship between sport participation and global self-esteem is examined using the self-perception model of Fox (1998). Next, the concept sense of coherence and its relation with sport participation are examined. Fifth, factors that are essential for positive youth development through sport and could contribute to sport participation are explained. Lastly, the selected concepts, the modified model and research questions are presented.

2.1 Positive youth development approach

Often, approaches in research fields about youth development are problem-centred, they are focused on deficits of youngsters and missed opportunities (Damon, 2004). For example research attention has been given to self-esteem deficits, learning-disabilities or damage that is caused by poverty or abuse (Damon, 2004). Within the problem-centred approach, the goal of professionals is seen as identifying the problem as early as possible and keeping the damage for youth limited (Redl & Wineman, 1951). This problem-centred approach can lead to an underestimation of the capacities of youth, because there is a focus on the deficits and not on the possibilities of youth.

Within the positive youth development approach, youth is seen as a resource for society and not as a problem. The focus is not on the considered incapacities of youth but on their capacities and developmental potentials (Damon, 2004). The positive youth development approach is considering youngsters as persons exploring the world, gaining competences and contributing to the world (Damon, 2004). The approach tries to understand, educate and engage youth in activities rather than to correct, cure or treat them for disabilities. The approach defines what is important to take into account when you want to measure the full potential of youth to learn things and to develop themselves, and to develop wellbeing (Damon, 2004). The positive youth development approach is used in this research because the investigation is focused on the developmental possibilities of youngsters due to sport participation and it is not focused on eliminating the negative effects as would be done taking a problem-centred approach.

2.2 Physical self-concept

The setting of sport is seen as a context in which socially vulnerable youth can gain experiences and develop competences which can be used in daily activities (Haudenhuyse et al., 2013). It is believed that the development of these competences through sport can lead to positive youth development (Fraser-Thomas et al., 2005) and positive health outcomes in youth (Gould & Carson, 2008; Holt, 2007). The experiences and competences obtained during sport like communicating and playing with other people, improved endurance and physical coordinating skills can influence the self-perception of socially vulnerable youth (Findlay & Bowker, 2009; Slutzky & Simpkins, 2009). If for example muscularity is increased or endurance is improved due to sport, this can have a positive effect on the self-perception of socially vulnerable youth. Self-perception is a broad term. This study will focus on the relation between sport and physical self-concept and global self-esteem.

In the literature**,** exercise is supposed to be positively associated with self-concept of youth (Findlay & Bowker, 2009; Slutzky & Simpkins, 2009). **Self-concept** is in the literature defined as "*an organised configuration of prescriptions of the self which are admissible to awareness*" (Rogers, 1950, p. 379). Hence the self-concept is the knowledge about yourself (how you tend to think about yourself, what you enjoy doing, what your temperament is like) and based on this knowledge you form an image of yourself. This image of yourself is formed through the individual experiences and this image is

influenced by evaluations by significant others (Zaharopoulos & Hodge, 1991). Individual experiences that can influence the image of oneself can be for example a good technical movement (like making a goal during football) and this experience can positively influence the self-image. Evaluations by significant others which can influence the image of yourself can be for example a positive comment from your teammate on your technique during the football match, which can positively influence the self-image.

Shavelson and colleagues (1976) developed a model which gives more insight into the structure of the self-concept. The model is shown in figure 2. According to Shavelson and colleagues, self-concept is multidimensional: people have a global self-concept, as well as different perceptions of themselves for different aspects of their lives (for example perceptions of their physical ability of physical appearance). It is proposed that the self-concept is organised hierarchically in terms of generality, which means that the global self-concept is formed by perceptions of the self in more specific situations (Shavelson et al., 1976). Hence the global self-concept is constructed of self-concepts which are developed in specific situations.

In their model, Shavelson and colleagues divide the general self-concept into the *academic* and *non-academic self-concept*. The academic self-concept is related to perceptions about the verbal abilities, the ability to remember and understand information about history, the ability to make calculations and problem solving and creative skills (Shavelson et al., 1976). The *non-academic self-concept* has to do with perceptions of social relations, emotional stability and physical appearance. The non-academic self-concept is divided into the social, emotional, and physical self-concept. The *social self-concept* can be influenced by the social identity, relations with peers and with parents. Within the model, the social self-concept is further divided into peers and significant others (Shavelson et al., 1976). So peers and significant others like parents, colleagues, brothers and sisters can influence the social self-concept via social relations. The *emotional self-concept* has to do with emotional stability. Within the model, the emotional self-concept is further divided into particular emotional states. The emotional self is about perceptions of experiences with particular events which can create emotional situations, like arguing with a friend, crying on a funeral or being happy with the birth of a child. The *physical self-concept* is about perceptions of the body. Within the model, the physical self-concept is further subdivided into self-perceptions of physical ability and physical appearance (Shavelson et al., 1976), hence it has to do with perceptions of the physical skills and the appearance of the body.
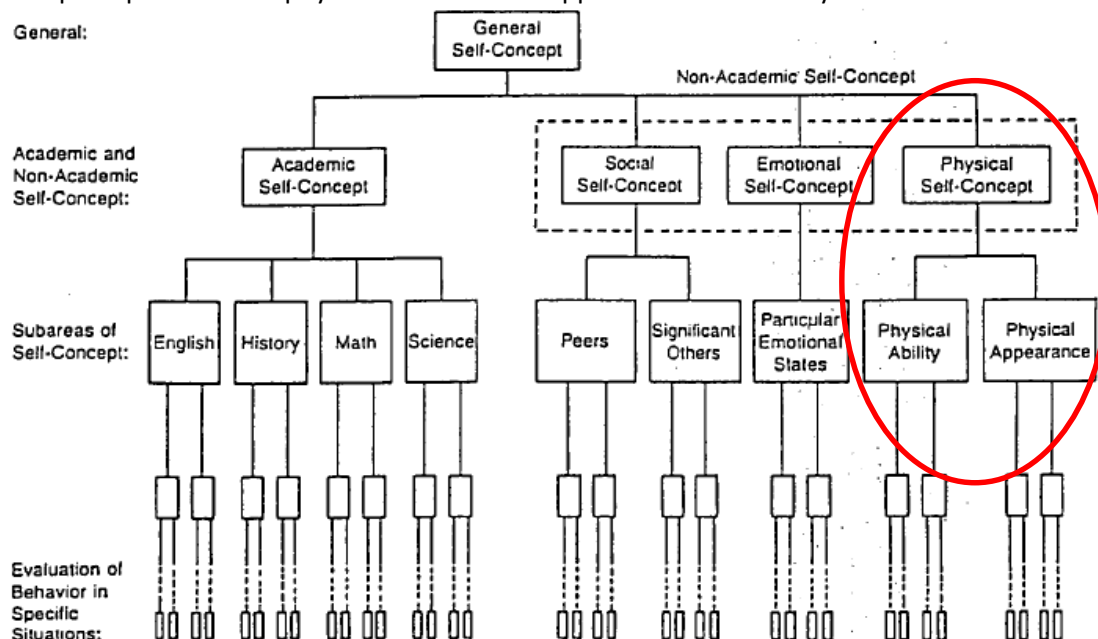

Figure 2
A model of the structure of self-concept (Shavelson et al., 1976)

Sport can lead to an improved physical appearance when somebody is feeling fit and the body is strengthened. Sport can also lead to a better physical ability, by improving the fitness of the person and by improving the sport skills (Shavelson et al., 1976). Since the physical self-concept is close related to sport situations and therefore most likely to be influenced by sport compared to the other self-concept components and global self-concept (Jackson & Marsh, 1986), the other self-concept components are not taken into account during this research.

In the literature, sport participation is supposed to be positively associated with physical self-concept of youth (Dishman et al., 2006; Klomsten et al., 2004; Slutzky & Simpkins, 2009). Klomsten and colleagues found a positive association between sport participation, physical appearance and physical self-concept in youth (Klomsten et al., 2004). Another descriptive study of Slytzky and Simpkins found that children who spend more time in sport reported a higher sport self-concept (Slutzky & Simpkins, 2009). Research with vulnerable girls (with depression symptoms) showed that sport participation was positively associated with physical self-concept and negatively associated with depression symptoms (Dishman et al., 2006). According to these studies, it seems that sport participation is positively associated with physical self-concept of youth. However, this thesis will further examine this relationship among socially vulnerable youth.

2.3 Global self-esteem

Self-esteem is in the literature defined as "*a judgment made by one-self as to how well one is doing*" (Findlay & Bowker, 2009, pp. 30-31), it is your general attitude towards yourself. Hence self-esteem can be seen as a collection of beliefs about yourself. The difference between the self-concept and self-esteem is the involvement of feelings (McAuley, Blissmer, Katula, Duncan, & Mihalko, 2000). Self-concept is the informal side, with information about yourself. Self-esteem is how you feel about the things you know about yourself (involvement of feelings), whether you enjoy sporting even though you missed the ball once (high self-esteem) or you think your team mates are not happy with you because you missed the ball once (low self-esteem). In addition, self-esteem always involves a degree of evaluation, whether we like, accept, or approve of ourselves or not (Sonstroem & Morgan, 1989).

Fox (1998) developed a model which gives more insight into the relation between sport participation and self-esteem. The model is shown in figure 3. The model of Fox (1998) proposes that self-esteem is organised hierarchically in terms of generality, which means that the global self-esteem is influenced by the physical self-worth, which is developed during more specific situations. Self-esteem is more about how you feel about yourself in general (McAuley et al., 2000), while *physical self-worth* is about the value you place on yourself, on your body and physical skills (Pelham & Swann, 1989). According to the model, situation-specific experiences like making a goal during handball are supposed to influence sport experiences of higher levels (like throwing ability, handball competence and sport competence), which are supposed to influence the physical self-worth ('I positively value my throwing skills and sport competences') and self-esteem ('I think I am good at sport'). Next to sport experiences, physical characteristics (like fat hips) are also supposed to influence characteristics of higher levels (fat percentage, attractiveness) and to influence the physical self-worth ('I positively value my appearance') and self-esteem ('I think I am attractive').
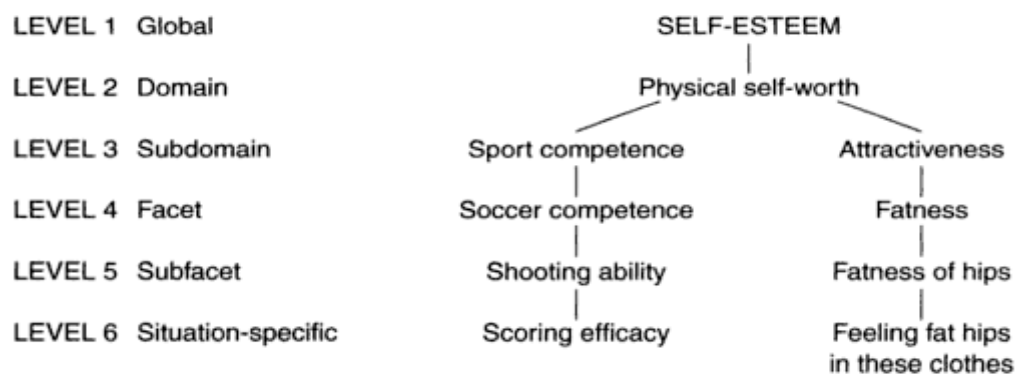
Figure 3
Self-perception constructs measurable at different levels of specificity (Fox, 1998)

Gould and Carson proposed that experiences and competences developed during a sport setting, can be transferred to non-sport settings (Gould & Carson, 2008). For example the competence to communicate effectively with peers, developed during sport, can be transferred to a non-sport setting (like school). In this current study, it is supposed that the experiences and situation-specific self-esteem developed during sport can be transferred to other (non-sport) situations, and therefore can influence the global self-esteem. This can be illustrated by the following example: when a football player scores, this can positively influence his self-esteem (it can give the player a feeling that he is able to master and control himself during sport). His friends may be proud of him due to the good game, and this can influence the self-esteem of the football player in other settings, if at another setting the football player remembers that his friends are proud of him.

In the literature**,** sport participation is positively associated with global self-esteem of youth (Ekeland et al., 2005; Findlay & Bowker, 2009; Slutzky & Simpkins, 2009; Sonstroem, 1997; Tremblay et al., 2000). Ekeland and colleagues analysed 23 randomised controlled trials and found inconsistent results (some randomised controlled trials found a significant relation and other not) (Ekeland et al., 2005). Some of the trials were small (only 30 participants in total) and of low quality (not randomly selected, no follow up). However, descriptive studies among youth (which are less powerful than randomised controlled trials) indicate that physical activity was positively associated with global self-esteem (Findlay & Bowker, 2009; Klomsten et al., 2004; Slutzky & Simpkins, 2009; Tremblay et al., 2000). Hence, the literature indicates that global self-esteem might be positively related with sport participation of youth (Klomsten et al., 2004; Slutzky & Simpkins, 2009; Tremblay et al., 2000). This study aims to further investigate the relationship between sport participation and global self-esteem among socially vulnerable youth. Based on the model of Fox (1998) and the theory of Gould and Carson (2008), it is conceived that sport participation is positively related to global self-esteem of socially vulnerable youth.

2.4 Sense of coherence

The term salutogenesis, which is introduced by Antonovsky (1979), is in line with the positive youth development approach. Both approaches emphasise the importance of factors that support health. Within salutogenesis, these factors are also called *assets* or *resources*. The sense of coherence is the ability of individuals to cope with stressors (Antonovsky, 1987). The concept of sense of coherence is divided into three components: comprehensibility, manageability, and meaningfulness (Antonovsky, 1987). Comprehensibility refers to the perception of the world as structured, predictable, understandable, orderly and consistent. Manageability is about the recognition that resources are available to meet the demands (to deal with stressors of everyday life). Meaningfulness is about the feeling that the challenges in life are worthy of investment and engagement (Antonovsky, 1987). It is supposed that the sense of coherence is developed during childhood and early adulthood, that it is

stabilised by the end of early adulthood and onwards, and will not fluctuate significantly after adulthood (Antonovsky & Sagy, 1986).

According to Antonovsky, the level of sense of coherence of somebody can influence how people deal with stressors and whether this could be beneficial for health or not. People with a low sense of coherence who face stressors are supposed to be poorly able to deal with stress and therefore to have a higher chance to experience tension and to get sick while people with a high sense of coherence are supposed to be better able to deal with stressors and to have a higher chance to stay healthy (Antonovsky, 1987). Antonovsky explains this difference by the idea that people with a high sense of coherence are better able to make use of their resources, to promote effective coping and decrease tension in a healing way (Antonovsky, 1987). In the literature, a strong sense of coherence is associated with improved health and adaptive coping strategies for diseases (Eriksson & Lindström, 2007), which fits the theory of Antonovsky (1987). The concept of sense of coherence fits well in this thesis because the sense of coherence is supposed to be important in coping with stressors, and stressors can also be faced during sport. Stressors that can be faced during sport can be for example showing your body during a match, which can cause tension, but stressors can also be winning a match. Due to a supportive trainer during sport, youth can learn to be better able to deal with stressors. In addition, during sport youngsters might develop competences and gain experiences (Haudenhuyse et al., 2013), which could also help youngsters to deal with stressors. If youth learn to deal with stressors during sport, it is assumed in this study that this experience can help youth to deal with stressors in non-sport settings.

Unfortunately, little is known about the role of the sense of coherence in relation to sport participation, physical self-concept and global self-esteem of youth. In the literature, sport participation seems to be associated with a high sense of coherence of youth (Honkinen et al., 2005; Sollerhed et al., 2005). However, research among socially vulnerable youth lacks. This study aims to contribute on this knowledge gap.

2.5 Factors that are related to sport participation

Socially vulnerable youngsters in the Netherlands participate less in sport compared to peers (Boonstra, Gilsing, Hermens, & van Marissing, 2010). It seems that it is difficult to get vulnerable youth participating in sport. Therefore, it is important to investigate factors that are related to sport participation among socially vulnerable youth. In this thesis, sport participation is defined as being involved and taking part in sport activities at moderate intensity for 30 minutes or more (Breuer et al., 2011).

Perkins and Noam (2007) analysed features of sport-based youth development programs and identified 13 supposed essential features for positive youth development through sport programs. These 13 supposed essential features for positive youth development could also contribute to sport participation of youth. This thesis will investigate what factors are related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth, based on the theory of Perkins and Noam. The theory of Perkins and Noam gives more insight in what factors might be related to sport participation and since it are essential features for positive youth development, the theory is in line with the positive youth development approach. The 13 essential sport program features for positive youth development through sport programs identified by Perkins and Noam are shown in box 1.

Box 1: The 13 essential features for positive youth development (Perkins & Noam, 2007)
1. Physical and psychological safety
2. Appropriate structure
3. Supportive relationships
4. Opportunities to belong
5. Positive social norms
6. Support for efficacy and mattering
7. Opportunities for skill building
8. Opportunities to foster cultural competence
9. Active learning
10. Opportunities for recognition
11. Strength-based focus
12. Ecological and holistic programs
13. Integration of family, school and community efforts (Perkins & Noam, 2007)

The first feature, *physical and psychological safety,* includes a physical and emotional safe environment during the sport program. A safe physical environment is clean and free of safety hazards. A safe emotional environment includes a predominantly positive climate with positive behaviours that is supportive, respectful and relaxed. During sport, for example safe equipment and a supportive coach can contribute to physical and psychological safety. The second feature, *appropriate structure*, refers to clear communication of the sport coach during the sport program and enough time for the youngsters to practice and learn the skills. If an appropriate structure is applied, the rules are clearly explained and all stakeholders (coaches, parents, youth) are involved in creating rules, expectations and responsibilities. Next, *supportive relationships* are mentioned which refers to caring adults involved in the sport program. During sport, adults (like coaches or parents) can be involved by creating trusted connections and focussing on positive relationships (by giving compliments on technique of the player) and de-emphasising the importance of winning. The fourth feature, *opportunities to belong*, points to a positive group experience and friendships which can be fostered during sport. According to Perkins and Noam, youth identify themselves with the sport program and their peers. If youth can identify themselves with the sport program and their peers (for example if they win and they are all a part of the winning team), this is supposed to lead to a positive group experience and to create opportunities to belong. The fifth feature, *positive social norms*, refers to a positive culture which is supposed to reduce social alienation and to improve integration. A positive social culture during sport is supposed to contribute to an improvement of social skills and to provide a peer group culture that is supposed to assist youth in constructing their values and identities. The sixth feature, *support for efficacy and mattering*, emphasises the importance of self-improvement (like improvement in athletic skills) rather than social comparison to peers. For a sport program, this can mean a focus on the technique of youth which can improve the abilities of the team and not a focus on comparison of the skills of a youngster to skills of other players. Mattering is the idea that youth have the feeling they have the opportunity to become useful and to make a difference. For example, if a youngster receives a compliment on his technique and this can result in a feeling of the youngster that he contributes to the quality of the team. The seventh feature, *opportunities for skill building,* refers to the ability to develop sport-related skills and life skills during sport. Life skills can be for example leadership skills, communication skills, decision-making skills and problem-solving skills, which can be used in non-sport settings. During sport, youth can be encouraged by a coach to develop new sport-related and life skills. The eight feature, *opportunities to foster cultural competence*, emphasises that during sport, youth can experience to work with peers who are different compared to themselves. By sporting with those peers, the youngsters can learn to accept cultural differences and to have respect for these cultural differences. The ninth feature, *active learning*, refers to the learning opportunities which are provided during a sport program. During sport, youth can be stimulated to take risks (like doing a handspring). So during sport, youth can learn to take risks but they can also learn how to fail courageously (with a

supportive environment), which both create opportunities to learn. In addition, the coach can stimulate reflection which can contribute to the learning process. The tenth feature, *opportunities for recognition*, refers to contributions which youth can make (like effort and improvement) to a sport and a team during sport, and these contributions can be recognised by others and are supposed to convey a positive view of youth. The eleventh feature, *strength-based focus,* refers to assets and strengths which can be developed during sport and are supposed to result in new skills. For example, leadership skills can be trained during sport and further developed during sport and non-sport settings. A sport program focused on developing strengths is assumed to improve the ability of youth to deal with ongoing demands of life. The twelfth feature, *ecological and holistic programs,* emphasises the importance of a holistic approach, taking multiple aspects into account. For example, if a runner wants to improve his running time with a second, instead of focussing all effort on the running technique, the coach can also suggest a psychological approach (maybe the runner gets distracted during the race). The last feature, *integration of family, school and community efforts* emphasises the importance of similar norms and expectations and consistency across different settings (home, school, sport club). Perkins and Noam emphasise the importance of consistent messages for youth. By integrating parents within the climate of the school (for example by voluntary service of the parent), the likelihood that messages from the school and parents are consistent is supposed to increase. Integration of sport coaches with schools can lead to integrated rules (for example integrated rules for absence) (Perkins & Noam, 2007).

In the literature, factors that are related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth are found. Importance of the coach, positive guidance and a supportive setting were emphasised (Haudenhuyse et al., 2013; Theeboom et al., 2008), which overlap with the theory of Perkins and Noam (2007). Factors that are related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth are further investigated in this thesis. With this analysis, youth care organisations are helped to get insight in why youth do or do not participate in the sport program and what factors can help to get youth involved in sport programs.

2.6 Selected concepts and modified model

The aim of this study is to investigate the relation between sport participation, physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence of socially vulnerable youth and to contribute on knowledge of what factors are related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth. In figure 4, the relation between sport participation, physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence is shown in a modified model. This modified model is based on the model of the structure of self-concept from Shavelson and colleagues (1976) (see figure 2) and on self-perception model of Fox (1998) (see figure 3). This modified model is meant as a visual presentation of the relation between sport participation, physical self-concept, global self-esteem and the sense of coherence.

As can be seen in the model, in this current study it is proposed that sport participation is positively related to physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence. It is proposed that sport participation influences the physical self-concept via the physical ability and physical appearance, like the model of Shavelson and colleagues (1976) depicted. For example, sport participation can lead to increased fitness and a more muscular body, which can affect the physical self-concept positively. Sport participation is supposed to influence the global self-esteem by influencing first the 'situation-specific' self-esteem during a sport situation (like making the winning goal, which can result in respect from your team mates and increased self-esteem). This situation-specific self-esteem which is developed during sport can be transferred to non-sport situations and is assumed to influence the global self-esteem (when you remember this respect of your team mates in another non-sport setting like during school and this can make you feel more confident). Finally, it is proposed that sport participation is related to sense of coherence. People with a high sense of coherence are supposed to be better able to deal with stressors and to have a higher chance to stay healthy (Antonovsky, 1987). During sport, youth can face stressors (like winning or losing a match). It is assumed that dealing with

stressors during sport (with support of an appropriate coach) can help the socially vulnerable youth to deal with stressors in daily life.

Figure 4
A model of the proposed relationship between sport participation, physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence

2.7 Research questions and hypotheses

The aim of this thesis is to contribute on knowledge about the relation between sport participation, physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence of socially vulnerable youth and to contribute on knowledge about what factors are related to sport participation of youth at youth care organisations. The central research question is: *What is the relation between sport participation, physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence of socially vulnerable youth and what factors are related to sport participation of youth at youth care organisations?*

To answer this research question, the following sub questions are formulated:

1) What is the relation between sport participation and the physical self-concept of socially vulnerable youth of 12 till 18 years?
2) What is the relation between sport participation and the global self-esteem of socially vulnerable youth of 12 till 18 years?
3) What is the relation between sport participation and the sense of coherence of socially vulnerable youth of 12 till 18 years?
4) What factors are related to sport participation among youth at youth care organisations of 12 till 18 years?

The first three sub questions are answered by conducting quantitative research (questionnaires). The following hypotheses are tested to answer these sub questions:

a. Sport participation is positively associated with global physical self-concept (and the different components of physical self-concept: health, coordination, physical activity, body fat, sport ability, physical appearance, strength, flexibility, endurance)
b. Sport participation is positively associated with global self-esteem
c. Sport participation is positively associated with sense of coherence

The fourth sub question is answered by qualitative research (in-depth interviews).

The core concepts are operationalised in box 2.

Box 2: Core concepts

- *Sport participation:*   Being involved and taking part in sport activities at moderate
intensity for 30 minutes or more (Breuer, Hallmann, & Wicker, 2011)

- *Physical self-concept:*   "*An organised configuration of prescriptions of the (physical) self
which are admissible to awareness*" (Rogers, 1950, p. 379)

- *Global self-esteem:*   The general attitude towards yourself (Findlay & Bowker, 2009)

- *Sense of coherence:*   The ability of individuals to cope with stressors (Antonovsky, 1987)

- *Socially vulnerable youth:*   Youth that is confronted with a variety of problems and is
therefore in a vulnerable position (Walgrave, 1992)

3. Methods

Both quantitative and qualitative research methods were used to answer the research questions. The relation between sport participation, physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence of socially vulnerable youth was examined by questionnaires. The analysis of factors that were related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth was performed via in-depth interviews. These two methods are further explained below.

3.1 Questionnaires

Participants and procedure

From January till May 2015, data was collected via questionnaires. The target group consisted of socially vulnerable youth aged 12 till 18. To recruit participants, 18 Dutch youth care organisations were approached. It was difficult to find youth care organisations that were willing to participate. Of the 18 approached Dutch youth care organisations, two were selected to participate based on willingness to participate, characteristics which had to be the same (like age of youth, duration of stay, kind of organisation) and characteristics which should not be the same (provision of sport lessons). This is a convenience sampling strategy: selection was based on accessibility and appropriateness. Table 1 gives an overview of the two selected youth care organisations and their characteristics. All characteristics of youth care organisation A and B were the same, except for the provision of sport lessons. Youth care organisation A provided sport lessons and youth care organisation B did not.

Table 1
An overview of the cooperating youth care organisations

Youth care organisation	A	B
Age of youth	12 – 18 years	12 – 18 years
Group composition	Boys and girls	Boys and girls
Duration of stay (on average)	4 till 8 weeks	4 till 8 weeks
Kind of organisation	Crisis care without treatment	Crisis care without treatment
Provision of sport lessons	Yes	No

The original aim of the questionnaires was to measure the effect of sport participation on physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence. Therefore, participants were asked to fill in the questionnaire twice: when they arrived at the youth care organisation and when they left. Youngsters that received no sport lessons were expected to show no difference between the first and second measurement in physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence. Unfortunately, not as many participants as expected filled in the questionnaire twice. Therefore the decision was made to change the effect study into a correlation analysis. The questionnaire of youth care organisation A was filled in by 7 youngsters and the questionnaire of youth care organisation B by 12 youngsters. The sample consisted of 9 males and 10 females. The mean age of the participants was 15 years.

Personal development of youth in these two youth care organisations was measured and analysed. The questionnaire was filled in online, by the online software Qualtrics. The questionnaire was tested by five people of the age of 12 and 18 years, to check whether the total questionnaire was comprehensive and understandable. Because most of the youth was under the age of 18, the youngsters and their parents/caregiver were first asked to sign a permission statement. This permission statement had to be signed on paper. The permission statement can be found in appendix II. If the parent/caregiver only could be reached by telephone (due to circumstances), the parent/caregiver could give permission via telephone and the employees of the youth care organisations made a remark of this and signed that the parent/caregiver gave permission via telephone.

Measurement concepts

Background variables
The questionnaire started with some general questions and questions about the sport experience. Questions about age, gender and educational level were included. Educational level was measured by asking the participants what the level was of their current education program (1 = lowest educational level, 4 = highest educational level). Questions about the sport experience assessed which kind of sport the youngsters did in the past (this was an open question), if they liked to participate in sport or not (1 = totally not enjoying, 5 = lot of fun), whether they did sport at that moment (yes or no) and how many times per week they sported on average (1 = 0 times, 5 = 4 times or more). The questionnaire can be found in appendix I.

Sense of coherence
The sense of coherence was measured using the Dutch sense of coherence questionnaire (Jellesma, Meerum Terwogt, & Rieffe, 2006). This is a Dutch scale especially developed for children. It is a short version, but still consists of 13 questions about manageability (4 items), meaningfulness (4 items) and comprehensibility (5 items). From these 13 questions, 11 items could be filled in by the participants on a five point Likert scale (1 = never, 5= always), and 2 items could be filled in on another scale (1 = very bad, 5 = very good). Meaningfulness was for example measured by the question: '*How many times do you have the feeling that you do not care about what is going on around you?'.* Comprehensibility was among others measured by the question: '*How many times do you have the feeling that you are in an unfamiliar situation and do not know what to do?'.* Manageability was among others measured by the question: '*How many times do you have feelings of which you are not sure if you can keep them under control?*'. The 11 items that could be filled in by the participants on a five point Likert scale (1 = never, 5= always) were reversed coded. A reliability test was conducted (α = .90) and mean score for sense of coherence was calculated. A higher score for sense of coherence meant a better coping ability.

Physical self-concept and nine specific components of the physical self-concept
The physical self-concept and its subcomponents were measured using the Physical Self Description Questionnaire (PSDQ) Short Form of Marsh and colleagues (2010). The items of the questionnaire are translated by the author of this thesis. The questionnaire consisted of 40 statements, including statements about the global physical self-concept (3 items) and nine specific components of the physical self-concept: health (5 items), coordination (5 items), physical activity (3 items), body fat (3 items), sport ability (3 items), physical appearance (3 items), strength (3 items), flexibility (3 items) and endurance (3 items). The items could be filled in by the participants on a five point Likert scale (1 = not true, 5 = very true). The global physical self-concept was for example measured by the statement: '*I feel good about who I am physically*'. The physical self-concept of health included statements as: '*I am sick so often that I cannot do all the things I want to do*' and '*When I get sick, it takes me a long time to get better*'. The physical self-concept of coordination is among others measured by the statement: '*Controlling movements of my body comes easily to me*'. Physical self-concept of physical activity

included statements as '*I often do exercise or activities that make me breathe hard*'. Physical self-concept of body fat included statements as '*I have too much fat on my body*' and physical self-concept of sport ability included statements as '*I have good sport skills*'. Physical self-concept of physical appearance is among others measured by the statement '*I am good looking'* and physical self-concept of strength is among others measured by the statement '*I am a physically strong person'.* The component flexibility of physical self-concept is measured by statements as '*I think I would perform well on a test measuring flexibility'* and the component endurance of physical self-concept is measured by statements as '*I can run a long way without stopping*'. The items of body fat (3) and health (5) were reversed coded. The PSDQ Short Form is suitable for children from at least the age of 12, which is in line with the target group. A reliability test was conducted for global physical self-concept (α = .92) and the components of physical self-concept (health (α = .59), coordination (α = .88), physical activity (α = .69), body fat (α = .88), sport ability (α = .96), physical appearance (α = .82), strength (α = .92), flexibility (α = .91), endurance (α = .95)). For the variable health, removal of questions did not lead to a higher value for Cronbach's Alpha. Mean scores were calculated for global physical self-concept and the components of physical self-concept (health, coordination, physical activity, body fat, sport ability, physical appearance, strength, flexibility and endurance). A higher score for the concepts meant a better physical self-concept.

Global self-esteem

Another aspect which was measured by the PSDQ Short Form is global self-esteem. From the total 40 statements, 5 were about global self-esteem. The items could be filled in by the participants on a five point Likert scale (1 = not true, 5 = very true). The global self-esteem was measured with statements as '*Overall, most things I do turn out well'* and '*Overall, I have a lot to be proud of*'. From the 5 statements about global self-esteem, 2 were reversed coded. A reliability test was conducted (α = .78) and mean score for global self-esteem was calculated. A higher score for global self-esteem meant a stronger feeling of confidence.

Analysis

The results of the survey were analysed with IBM SPSS Statistics. First, descriptive statistics were given for the variables. Percentages were given for gender, sport history, sport participation and enjoyment of sport participation. Means and standard deviations were given for all variables. All variables were checked for normality and the variables sense of coherence, global physical self-concept, physical appearance, physical activity, coordination, endurance, health, sport ability and strength were normally distributed. To investigate the relation between sport participation, sense of coherence, physical self-concept and global self-esteem, a Bivariate Correlation test (Spearman) was conducted. With this test, correlation between the variables could be tested.

3.2 In-depth interviews

Participants and procedure

To analyse factors that were related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth in youth care organisations, 12 in-depth interviews were conducted. The factors related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth were investigated via interviews because profound data could gain more insight into the factors that are related to sport participation. A condition for the participants was that they were involved in a sport program that was implemented for socially vulnerable youth. Participants were recruited through the 18 Dutch youth care organisations that were approximated for the questionnaires. Of these 18 Dutch youth care organisations, two were selected to participate because they were willing to participate and there were differences in participation of youth in the sport program (whether they experienced problems with sport participation or not). A convenience sampling strategy was used: selection was based on accessibility and appropriateness. To provide a rich picture of factors related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth and to compare different perspectives, sport coaches, employees and socially vulnerable youth of both youth care organisations were interviewed. An overview of the cooperating youth care organisations and their characteristics can be found in table 2. Youth care organisation A also participated in the questionnaires.

In total, 4 employees, 4 sport coaches and 4 youngsters were interviewed. The age of the respondents ranged from 16 till 42 years. Of the 12 respondents, 5 were female. All employees and sport coaches were higher educated and the socially vulnerable youth were average educated. The interviews were conducted face to face at the youth care organisation of the participant, to increase comfort and ease of the participant. An interview took an average half an hour. Interviews were conducted until data saturation occurred for all three kind of participants (youngsters, employees and sport coaches). The interviews were recorded and the data was processed confidently. Recording of the interview was only done with permission of the interviewee.

Table 2
An overview of the cooperating youth care organisations

Youth care organisation	A	C
Age of youth	12 – 18 years	12 – 18 years
Group composition	Boys and girls	Boys and girls
Duration of stay (on average)	4 till 8 weeks	12 months
Kind of organisation	Crisis care without treatment	Care with treatment
Provision of sport lessons	Yes	Yes
Participation of youth	Problems with participation	No problems with participation

To give structure to the interviews, an interview guide was developed. This interview guide was partly based on the 13 essential features for positive youth development through sport (Perkins & Noam, 2007). The interview guide can be found in appendix III. The in-depth interviews started with an *'informed consent'*: the participant received information about the procedure. Participants received some general information about the research. In addition, participants were told that their answers would be processed confidently and permission for recording was asked. If the participant agreed on the procedure, the interview started. The interview questions were divided into different 'blocks' with specific questions for youngsters or employees and sport coaches. Youth were asked different questions than sport coaches and employees of youth care organisations. The different blocks contained general questions, questions about characteristics of the sport program, the content of the sport program, relationships between youngsters, relationship with the sport coach, skills of the sport coach and sport participation of the youngsters.

General questions
The first block of interview questions started with some general questions, to obtain some background information about the participant. Youngsters, sport coaches and employees of youth care organisations were asked general questions like *'Please introduce yourself?'*, *'What are you doing in daily life?'*, *'In what way are you involved in the sport program?'*. Sport coaches and employees of youth care organisations were asked specific questions about their background: *'In what way are you involved in the sport program?'* and *'What is your study background?'*. Youngsters were asked specific questions about education and sport. Questions like: *'Which study do you follow?'* and *'What sports do you play?'* were asked.

Questions about the sport program
The second block included questions about the sport program. These questions were based on the theory of Perkins and Noam. Sport coaches and employees of youth care organisations were asked questions about characteristics of the sport program, the structure of the sport program, the content of the sport program and behaviour of the coach. Questions like *'Could you describe the structure of the sport program?'*, *'What is the goal of the sport program?'*, *'Is winning, pleasure or development of youth emphasised during the sport program?'* and *'Could you describe the coaching style of the sport coach?'* were asked. Youngsters were asked questions about sport participation, structure of the sport program, relationships between youngsters, relationship with the sport coach and skills of the sport coach. Questions like *'How many times did you participate in the sport program? Why?'*, *'What advice would you give to the sport coach about the structure of the sport program?'*, *'Could you describe your relationship with the other youngsters during the sport program?'*, *'In what way does the sport coach react on unkind behaviour of youngsters to the sport coach?'* and *'What is your opinion about the skills of the sport coach?'* were asked.

Questions about sport participation
The last block contained questions about sport participation of vulnerable youth. Employees and sport coaches were asked questions like: *'What is your experience with participation of socially vulnerable youth in a sport program?'* and *'What advice would you give to other youth care organisations that are willing to set up a sport program?'*. Youngsters were asked questions about their own motivation to participate or to refuse participation in a sport program. Questions like *'Imagine, you are not in the mood for a sport lesson. What could persuade you to participate in the sport program?'* and *'Would you recommend other youngsters to participate in the sport program? Why (not)?'* were asked.

After these questions, the participants were asked whether they had questions for the interviewer and whether they wanted to receive the report of the research. The participants were thanked for their time and received a small present.

Analysis

The interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim style. The interviews were analysed using a top-down thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The aim of top-down thematic analysis is to recognise patterns in the data about factors that are related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth.

The next steps were taken to analyse the data according to the top-down thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006):

Step 1: Reading and re-reading of the data
Getting familiarised with the data and taking notes for coding. Each data item was given equal attention.
Step 2: Generation of codes
Data segments were coded. The codes identified the most basic segment or element of the data. Coding occurred top-down and theory-driven: first there was assessed which data segments fitted the 13 essential features of Perkins and Noam (2007). For the data segments left, new codes were generated.
Step 3: Reviewing the codes
Involved re-reading and refinement of the codes. The new codes that were generated were divided into clusters.
Step 4: Producing the report
Producing the report involves integration of the analytic narrative and data extracts, to conduct a coherent and persuasive story about the data.

Coding was done using the program MAXQDA, software for qualitative and mixed methods data analysis. After coding, factors of youth care organisation A (that experienced difficulties with sport participation) were compared to factors of youth care organisation C (that did not experience difficulties with sport participation). In addition, whether the perspectives of the participants differed was analysed, if for example participants with a sport related background have another vision about factors that influence the likelihood that socially vulnerable youth participate in a sport program than people with a background in youth care organisations.

4. Results

In this chapter the results of the questionnaires and interviews are described. First the quantitative results of the questionnaires are described, followed by the qualitative results of the in-depth interviews.

4.1 Questionnaires

4.1.1 Descriptive analysis

The aim of the questionnaires was to investigate the relation between sport participation, physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence of socially vulnerable youth. In table 3, descriptive statistics of the participants are shown. As can be seen in the table, respondents practiced different kinds of sport and about half of the respondents sported less than once a week.

Table 3
Descriptive statistics of the variables used in this thesis

Variables	Percentage or mean (M) and standard deviation (SD)
Gender	
Boys	47.7 %
Girls	52.6 %
Age	M = 15.42 (SD = 1.39)
Educational level[a]	M = 2.00 (SD = 0.00)
Enjoyment of sport participation[b]	M = 4.00 (SD = 1.11)
Totally not enjoying	0 %
Not enjoying	10.5 %
Neutral	26.3 %
Bit of fun	15.8 %
Lot of fun	47.4 %
Sport practiced in past	
Boxing	15.8 %
Football	21.1 %
Swimming	15.8 %
Other	47.3 %
Sport participation frequency[c]	M = 2.00 (SD = 1.20)
0 times per week	47.4 %
1 times per week	21.1 %
2 times per week	21.1 %
3 times per week	5.3 %
4 times per week or more	5.3 %
SOC	M = 2.93 (SD = .70)
Global self-esteem	M = 3.46 (SD = 1.20)
Physical self-concept	M = 3.72 (SD = .84)
Health	M = 4.18 (SD = .57)
Coordination	M = 3.99 (SD = .75)
Physical activity	M = 2.84 (SD = 1.10)
Body fat	M = 3.56 (SD = 1.35)
Sport ability	M = 3.54 (SD = 1.13)
Physical appearance	M = 3.49 (SD = 1.04)
Strength	M = 3.75 (SD = .87)
Flexibility	M = 3.65 (SD = .93)
Endurance	M = 3.00 (SD = 1.28)

[a] Lowest educational level = 1, highest educational level = 4
[b] Lowest enjoyment = 1, highest enjoyment = 5
[c] Zero times per week = 1, four times per week or more = 5

4.1.2 Correlation analysis

It was hypothesised that sport participation was positively related to physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence. Table 4 presents the Spearman correlation coefficients and Cronbach's Alpha for the investigated variables. Although not expected, sport participation was not significantly correlated with sense of coherence, global self-esteem and global physical self-concept. Remarkably, sport participation was significantly positively correlated with two out of nine components of the physical self-concept: the physical self-concept of physical activity ($r = .47$, $p < .05$) and sport ability ($r = .53$, $p < .05$). This means that participants that sported more times per week had higher scores for physical self-concept of physical activity (assessed themselves as being often physically active) and for physical self-concept of sport ability (assessed themselves as being good at most sports).

Other interesting findings were that enjoyment of sport participation was significantly positively correlated with six aspects of physical self-concept, namely coordination ($r = .51$, $p < .05$), physical activity ($r = .75$, $p < .01$), sport ability ($r = .70$ $p < .01$), strength ($r = .53$, $p < .05$), flexibility ($r = .57$, $p < .05$) and endurance ($r = .72$, $p < .01$). This means that participants that enjoyed sport participation had higher scores for physical self-concept of coordination (assessed their sport-related coordination skills as good), physical self-concept of physical activity (assessed themselves as being often physically active), physical self-concept of sport ability (assessed themselves as being good at most sports), physical self-concept of strength (assessed themselves as a strong person), physical self-concept of flexibility (assessed their body as flexible) and physical self-concept of endurance (assessed themselves as being good in endurance activities).

Sense of coherence was significantly positively correlated with global self-esteem ($r = .72$, $p < .01$) and global physical self-concept ($r = .74$, $p < .01$), which means that participants with a stronger coping ability were more confident and happier with their physical self. Age was significantly positively correlated with global physical self-concept ($r = .61$, $p < .01$) and self-concept of body fat ($r = .56$, $p < .05$), which means that youngsters that were older were happier with their physical self and assessed their body as less overweight and fat compared to younger respondents. Lastly, gender was negatively correlated with global physical self-concept ($r = -.60$, $p < .05$) and physical self-concept of body fat ($r = -.61$, $P < .01$). With global physical self-concept, boys ($M = 4.15$, $SD = 1.06$) differed from girls ($M = 2.83$, $SD = 1.00$; $T = 2.79$, $p < .05$), which means that boys were happier with their physical self compared to girls. With physical self-concept of body fat, boys ($M = 4.37$, $SD = .95$) differed from girls ($M = 2.83$, $SD = 1.27$; $T = 2.96$, $p < .01$), which means that boys assessed their body as less overweight and fat compared to girls.

Table 4
Spearman correlation coefficients and Cronbach's Alpha (α) for the investigated variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. SP frequency															
2. Enjoyment of SP	.36														
3. SOC	-.04	.08	α = .90												
4. Global SE	.02	.36	**.72****	α = .78											
5. Physical SC	-.08	.02	**.74****	**.54***	α = .92										
6. Health	.14	-.12	.21	.25	-.14	α = .59									
7. Coordination	.35	**.51***	.24	.37	.38	-.03	α = .88								
8. Physical activity	**.47***	**.75****	.28	**.47***	.18	-.02	**.60****	α = .69							
9. Body fat	-.05	-.08	**.69****	**.55***	**.94****	-.14	**-.50***	.22	α = .88						
10. Sport ability	**.53***	**.70****	.12	.23	.24	-.14	**.74****	**.69****	.35	α = .96					
11. Physical appearance	-.13	-.03	.24	**.53***	**.59****	-.08	.35	.23	**.64****	.17	α = .82				
12. Strength	.21	**.53***	-.09	.00	-.04	-.13	.22	**.47***	.13	**.56***	.05	α = .92			
13. Flexibility	.38	**.57***	.24	.43	.28	-.08	**.60****	**.57***	.37	**.83****	.26	.29	α = .91		
14. Endurance	.23	**.72****	.46	**.66****	.33	-.13	**.61****	**.86****	.36	**.57***	.26	.38	**.52***	α = .95	
15. Age	-.26	-.13	.21	.08	**.61****	-.44	.20	-.03	**.56***	.15	.45	-.03	.27	.15	
16. Gender[a]	-.14	-.10	-.22	-.24	**-.60***	.21	-.33	-.24	**-.61****	-.34	-.41	-.29	-.16	-.28	-.26

Note: Significant correlation-coefficients between enjoyment of sport participation and the other variables are given in bold numbers.
'SP' is the abbreviation for Sport Participation. 'SOC' is the abbreviation for Sense Of Coherence. 'SE' is the abbreviation for Self- Esteem and 'SC' is the abbreviation for Self-Concept.
[a] Boys = 1, girls = 2

4.2 In-depth interviews

The aim of the interviews was to investigate factors of a sport program that were related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth. First, background information is given about the sport programs of youth care organisation A and C. Next, factors are described that could be related to participation of socially vulnerable youth in the sport program.

4.2.1 Background information

Sport program youth care organisation A

From October till December 2014, youth care organisation A provided sport lessons that were given weekly by sport students as part of the internship of their study. The sport lessons were mandatory for all youngsters: the whole group went together to the sport lessons. The structure of this sport program was largely determined by the needs and wishes of the youth. Youngsters could speak out their preferences for the kind of sport they wanted to play and the sport coach took their preference into account. After that period, from January on another sport program was weekly provided by a boxing trainer. This sport program was facultative for the youngsters: they could choose whether they would like to participate or not. The structure of this sport program was very clear: the boxing trainer decided what exercises the participants had to do and when they could stop.

Both sport programs of youth care organisation A were free of charge for the youngsters. Employees of the youth care organisation participated in both sport programs. They participated together with the youngsters. The average duration of stay of the youngsters at the youth care organisation was four weeks. The employees of this youth care organisation experienced difficulties with participation of the youngsters in the sport program. Some youngsters refused to participate.

Sport program youth care organisation C

For several years, youth care organisation C had provided sport lessons given by a sport coach of the municipality. The sport lessons were mandatory: if a youngster refused to participate, he had to wait in his room during the sport lesson. The structure of this sport program was largely determined by the needs and wishes of the youth. Youngsters could speak out their preferences for the kind of sport they wanted to play and the sport coach took their preference into account. These sport lessons were weekly offered and free of charge for the youngsters. Employees of the youth care organisation participated in the sport program, together with the youngsters. The average duration of stay of the youngsters at the youth care organisation was one year. The employees of this youth care organisation did not experience difficulties with participation of the youngsters in the sport program.

4.2.2 Analysis of factors in relation to sport participation

Youth care organisation C experienced no difficulties to get the youth participating in their sport program, but youth care organisation A did. Different factors and their relation to sport participation at youth care organisation A and C are described. First, factors are mentioned that did not appear to be clearly related to sport participation for both cases. These factors might still play a role in relation to sport participation, but in these cases they might not be the striking factors for participation and non-participation in sport. These factors are: issues of the youngsters, goal of the sport program and coaching style. Next, factors are described which seemed to be more clearly related to sport participation for both youth care organisations. These factors are clustered into participation culture and enjoyment of sport participation.

Issues of the youngsters

The respondents (sport coaches, employees of the youth care organisation and the youngsters) spoke about the issues of the youngsters. The respondents of both youth care organisations mentioned that the issues of the youngsters were diverse. At the youth care organisation, they met youth with all kind

of issues, varying from autism to addiction problems. Since the issues of the youngsters were diverse for both youth care organisations, it is difficult to identify a relation between sport participation and the kind of issues of the youngsters.

Goal of the sport program

The respondents mentioned different goals of the sport programs which were largely overlapping. Different goals of the sport program that were mentioned are: being physically active, getting to know a variety of sports, having fun, distraction from daily life, getting rid of their energy and improving self-esteem and defending ability. Striking is that for both youth care organisations, the sport coaches mentioned aims that were more focussed on development of youth (teaching norms and values and improvement of self-esteem and defending ability), while the employees of both youth care organisations mentioned aims that were more focussed on youngsters having fun and being physically active. However, since the goal of the sport program for both youth care organisations was largely overlapping and no specific differences could be identified between both youth care organisations, it is hard to identify a relation between sport participation and the goal of the sport program.

Coaching style

The sport students of youth care organisation A called their coaching style '*commanding but also listening*'. They told they guided the youngsters but also listened to the youngsters. The boxing trainer of youth care organisation A mentioned his coaching style as '*counselling*'. The boxing trainer defined counselling as guiding the youngsters through the sport program. The sport coach of youth care organisation C called his coaching style '*tolerating*'. He told he was much more tolerating for socially vulnerable youth compared to other youngsters that he trained on a more professional level (see box 3). Hence, the coaching style varied per sport coach but also overlapped. What the sport coaches had in

Box 3. *"The socially vulnerable youth demand a more tolerating approach. If a vulnerable youngster gets angry and kicks a ball, I will not punish him. But if a youngster of my professional football group gets angry and kicks the ball, he will be definitely punished."*
(Respondent 12, sport coach)

common is that they told they all listened to the preferences of the youngsters and they all used a positive approach. The positive approach of the sport coaches is characterised by stimulation of the youngsters and provision of compliments. In addition, the sport coaches mentioned they were not very strict to the youngsters. A difference between the sport coaches is that the actions of the boxing trainer seemed less hesitant than the actions of the other sport coaches. The actions of the boxing trainer seemed less hesitant because he told that his sport program had a very clear structure, starting with a warming up, followed by all different kind of exercises. The other sport coaches explained that the structure of their sport program was dependent on the preferences of the youth about the kind of sport.

First, the sport program of youth care organisation A was provided by sport students that structured their sport lessons according to the preferences of the youth, and later on the sport program was provided by the boxing trainer that had a very clear structure. Remarkably, during both sport lessons of youth care organisation A problems with sport participation were experienced by the sport coaches and employees. At youth care organisation C the sport coach also structured his sport lessons according to the preferences of the youth, and no problems with sport participation were experienced. According to this information, it is hard to identify a relation between sport participation and the coaching style for these two youth care organisations.

Participation culture

The participation culture might be related to participation of youngsters in the sport program. With the participation culture, behaviour is meant which has to do with *norms* and *values* during sport participation.

At youth care organisation A, some of the youngsters refused to participate in the sport program. According to sport coaches and employees of youth care organisations, behaviour of new youngsters could be influenced by behaviour of current youngsters (see box 4). Remarkably, one youngster confirmed this proposed statement and admitted that he tend to behave like the group during the sport program (see box 5). Peer pressure could encourage new youngsters to behave conform the group. If a new youngster arrived, participation in the sport program could be influenced by the behaviour of other youngsters (peer pressure). If some youngsters refused to participate, other youngsters could

Box 4. *"Every week new youngsters arrive. Current youngsters that refuse to participate influence the new youngsters. New youngsters observe the refusal behaviour and copy it."* (Respondent 7, employee)
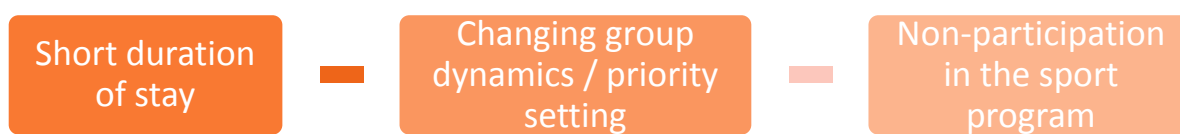
Box 5. *"When I arrive at the sport lesson, I behave like the rest of the group. I prefer to behave like the group."* (Respondent 2, youngster)

refuse to participate as well, not because they did not like to sport, but because they tended to behave like the group. Although not mentioned by the respondents, it is proposed that the new youngster tended to adapt to the participation culture that was already there, which could be characterised by youngsters for which it was possible to refuse to participate in the sport program. In this case, the *value* could be defined as little respect for the sport coach and employees of the youth care organisation. The *norm* could be defined as that it was possible to refuse to listen to the sport coach and employees of the youth care organisation and that it was possible to refuse participation in the sport program. Hence it is proposed that if a new youngster arrived, he tended to adapt to the participation culture and the associated values and norms.

At youth care organisation C, nearly all youngsters of the youth care organisation (except for one) participated in the sport program. When a new youngster arrived at this youth care organisation, employees of the youth care organisation mentioned it took them not much effort to get the new youngster participating in the sport program. Although not mentioned by the respondents, it is proposed that the new youngster tended to adapt to the participation culture that was already there. The participation culture of youth care organisation C could be characterised by youngsters that nearly all participated in the sport program. Again, peer pressure could play a role and could encourage new youngsters to behave like the group. In this case, the value could be defined as full respect for the sport coach and employees of the youth care organisation. The norm could be defined as listening to the sport coach and employees of the youth care organisation and participation in the sport program. Employees of both youth care organisations mentioned that this '*behaving like the group'* of the youngsters occurred during their sport lessons, as well in positive ways (other youngsters participated so the new youngster participated too) as in negative ways (other youngsters refused to participate and the new youngster refused too).

Group dynamics – Group dynamics at the youth care organisation might be related to participation of youngsters in the sport program and the participation culture. At youth care organisation A, the duration of stay was on average four weeks. According to the employees of the youth care organisation, every week new youth arrived (and left) and this could lead to a weekly change in the group dynamics (see box 6). Employees of the youth care organisation explained that it was difficult for them to handle this changing group dynamics: it took

Box 6. *"Every week, youngsters arrive and leave. One new youngster can change the whole group dynamics."* (Respondent 6, employee)

them a lot of effort. Since this took them effort, less effort was left to motivate the youngsters to participate in the sport program. In addition, employees of the youth care organisation told that the youngsters arrived at the youth care organisation with personal problems. According to the employees, due to the average duration of stay of four weeks, these personal problems sometimes had to be solved first (partly) or had priority above participation in the sport program. Hence due to the short duration of stay of youth at the youth care organisation, the group dynamics changed weekly which took the employees of the youth care organisation a lot of effort to handle. In addition, (partly) solving the personal problems of the youngsters sometimes had priority above participation in the sport program. This proposed relation is schematically depicted in figure 5.

| Short duration of stay | — | Changing group dynamics / priority setting | — | Non-participation in the sport program |

Figure 5
The proposed relation between duration of stay and participation in the sport program of youth care organisation A

At youth care organisation C, the duration of stay was on average one year. The employees of youth care organisation C did not talk about changing group dynamics or troubles within the group. They only mentioned that in general it took them not much effort to get youth participating in the sport program. Although not mentioned, it is possible that the group dynamics changed not much and the longer duration of stay is associated with stabilised group dynamics. Stabilised group dynamics could save the employees effort which could explain why it took the employees less effort to get the youth participating in the sport program. Since the employees of youth care organisation C mentioned that it took them not much effort to get the youth participating in the sport program and they did not mention that handling personal problems of youth took them a lot of effort or was a problem for them, it is possible that they had effort left to spend at (partly) solving the personal problems of the youngsters and at getting youth participating in the sport program.

Participation of employees – Participation of employees might be associated with participation of youngsters in the sport program and the participation culture. At both youth care organisations, the employees participated in the sport program together with the youngsters. According to the respondents, this had two advantages: (1) The employees knew a lot about the youngsters and could intervene during the sport program and (2) the relationship between the employees and the youngsters during sport was different compared to their relation at the youth care organisation.

Two sport coaches mentioned that they preferred that employees of the youth care organisation participated in the sport program because the employees knew the youngsters very well and they could intervene during the game if necessary. Besides, the employees knew what recently happened

with the youngsters. If for example during the day, two youngsters had an argument and later on during the sport program their argument continued, the employees knew about this argument and took it into account when reacting upon it. The sport coaches told that they preferred to be updated

about the situation of the youngsters because they could take recent events into account during communication with the youngsters. The employees of the youth care organisations mentioned that they enjoyed participation in the sport

> **Box 7.** *"I think, as employee of the youth care organisation, that it is very important to participate in the sport program and to support the youngsters. Just put on your sport clothes and enjoy the sport program."* (Respondent 7, employee)

program (see box 7) and the youngsters mentioned they enjoyed participation of the employees. Hence all respondents were positive about participation of employees in the sport program.

In addition, during the sport program, the relationship between the employees and the youngsters was different than at the youth care organisation: employees told that at the youth care organisation, the employees had a more nurturing role, while during the sport program, the employees and youngsters were more equal to each other and their relationship was more playful. Youngsters confirmed that during the sport program, the relationship with the employees was more playful and they told they liked that.

Another advantage of participation of employees in the sport program is that employees could contribute by the sport lessons by bringing ideas. For example, at youth care organisation C the teams were divided into a team of boys and a team of girls, which was an idea of an employee of the youth care organisation. If the girls won from the boys, this could motivate the boys to try to win from the girls. Employees of youth care organisations experienced this competition of boys against the girls as encouraging for sport participation. In this way, employees could think along with the sport coach and contribute to the sport program by bringing ideas.

To sum up, participation of employees in the sport program is positively assessed by all respondents. The employees were up to date about the situation of the youngsters, sport coaches liked to be updated as well, employees could intervene during the sport program and could bring ideas, and the relationship between the employees and youngsters was more playful during the sport program.

Mandatory vs facultative sport program – Whether a sport program is mandatory or not might be related to sport participation and the participation culture. Youth care organisation A changed their sport program policy for all youngsters from mandatory to facultative. According to the employees of this youth care organisation, this has changed because the youngsters that refused to participate could influence other youngsters to refuse participation too, which could result in more youngsters that refused to participate (see box 8). Therefore, the employees preferred to change the mandatory policy of the sport program, so the youngsters that did not want to participate could stay at the youth care

organisation. This resulted in a smaller group that participated in the sport program, but according to the boxing trainer and employees, it resulted in a nicer group to work with.

> **Box 8.** *"At the youth care organisation, there are always some youngsters that do not want to participate in the sport program and they can influence the rest. Therefore we changed the mandatory policy."* (Respondent 7, employee)

At youth care organisation C, the sport program was mandatory for all youngsters. According to the sport coach and employees of the youth care organisation, the mandatory sport program worked fine.

An employee of youth care organisation C argued that, if new youngsters arrived at the youth care organisation, they often did not participate in sport. According to this employee, if the youngsters could choose whether they wanted to participate or not, they would probably choose to not participate. The employee continued that if the sport program would be obligatory, the youngsters would not think about that choice and participate. Therefore, that employee thought that a mandatory sport program was a good choice. In addition, the employee told that during participation in the sport program, the youngsters seemed to enjoy the sport program and this could encourage them to participate the next week.

The employees of youth care organisation C told they encouraged the youngsters to participate, but if the youngsters refused to participate, they had to wait in their room during the sport lesson. This differed from youth care organisation A, where the youngsters had to wait at the sport location until the sport lesson was over. If a youngster is waiting at his room until the sport lesson is over, other youngsters cannot see him or her during the sport lesson and may be less likely to copy that behaviour compared to when youngsters could see the refusing youngsters. This could be a possible explanation for why a mandatory sport program worked well at youth care organisation C and worked not well for youth care organisation A. Hence, the results indicate that whether a sport program is mandatory or not and rules for non-participation might be related to sport participation of youngsters.

Enjoyment of sport participation

Whether youngsters enjoyed participation in the sport program could be related to participation of youngsters in the sport program. If youth was asked why they did not participate in the sport program, they mentioned that they did not like to participate in sport and they preferred to do something else. This indicated that having fun might be related to sport participation. Sport coaches and employees of youth care organisations also indicated that enjoyment of sport participation for youngsters was something that received attention: sport coaches and employees mentioned 'having fun' as goal of their sport program and they told that it was important for them that youngsters enjoyed participation in the sport program.

Personal preferences – Results indicated that whether youth enjoyed sport participation or not could be related to personal preferences. The opinion of the youngsters about sport varied. Some youngsters told they were a sportive kind of person, often physically active and they enjoyed sport. These youngsters participated in the sport program and they participated also in all other kind of sports. Other youngsters told that they were less sportive, less physically active and did not really enjoy sport participation. Youngsters that did not like (a particular kind of) sport were less likely to participate in sport (see box 9). Hence some youngsters liked to sport, while others did not and these personal preferences could be related to sport participation.

Box 9. *"I do not like boxing and therefore I do not participate at the sport lessons. It is just not my kind of sport."* (Respondent 2, youngster)

Intensity – Enjoyment of sport participation of youngsters could be related to intensity of the sport program. One youngster mentioned that, sometimes, the sport program became too intensive for her (see box 10). She also mentioned that she experienced pain during the sport program. However, the sport coach motivated her to continue. Only one youngster mentioned that

Box 10. *"Sometimes, during the sport lesson I am out of breath. At those moments, I have the feeling that I am not able to breathe. I would prefer if the sport coach slows down."* (Respondent 1, youngster)

the sport program was too intensive for her sometimes. However, she was the only participant that participated in the sport program (since it was optional) and she mentioned intensity of the sport program repeatedly. Hence, it is proposed that if the sport program was too intensive, this could lead to experience of pain which probably could lead to a decrease in fun for the participant.

4.2.3 Different perspectives

Striking is that the perspective of the employees of the youth care organisations on factors that could be related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth overlapped with the perspective of the sport coaches and the socially vulnerable youth, but also differences could be identified. All respondents agreed that a positive approach was beneficial. A positive approach is characterised by stimulation of the youngsters and provision of compliments. In addition, all respondents preferred clear communication during the sport program and a respectful atmosphere. An important difference is that the youngsters and sport coaches often mentioned personal factors as factors why socially vulnerable youth did not participate in a sport program (see box 11), whereas employees of the youth care organisation mentioned lack of support (by the sport coach and/or employees) more often as a factor why socially vulnerable youth did not participate in a sport program (see box 12). Employees of the youth care organisations and sport coaches also mentioned that if youngsters did not want to participate in the sport program, they first tried to change the mind of the youngsters,

Box 11. *"One youngster refused to participate in the sport program. She only participated once but afterwards she did not want to go anymore. I think she lacks motivation to participate in the sport program."* (Respondent 11, youngster)

Box 12. *"The youngsters at the youth care organisation need extra support. I think that it is very important that the youngsters receive this extra support."* (Respondent 7, employee)

but after several tries they focussed on the youth that were willing to participate. In sum, perspectives of the respondents on factors that were related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth were largely overlapping but also differences could be identified.

The factors that might be related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth at both youth care organisations are summed up in table 5. With their stories, the respondents gave me the impression that at both youth care organisations these factors were the most important factors that might be related to sport participation.

Table 5
An overview of the factors that might be related to sport participation

Participation culture
- Group dynamics
- Participation of employees
- Mandatory vs facultative sport program

Enjoyment of sport participation
- Personal preferences
- Intensity

5. Discussion

In this chapter, the results are discussed in relation to findings from the literature and the theoretical framework. Suggestions for further research are formulated and limitations of this thesis are discussed. The chapter ends with a conclusion and recommendations for youth care organisations to encourage sport participation.

5.1 Answering the sub questions

The aim of this thesis is twofold. First, this thesis aims to contribute to knowledge on the relation between sport participation, physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence of socially vulnerable youth. Second, the aim is to contribute to knowledge on what factors are related to sport participation of youth at youth care organisations.

The results of the questionnaires are used to answer the first three research sub questions:

∗ *What is the relation between sport participation and the physical self-concept of socially vulnerable youth of 12 till 18 years?*
∗ *What is the relation between sport participation and the global self-esteem of socially vulnerable youth of 12 till 18 years?*
∗ *What is the relation between sport participation and the sense of coherence of socially vulnerable youth of 12 till 18 years?*

It was hypothesised that sport participation is positively related to physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence. According to the results of the questionnaires, sport participation was not significantly correlated to global physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence of socially vulnerable youngsters. Thus, the hypotheses that sport participation is positively related to physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence are rejected. Sport participation was only significantly positively correlated with two out of nine components of physical self-concept: physical activity and sport ability. This means that participants that participated in sport more often assessed themselves as being often physically active and being good at most sports. This relation between sport participation and physical self-concept of physical activity, and sport ability seems logical: respondents that sported often will assess themselves as being more physically active. In addition, since they practiced sport more often, they trained more frequent and could improve their skills compared to peers which sported less often. It was hypothesised that the other components of physical self-concept were related to sport participation as well. This outcome (that only sport participation was significantly positively correlated with two out of nine components of physical self-concept) can be explained by the kind of sport that is practiced. By practicing turning for example, mainly flexibility will be trained, while during boxing, mainly strength will be trained. Different kinds of sports might lead to different kinds of skills, and thereby might influence different components of the physical self-concept. If different kinds of sports are related to different kinds of skills, this could have influenced the relation between sport participation (in general) and the components of physical self-concept. This is substantiated by Marsh and Redmayne, they found a weak relation between components of the physical self-concept and physical activity among youth as well (Marsh & Redmayne, 1994). It seems that the relation between physical self-concept and physical activity becomes stronger with age, because youth in puberty seem to experience many other physiological and psychological changes that could possibly bias the relation between physical activity and physical self-concept (Marsh, 1993). This could explain why no significant relationship is found between sport participation and all components of physical self-concept.

The absence of a relation between sport participation, global physical self-concept and global self-esteem contrasts with the literature. Research among youngsters indicates a positive relation between sport participation and physical self-concept (Alferman & Stoll, 2000; Dishman et al., 2006; Schneider, Dunton, & Cooper, 2008; Slutzky & Simpkins, 2009) and sport participation and global self-esteem

(Bonhauser et al., 2005; Debate, Pettee Gabriel, Zwald, Huberty, & Zhang, 2009; Klomsten et al., 2004; Slutzky & Simpkins, 2009; Tremblay et al., 2000). A possible explanation for this difference in outcomes may reside in the characteristics of the studied samples. Most research is conducted among 'average' youngsters, except for the research of Dishman and colleagues. Their research focussed on youngsters with depression symptoms, while this thesis is conducted among youngsters at youth care organisations. The youngsters at the youth care organisations are in difficult circumstances. These youngsters live for, on average, four weeks at the youth care organisation, since it is not able to live at home. This can be a big change for the youngsters. Mentally, they can be busy dealing with the difficult and changing circumstances, which potentially causes a decrease in focus on school or sport. If their attention is slipped away from sport, their sport participation might decrease. Since the youth care organisation provides a supportive environment for the vulnerable youngsters, psychological health of the youngsters might stay the same or can increase during their time at the youth care organisation. In other words, the changing situation (moving to a youth care organisation) might influence sport participation negatively and psychological health positively, and could thereby disturb the relation between sport participation and psychological health. In addition, moving to a youth care organisation can have an impact on sport participation of the youngsters, if the youth care organisation is for example too far away from their sport association. Their sport participation (in times per week) potentially decreases if the youngsters live too far away from their sport association.

Another explanation for the difference between findings from the literature and findings from this thesis is a factor that is taken into account in this current research as a background variable: enjoyment of sport participation. A remarkable finding of the questionnaires was that enjoyment of sport participation was significantly positively correlated with six out of nine components of physical self-concept (coordination, physical activity, sport ability, strength, flexibility and endurance), while sport participation was only significantly positively correlated with two components of physical self-concept: physical activity and sport ability. Sport participation is measured with an objective scale (varying from *0 times per week* to *4 times per week or more*) and sport enjoyment is measured with a subjective scale (varying from *totally not enjoying* to *lot of fun*). In this research, sport participation is measured as a snapshot: somebody can participate less in sport for a couple of weeks due to for example limited leisure time or a temporary movement to the youth care organisation. In contrast, enjoyment of sport participation might vary less over time (somebody can enjoy sport participation for whole his life) and can be a more stable factor. It is possible that youngsters who are at a youth care organisation for four weeks, participate in sport less frequently than before (due to for example increased travel distance and the difficult circumstances that receive priority above sport participation), but still enjoy sport and assess their physical ability better compared to peers that rarely sported before. In the literature, it seems that fun is a dominant reason for sport participation (Wankel & Kreisel, 1985). In addition, enjoyment of sport seems to be positively related to sport participation (DiLorenzo, Stucky-Ropp, Wal, Heather, & Gotham, 1998; Frederick & Ryan, 1993; Lubans, Morgan, & McCormack, 2011). These findings indicate that enjoyment of sport participation might be very interesting to investigate in relation to sport participation and psychological development. Sport enjoyment might even play a bigger role in relation to psychological development than sport participation itself, judging on the results of this thesis. McDonough and Crocker found in their quantitative study that sport enjoyment was significantly related to self-worth, self-esteem, physical competence, and physical attractiveness (McDonough & Crocker, 2005). Unfortunately, McDonough and Crocker did not measure sport participation in their research. However, these results indicate that enjoyment of sport indeed is associated with physical self-concept and self-esteem. More research is needed to further investigate the relation between sport participation, sport enjoyment and psychological development among socially vulnerable youth.

The absence of a relation between sport participation and sense of coherence contrasts with the literature as well. In the literature, sport participation was associated with a high sense of coherence of youth (Honkinen et al., 2005; Sollerhed et al., 2005). Remarkably, in this thesis sense of coherence was significantly positively correlated with global self-esteem and global physical self-concept. This means that participants with a stronger coping ability were more confident and happier with their physical self. According to the data of this thesis, sport participation did not play a significant role in this relationship. Again, this can be explained by the situation of the youngsters at the youth care organisations. Moving to a youth care organisation for four weeks can influence their sport participation (if the youth care organisation is for example too far away from their sport association). Their sport participation (in times per week) can decrease, but their sense of coherence and self-perception could stay the same (in that relatively short period of four weeks). More research is needed to identify the relationship between sport, physical self-concept, self-esteem and sense of coherence.

The relation between sport participation and youth development is studied based on two specific theories (the model of self-concept of Shavelson and colleagues and the self-perception construction model of Fox). These theories highlight only a small piece of the complex reality. By studying the relation between sport participation, physical self-concept and global self-esteem, only some possible confounders were taken into account (such as gender and age). This means that other possible confounders, which were not taken into account, might have influenced the relationship between sport participation, physical self-concept and global self-esteem. For example, the influence of peers could lead to a change in physical self-concept (Shavelson et al., 1976), self-esteem (Fox, 1998) and sport participation (Allender, Cowburn, & Foster, 2006; Anderssen & Wold, 1992). When a peer calls someone 'fat' while the person always thought that he was not fat (positive physical self-concept), the person that was called 'fat' could agree on the comment of the peer (change in perceived physical appearance) and the physical self-concept could be changed. Due to the remark, the youngster could start doubting about his own opinion of his body, which could negatively influence the self-esteem. Sport participation could be influenced by peers if youngsters tend to behave like the group due to peer pressure (Allender et al., 2006; Anderssen & Wold, 1992). The global self-esteem could be biased by for example self-evaluations based on academic ability or social skills (Marsh, 1986; Rosenberg, 1979). The possible confounder that is mentioned above is not taken into account in this study, but could influence the relation between sport participation and youth development.

The last research sub question is formulated as followed:

∗ *What factors are related to sport participation among youth at youth care organisations of 12 till 18 years?*

The results of the in-depth interviews are used to answer this last sub question. Findings of the interviews indicate that the (participation) culture and social influence might be related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth. Results indicate that behaviour of new youngsters could be influenced by behaviour of current youngsters at youth care organisations. In addition, due to peer pressure, youngsters could conform their behaviour to the group. This finding is consistent with other research, demonstrating that sport participation of youth is related to peer pressure (Allender et al., 2006; Anderssen & Wold, 1992). Other research found that sport participation of youth was related to social factors such as social norms, modelling and social support (Lee, Lee, & Min-Haeng, 2004) and social recognition of friends (Hallmann & Breuer, 2012). Further research on this relationship among socially vulnerable youth might help youth care organisations gain more insight in this relationship and can possibly provide opportunities for youth care organisations to deal with this social influence.

Results of the interviews suggest that the group dynamics might be related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth. Handling changing group dynamics seemed to cost employees of youth care organisations effort, which might negatively influence sport participation of socially vulnerable youth. Probably the employees meant that it cost effort to figure out who was the new leader of the group, how to handle the (changed) group and how to get the (changed) group participating in sport. Research indicates that enriched group dynamics (a supportive group environment) can be beneficial for sport participation (Fox, Rejeski, & Gauvin, 2000; Trussel, 2014). This suggests that group dynamics might be related to sport participation. According to Buyesse and Duijvestijn, group dynamics could negatively influence the sport lesson since it cost the sport coach effort to handle these group dynamics (Buysse & Duijvestijn, 2011). It might be difficult for the sport coach to handle both the group dynamics and to motivate the youngsters to participate. However, more research is needed to clarify the relation between group dynamics and sport participation and the underlying mechanisms.

Another result of the interviews is that participation of employees in the sport program together with the youngsters might be positively related to sport participation. Employees knew about the situation of the youngsters and could support the sport coaches and youngsters. Research showed that social support was significantly positively related to sport participation of youngsters (Lubans et al., 2011). Assuming that employees of youth care organisations provided social support, this finding is in line with the findings of this thesis. Remarkably, Hohepa and colleagues found that parents and friends were the key social influences of sport participation (Hohepa, Scragg, Schofield, Kolt, & Schaaf, 2007). However, during sport activities at youth care organisations, parents and friends of the youngsters are often not present. Therefore, in the case of socially vulnerable youth, it is possible that social support of employees becomes more important than social support of parents and friends. More research on the role of social support of employees of youth care organisations for socially vulnerable youth would clarify this proposed relation.

According to the results of the interviews, whether a sport program is mandatory or not might also be related to sport participation. A mandatory sport program could oblige all youngsters to participate, while a facultative sport program does not oblige the youngsters to participate. Research of Scanlan and Lewthwaite indicated that feelings of obligatory participation could reduce feelings of personal control of youngsters and thereby could lower commitment to sport (Scanlan & Lewthwaite, 1984). Hence according to Scanlan and Lewthwaite, a mandatory sport program could have a negative effect on commitment to sport of youngsters. However, since socially vulnerable youth is a particular group of youth, for them it might work different. An employee of a youth care organisation mentioned that the vulnerable youngsters that arrived at their youth care organisation rarely participated in sport. She argued that if the sport program would not be mandatory, probably no vulnerable youngster would participate because they did not participate before. She argued that, by making the sport program mandatory, youngsters do not experience that they have a choice and this could positively influence sport participation (the youngsters seem to 'just' participate). According to Buysse and Duijvestijn, a mandatory sport program for vulnerable youngsters can succeed, but the vulnerable youngsters need extra support compared to average youngsters, especially at the first sport lesson (Buysse & Duijvestijn, 2011). More research is needed to further investigate how youth care organisations could provide this extra support at the beginning of their sport program.

Based on the results of this thesis, enjoyment of sport participation might be related to sport participation. Whether youngsters enjoyed sport or not, might be related to personal preferences of youngsters and intensity of the sport program. A sport program which is too intensive, seems to decrease enjoyment of sport participation. These findings are consistent with other research demonstrating that enjoyment of sport was positively related to sport participation (DiLorenzo et al., 1998; Frederick & Ryan, 1993; Lubans et al., 2011). Other research found that sport enjoyment seemed a dominant reason for sport participation (Wankel & Kreisel, 1985) and a recurrent factor for

continuation of sport participation (Jakobsson, 2012). According to the literature, enjoyment of sport participation can be related to several personal factors. Youngsters can enjoy sport participation as a result of physical activity (get rid of their energy) or as a social result (the collaboration with other youngsters to achieve something, like winning a match) (Fine, 1989). In addition, competitiveness (the desire for success and to be the best) can also play a role in relation to sport enjoyment (Skille & Osteras, 2011). According to Skille and Osteras, it can vary per person which values are most important in relation to enjoyment of sport, which indicates that enjoyment of sport is related to personal factors. If a sport program is too intensive, this can cause pain and injury (Addison, Kremer, & Bell, 1998). Pain can be experienced as an unpleasant feeling, which can decrease sport enjoyment (Jirasek & Hurych, 2012). This finding indicates that intensity of a sport program might be related to a decrease in sport enjoyment. These findings from the literature indicate that enjoyment of sport participation plays an important role in relation to sport participation among youth. In addition, the findings from the literature indicate that sport participation might be related to personal factors, but also with intensity of the sport program. With regard to the findings from this thesis and the literature, the relation between sport enjoyment and sport participation seems to be complex. Therefore, more research is needed to clarify the underlying factors of sport enjoyment of socially vulnerable youth.

5.2 Positive youth development

By studying the relation between sport participation and youth development, the positive youth development approach is used as base for the theoretical framework. This thesis about the relation between sport participation and positive youth development focussed on individual based development. Burnett (2001) distinguished three dimensions of research for sport-based research:

* *Macro-level*: sport development in relation to broader socioeconomic and environmental factors (for example, provision or lack of public facilities and services)
* *Meso-level*: community development and usage of institutional resources (for example, involvement in and functioning of social networks, such as sports club membership)
* *Micro-level*: holistic development of participants in terms of personal experiences (for example, ideological, physical, social, psychological)

With regard to these three dimensions, this thesis is focussed on a part of the micro-level (i.e. psychological development). Other factors of the micro-level and the whole meso-level and macro-level were not taken into account, so this study oversimplified reality. By disregarding the meso-level and macro-level, this could have two consequences: sport participation could influence factors at the meso-level and macro-level, ánd factors at the meso-level and macro-level could influence sport participation. Factors at the meso-level could be involvement in sport clubs and macro-level factors can be lack of qualified sport trainers and sport accommodations. Hence, different factors at different levels can be interacting. Burnett warns that an overconcentration on outcomes at the individual level could hinder the impact that sport-based interventions can have on lives of socially vulnerable groups (Burnett, 2001).

By focussing on the developmental possibilities of youngsters due to sport participation, a narrow focus is set on a complex set of relationships (France, 2000). Aspects of positive youth development are highlighted, while negative health outcomes are disregarded. It is important to note that in the literature sport participation is also associated with *negative* health outcomes in youth. During sport, mishaps can occur, which can lead to negative physical health outcomes like pain and (prolonged) injuries (Maffulli et al., 2010). Regarding the negative mental health outcomes, failure in sport is associated with a fear for failure, diminished self-perception, no sense of achievement and negative emotions like being angry, unhappy, feeling guilty and being criticised (Sagar, Lavallee, & Spray, 2007). It is also possible that sport becomes an obsession and this could result in excessive exercise (Peluso & Andrade, 2005). However, these cases where sport becomes an obsession are rare (Peluso &

Andrade, 2005). With a supportive and safe sport environment, chances on injuries can be reduced and the negative aspects of failure mentioned above can be diminished (Coakley, 2011). Hence, sport is also associated with several negative physical and mental health outcomes.

5.3 Combining the results of quantitative and qualitative results

Both quantitative and qualitative methods are used to study the relation between sport participation and youth development. The relation between sport participation and development of youth was studied by questionnaires. Factors that were related to sport participation of youth at youth care organisations were studied by in-depth interviews. These two research methods present another view of reality. Quantitative research aims to quantify data and to generalise results, while qualitative data aims to gain understanding of underlying systems (Hart, Boeije, & Hox, 2005). Remarkably, both with the questionnaires and the in-depth interviews, enjoyment of sport participation seemed to be important in relation to youth development and sport participation. For the questionnaires, enjoyment of sport was taken into account as a background variable, but seemed to be stronger related to youth development than to sport participation. According to the in-depth interviews, enjoyment of sport seemed to be an important factor in relation to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth. In addition, according to the results of the interviews, enjoyment of sport participation seemed to be often a goal for sport programs for sport coaches and employees, which indicates that enjoyment of sport already received attention. The results of both research methods indicate that enjoyment of sport needs to be further investigated in relation to sport participation and youth development.

5.4 Limitations

The in-depth interviews and questionnaires are not free from limitations. Below, critical notes are summed up for the limitations of this thesis.

Questionnaires

The sample of the questionnaires was not a representative sample for all socially vulnerable youth, since only youngsters of two youth care organisations participated and were not randomly assigned. Although it was a useful sample in relation to the theme of the research, the results should not be generalised to all youth care organisations. The sample size of the questionnaires was small. In total, 19 respondents filled in the questionnaires. According to Field (2005), a larger sample size is more likely to achieve statistical significance. If more respondents filled in the questionnaires, the chance for statistical significance would increase. This could also partly explain why no significant relationship could be identified between sport participation, physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence. Item non-response was reduced by disseminating the questionnaire via the online software Qualtrics. By using this online questionnaire software, participants were encouraged to give a response to the question, because they could not go further in the questionnaire without giving answers to all questions. Another limitation is that the questionnaires results are a snapshot. It is possible that participants would fill in the questionnaire differently at another moment of the day or if they are in a different mood. According to employees of youth care organisations, especially with socially vulnerable youth, their mood can drastically influence their behaviour. This possible influence of other factors (like mood) on the results, may lead to inconsistent results and might partly explain the absence of a relation between sport participation and youth development. Another limitation of the questionnaires is social desirability bias (Hart et al., 2005). Respondents might give an answer that is socially desirable. Social desirability is tried to be reduced by informing the respondents that the results would be treated confidently. Nevertheless, social desirability bias can still be present and bias the outcomes. Since different standardised scales were used in the questionnaire, differences in comprehensibility of questionnaire items could occur. This is another limitation and could lead to inconsistency in outcomes (since some items might have been understood differently than intended). From the Physical Self-Description Questionnaire of Marsh, the short form version was used. Since this short form version consisted of less questions than the original questionnaire, this could also increase

the chance of inconsistent results. This could partly explain the low Cronbach's Alpha for the variable health and why health was not significantly correlated with any other variable. In sum, several limitations of the questionnaires should be noticed. However, due to time and resource limitations, questionnaires were a good choice (Hart et al., 2005) in relation to the investigated concepts.

In-depth interviews

Only respondents of two youth care organisations were interviewed. Although these two cases gained interesting results, it is not a representative sample and the results should not be generalised to all youth care organisations. By conducting the in-depth interviews, two interview guides were developed: one for youngsters and one for employees and sport coaches. Since these interview guides differed, this could lead to different answers and a different focus on aspects for the respondents. The difference in perspectives of youngsters and employees and sport coaches could be partly explained by the difference in interview guide. In addition, the interview guide is based on 13 essential features for positive youth development (Perkins & Noam, 2007), which do not totally suit the factors that could be related to sport participation. It might be that other factors are important in relation to sport participation as well, but no questions for the interview guide were formulated about these factors. However, this seemed the best theory available in the literature, since this theory focused on youngsters and sport. By including open questions in the interview guide, other factors that are related to sport participation were tried to explore, but the questions formulated for the interview guide might have biased the data. Like the results of the questionnaires, the results of the interviews are a snapshot as well. It is possible that participants would answer differently at another moment of the day or if they are in a different mood. Coding was done thematic and top-down. The advantage of this coding strategy is that it is a systematic method. The disadvantage is that data could be forced into a code of the theory of Perkins and Noam while it could also receive a new code. However, re-reading and re-coding of the data took place to check whether the codes identified the most basic segment or element of the data and to minimise inconsistent coding. Another limitation of the interviews is recall bias: respondents might forgot pertinent details, or remembered the things that they self thought were the most important (instead of the whole story). Due to recall bias, some aspects of sport participation could be highlighted, while other (maybe important) aspects were forgotten. Another limitation is that youngsters could tell that they did not participate in the sport program for a specific reason. However, it is possible that this is not the real reason why they did not participate but a social desirable answer. Social desirable answers could bias the results. Therefore, some questions were repeated (in different words) and consistency was assessed. However, no inconsistency in answers was discovered.

Socially vulnerable youth is a difficult target group for research. The situation of the youngsters at youth care organisations was unpredictable and could change rapidly, which made it difficult to include all youngsters of in the research. In addition, since the youngsters already had to deal with issues, it seemed to be difficult to motivate the youngsters to fill in the questionnaires. Other researchers experienced problems with data gathering as well (Buysse & Duijvestijn, 2011; Mariën & Courtois, 2012). Youngsters left the youth care organisations suddenly or were transferred to another institution. Due to regulatory changes of the Dutch government from the first of January 2015, reorganisation took place at youth care organisations which entailed all kind of changes at youth care organisations. This might explain why it was difficult to find cooperating youth care organisations and why the sample size was small. Employees at youth care organisations had to give more priority to youth care than to scientific research. Since objective scientific research with many respondents seemed difficult to achieve, this has implications for evidence-based policy.

5.5 Evidence-based policy

Evidence-based policy is encouraged in all departments of the government in the Netherlands (Black, 2001). The Minister for Public Health, Edith Schippers, executes evidence-based policy. The goal of evidence-based policy is to apply current evidence from research in policymaking in order to promote

health and to prevent, detect and take care of diseases (Sackett, Rosenberg, Gray, & Haynes, 1996). Brownson and colleagues described evidence-based policy as a continuous process using the best available qualitative and quantitative research to improve public health outcomes (Brownson, Chriqui, & Stamatakis, 2009). From an evidence-based perspective, policymakers aim to base their policy on research of high quality, but unfortunately this is not always feasible.

High quality evidence regarding socially vulnerable youth is hard to gather and might be unfeasible. Randomised controlled trials provide strong evidence (Strauss, 2005), but most youngsters will drop-out since the situation of vulnerable youngsters can change rapidly. Normally, it takes time until high quality research is conducted, published and has reached professionals and politicians (Haynes & Haines, 1998). However, conducting research among socially vulnerable youth will take more time due to a potential higher drop-out ratio, which makes it extra difficult to find significant relations. When only subsidy is available for evidence-based treatments and practices, this could result in delayed or missed opportunities for society. If research fails to indicate a significant relation, this does not automatically mean that there is no relation. In this current research, the study failed to indicate a significant relation between sport participation and youth development. Since this research failed to indicate a significant relation, this does not automatically mean that sport participation and youth development are not related to each other. It is possible that a relationship exists, but is not confirmed by scientifically research. Scientific research that confirms the relation could be finished and published many years later, which consequently means that these practices will also be funded years later.

An alternative for evidence-based policy might be the use three sources of knowledge: personal experience of the client, clinical experience of the professional and scientific knowledge (Hutschemaekers & Tiemens, 2006). Clinical experience of the professional and personal experience of the client can be gathered relatively quickly, and therefore could be more up to date than scientific knowledge which could take several years until publication (Yitschaky, Yitschaky, & Zadik, 2011). Hutschemaekers and Tiemens argue that if personal experience of the client and clinical experience of the professional are not taken into account, important information can be missed.

5.6 Conclusion

This study aimed to contribute to knowledge on the relation between sport participation, physical self-concept, global self-esteem and the sense of coherence and on knowledge about what factors are related to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth. The results of the questionnaires do not offer strong evidence for the hypothesis that sport participation is related to physical self-concept, global self-esteem and sense of coherence among socially vulnerable youth. The results suggest that enjoyment of sport has a higher correlation with youth development than sport participation. However, the sample size of this thesis was small and participants were not randomly assigned. This could partly explain the absence of a significant relation between sport participation and youth development. In addition, youth at youth care organisations is a specific group of youngsters. Especially with socially vulnerable youth, their mood seems to drastically influence their behaviour. This might contribute to inconsistent results and might partly explain the absence of a relation between sport participation and youth development. Results of the interviews indicated that group dynamics, (participation) culture, social influence and enjoyment of sport might be related to sport participation of youth at youth care organisations. Remarkably, both with the questionnaires and the in-depth interviews, enjoyment of sport participation seemed to be important in relation to youth development and sport participation. This study raised new questions about the role of enjoyment of sport for sport participation and psychological development of socially vulnerable youth. Since in this research only two youth care organisations participated in the interviews and the questionnaires, factors that are related to sport participation and youth development should be investigated at more youth care organisations. Future research among socially vulnerable youth should explore the complex relation between sport participation and development of socially vulnerable youth.

5.7 Recommendations for youth care organisations

Based on the data, recommendations for youth care organisations are formulated which can help to get youth involved in sport programs.

Clear communication (about group size, equipment and situation of the youth)

Based on the qualitative data, clear communication seemed to be appreciated by sport coaches and employees of youth care organisations. Sport coaches preferred to know how many participants they could expect and what equipment was available. In addition, they seemed to prefer to be updated about the situation of the youth. A short update of the situation (for example when a fight took place between two youngsters) can help sport coaches to gain more insight into the dynamics of the group and to anticipate on situations. Hence, clear communication between sport coaches and employees of youth care organisations about group size, equipment and situation of the youth is recommended.

Participation of employees in the sport program

Participation of employees in the sport program seemed to be appreciated by employees of youth care organisations, sport coaches and socially vulnerable youngsters. The employees seemed to know the youngsters and knew what recently happened with the youngsters. Besides, employees could intervene during the game if necessary and sport coaches seemed to appreciate this. Therefore, participation of employees in the sport program is recommended.

Supportive coach and employees

Based on the qualitative data, a supportive coach and supportive employees are recommended during the sport program. During the sport program, socially vulnerable youth seemed to need extra support compared to other youngsters. Employees of youth care organisations indicated that compliments could motivate the youngsters to continue participating in sport. A supportive coach and supportive employees could contribute to this extra support.

Accessible and entertaining sport program for a broad public

According to the data, a sport program is recommended that is accessible and entertaining for a broad public. If a specific kind of sport is chosen that only some youngsters like to do (like rugby), it seems that other youngsters refused to participate because they did not like the kind of sport. In addition, based on the qualitative data it seems that if a program is too intensive, this might demotivate youngsters to participate.

Competition in the sport program

According to the qualitative results, competition in the sport program seems to motivate the youngsters to participate and to try to win. The teams could be for example divided into a team of boys and a team of girls. If the girls won from the boys, the next time this can motivate the boys to try to win from the girls. Employees of youth care organisations experienced this competition of boys against the girls as encouraging for sport participation. Hence, it is recommended to integrate a competition-element into the sport program.

Enjoyment of sport participation

Based on qualitative and quantitative data, enjoyment in sport participation seems to be an important aspect in relation to sport participation of socially vulnerable youth. With regard to the quantitative data, enjoyment of sport participation is associated with positive youth development, which could be a reason to focus on enjoyment of sport participation. With regard to the qualitative data, enjoyment of sport already seemed to receive attention since it was a goal of sport coaches and employees of youth care organisations. In addition, it seemed that youngsters that enjoyed sport were more likely to participate in sport. Hence, it is recommended to focus on enjoyment of sport participation.

Mandatory sport program and separation between motivated and unmotivated youngsters
If the youngsters could choose whether they wanted to participate or not, they would probably choose to not participate, but if the sport program would be mandatory, the youngsters would not think about that choice and participate. Therefore a mandatory sport program is recommended. It is important to note that some youngsters could refuse to participate in the mandatory sport program. Therefore, youngsters that refused to participate should be kept away from the other (motivated) youngsters during the sport program, so other youngsters might be less likely to copy that refusing behaviour. Therefore it is also recommended to separate the motivated youngsters from the unmotivated youngsters during the sport program.

In box 13, the recommendations are summarised.

Box 13: Recommendations for sport programs with socially vulnerable youth

1. Communicate clearly about group size, equipment and situation of the youth
2. Stimulate participation of employees of the youth care organisation in the sport program
3. Sport coaches and employees of youth care organisations should be supportive
4. The sport program should be accessible and entertaining for a broad public
5. Integrate a competition-element in the sport program to stimulate sport participation
6. Focus on enjoyment of sport participation
7. Make the sport program mandatory and separate the refusing youngsters from the motivated youngsters

---

References

Addison, T., Kremer, J., & Bell, R. (1998). Understanding the psychology of pain in sport. *The Irish Journal of Psychology, 19*(4), 486-503.

Alferman, D., & Stoll, O. (2000). Effects of physical exercise on self-concept and well-being. *International Journal of Sport Psychology, 31*(1), 47-65.

Allender, S., Cowburn, G., & Foster, C. (2006). Understanding participation in sport and physical activity among children and adults: a review of qualitative studies. *Health Education Research, 21*(6), 826-835.

Anderssen, N., & Wold, B. (1992). Parental and peer influences on leisure-time physical activity in young adolescents. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, 63*(4), 341-348.

Antonovsky, A. (1979). *Health, stress, and coping*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Antonovsky, A. (1987). *Unraveling the mystery of health*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Antonovsky, A., & Sagy, S. (1986). The development of a sense of coherence and its impact on responses to stress situations. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 126*(2), 213-225.

Bailey, R. (2005). Evaluating the relationship between physical education, sport and social inclusion. *Educational Review, 57*(1), 71-90.

Bailey, R. (2006). Physical education and sport in schools: a review of benefits and outcomes. *Journal of School Health, 76*(8), 397-401.

Black, N. (2001). Evidence based policy: Proceed with care. *British Medical Journal, 323*(7307), 275-279.

Bonhauser, M., Fernandez, G., Puschel, K., Yanez, F., Montero, J., Thompson, B., & Coronado, G. (2005). Improving physical fitness and emotional well-being in adolescents of low socioeconomic status in Chile: results of a school-based controlled trial. *Health Promotion International, 20*(2), 113-122.

Boonstra, N. G. J., Gilsing, R., Hermens, N. J., & van Marissing, E. (2010). Sporten, geen probleem. Een onderzoek naar het bevorderen van sportdeelname van jeugdigen met gedragsproblemen. Utrecht: Verwey-Jonker Instituut.

Braun, V., & Clarke, C. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*, 77-101.

Breuer, C., Hallmann, K., & Wicker, P. (2011). Determinants of sport participation in different sports. *Managing Leisure, 16*(4), 269-286.

Brownson, R. C., Chriqui, J. F., & Stamatakis, K. A. (2009). Understanding evidence-based public health policy. *American Journal of Public Health, 99*(9), 1576-1583.

Burnett, C. (2001). Social impact assessment and sport development: Social spin-offs of the Australian-South Africa junior sport programme. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport, 36*(1), 41-57.

Buysse, W., & Duijvestijn, P. (2011). Sport zorgt: Ontwikkeling van vier waardevolle sportaanpakken voor jongeren in jeugdzorg. Amsterdam: DSP - groep

Catalano, R. F., Berglund, M. L., Ryan, J. A. M., Lonczak, H. S., & Hawkins, J. D. (1998). Positive youth development in the United States: Research findings on evaluations of positive youth development programs. Seattle, Washington: Social Development Research Group, University of Washington.

Coakley, J. (2011). Youth sports: What counts as "positive development?". *Journal of Sport & Social Issues, 35*(3), 306-324. doi: 10.1177/0193723511417311

Damon, W. (2004). What is positive youth development? *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 591*, 13-24. doi: 10.2307/4127632

Debate, R. D., Pettee Gabriel, K., Zwald, M., Huberty, J., & Zhang, Y. (2009). Changes in psychosocial factors and physical activity frequency among third- to eighth-grade girls who participated in a developmentally focused youth sport program: A preliminary study. *Journal of School Health, 79*(10), 474-484.

DiLorenzo, T. M., Stucky-Ropp, R. C., Wal, J. S. V., Heather, J., & Gotham, M. A. (1998). Determinants of exercise among children. II. A longitudinal analysis. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine, 27*(3), 470-477.

Dishman, R. K., Hales, D. P., Pfeiffer, K. A., Felton, G. A., Saunders, R., Ward, D. S., . . . Pate, R. R. (2006). Physical self-concept and self-esteem mediate cross-sectional relations of physical activity and sport participation with depression symptoms among adolescent girls. *Health Psychology, 25*(3), 396-407.

Ekeland, E., Heian, F., & Hagen, K. B. (2005). Can exercise improve self esteem in children and young people? A systematic review of randomised controlled trials. *British Journal of Sports Medicine, 39*(11), 792-798. doi: 10.1136/bjsm.2004.017707

Eriksson, M., & Lindström, B. (2007). Antonovsky's sense of coherence scale and its relation with quality of life: a systematic review. *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health, 61*(11), 938-944. doi: 10.1136/jech.2006.056028

Feinstein, L., Bynner, J., & Duckworth, K. (2006). Young people's leisure contexts and their relation to adult outcomes. *Journal of Youth Studies, 9*(3), 305-327. doi: 10.1080/13676260600805663

Field, A. (2005). *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS*: Sage Publications Ltd.

Findlay, L. C., & Bowker, A. (2009). The link between competitive sport participation and self-concept in early adolescence: A consideration of gender and sport orientation. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 38*(1), 29-40. doi: 10.1007/s10964-007-9244-9

Fine, G. A. (1989). Mobilizing fun: provisioning resources in leisure worlds. *Sociology of Sport Journal, 6*(4), 319-334.

Fox, K. R. (1998). Advances in the measurement of the phyisal self. In J. L. Duda (Ed.), *Advances in Sport and Exercise Psychology Measurement*. Morgantown: Fitness Information Technology.

Fox, L. D., Rejeski, W. J., & Gauvin, L. (2000). Effects of leadership style and group dynamics on enjoyment of physical activity. *American Journal of Health Promotion, 14*(5), 277-283.

France, A. (2000). Towards a sociological understanding of youth and their risk-taking. *Journal of Youth Studies, 3*(3), 317-331.

Fraser-Thomas, J. L., Côté, J., & Deakin, J. (2005). Youth sport programs: an avenue to foster positive youth development. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy, 10*(1), 19-40. doi: 10.1080/1740898042000334890

Frederick, C. M., & Ryan, R. M. (1993). Differences in motivation for sport and exercise and their relations with participation and mental health. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 16*(3), 124-146.

Gould, D., & Carson, S. (2008). Life skills development through sport: current status and future directions. *International Review of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 1*(1), 58-78. doi: 10.1080/17509840701834573

Hallmann, K., & Breuer, C. (2012). The influence of socio-demographic indicators economic determinants and social recognition on sport participation in Germany. *European Journal of Sport Science, 14*(1), 324-331.

Hart, H., Boeije, H., & Hox, J. (2005). *Onderzoeksmethoden*: Boom onderwijs.

Haudenhuyse, R., Theeboom, M., & Nols, Z. (2013). Sports-based interventions for socially vulnerable youth: Towards well-defined interventions with easy-to-follow outcomes? *International Review for the Sociology of Sport, 48*(4), 471-484. doi: 10.1177/1012690212448002

Haudenhuyse, R., Theeboom, M., Nols, Z., & Coussée, F. (2014). Socially vulnerable young people in Flemish sports clubs: Investigating youth experiences. *European Physical Education Review, 20*(2), 179-198. doi: 10.1177/1356336x13508686

Haynes, R. B., & Haines, A. (1998). Barriers and bridges to evidence based clinical practice. *British Medical Journal, 317*, 273-276.

Hohepa, M., Scragg, R., Schofield, G., Kolt, G. S., & Schaaf, D. (2007). Social support for youth physical activity: Importance of siblings, parents, friends and school support across a segmented school day. *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity, 4*(1), 54.

Holt, N. L. (2007). *Positive youth development through sport*: Taylor & Francis.

Holt, N. L., & Neely, K. C. (2011). Positive youth development through sport: A review. *Revista iberoamericana de psicología del ejercicio y el deporte, 6*(2), 299-316.

Honkinen, P. K., Suominen, S. B., Välimaa, R. S., Helenius, H. Y., & Rautava, P. T. (2005). Factors associated with perceived health among 12-year-old school children. Relevance of physical exercise and sense of coherence. *Scandinavian Journal of Public Health, 33*(1), 35-41. doi: 10.1080/14034940410028307

Hutschemaekers, G., & Tiemens, B. (2006). Evidence-based policy: from answer to question. In J. Duyvendak, T. Knijn, M. Kremer & M. Trappenburg (Eds.), *Policy, people and the new professional*. Amsterdam: Amsterdam University Press.

Jackson, S. A., & Marsh, H. W. (1986). Athletic or antisocial? The female sport experience. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 9*, 198-211.

Jakobsson, B. T. (2012). What makes teenagers continue? A salutogenic approach to understand youth participation in Swedish sport clubs. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy, 19*(3), 239-252.

Jellesma, F., Meerum Terwogt, M., & Rieffe, C. (2006). De Nederlandstalige Sense of Coherence vragenlijst voor kinderen. *gedrag en gezondheid, 34*(1), 12-17. doi: 10.1007/BF03087968

Jeugdzorg Nederland. (2011). Naar integrale zorg. Zwolle.

Jirasek, I., & Hurych, E. (2012). Pain and suffering in sport. *Human Movement, 13*(2), 185-189.

Klomsten, A. T., Skaalvik, E., & Espnes, G. (2004). Physical self-concept and sports: do gender differences still exist? *Sex Roles, 50*(1-2), 119-127. doi: 10.1023/B:SERS.0000011077.10040.9a

Lee, J., Lee, C., & Min-Haeng, C. (2004). Influence of perceived constraints and social factors on sport participation after school among Korean youths. *World Leisure Journal, 46*(2), 48-54.

Lubans, D. R., Morgan, P. J., & McCormack, A. (2011). Adolescents and school sport: the relationship between beliefs, social support and physical self-perception. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy, 16*(3), 237-250.

Maffulli, N., Longo, U. G., Gougoulias, N., Loppini, M., & Denaro, V. (2010). Long-term health outcomes of youth sports injuries. *British Journal of Sports Medicine, 44*(1), 21-25. doi: 10.1136/bjsm.2009.069526

Mariën, I., & Courtois, C. (2012). Kwantitatief onderzoek en kwetsbare groepen: Naar het representatief insluiten van verborgen of moeilijk bereikbare groepen. *Etmaal van de Communicatiewetenschap*. KU Leuven.

Marsh, H. W. (1986). Global self-esteem: Its relation to specific facets of self-concept and their importance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*, 1224-1236.

Marsh, H. W. (1993). Physical fitness self-concept: Relations to field and technical indicators of physical fitness for boys and girls aged 9-15. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 15*, 184-206.

Marsh, H. W., Martin, A. J., & Jackson, S. (2010). Introducing A short version of the Physical Self Description Questionnaire: New strategies, short-form evaluative criteria, and applications of factor analyses. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 32*, 438-482.

Marsh, H. W., & Redmayne, R. S. (1994). A multidimensional physical self-concept and its relations to multiple components of physical fitness *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 16*, 43-55.

McAuley, E., Blissmer, B., Katula, J., Duncan, T., & Mihalko, S. (2000). Physical activity, self-esteem, and self-efficacy relationships in older adults: A randomized controlled trial. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine, 22*(2), 131-139. doi: 10.1007/BF02895777

McDonough, M. H., & Crocker, P. R. E. (2005). Sport participation motivation in young adolescent firls: The role of friendship quality and self-concept. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, 76*(4), 456-467.

Pelham, B. W., & Swann, W. B. (1989). From self-conceptions to self-worth: On the sources and structure of global self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 57*(4), 672-680.

Peluso, M. A. M., & Andrade, L. H. S. G. d. (2005). Physical activity and mental health: the association between exercise and mood. *Clinics, 60*, 61-70.

Perkins, D. F., & Noam, G. G. (2007). Characteristics of sport-based youth development programs. *New Directions for Youth Development, 2007*(115), 75-84. doi: 10.1002/yd.224

Redl, F., & Wineman, D. (1951). *Children who hate*. New York.

Reiner, M., Niermann, C., Jekauc, D., & Woll, A. (2013). Long-term health benefits of physical activity- a systematic review of longitudinal studies. *BMC Public Health, 13*, 813. doi: 10.1186/1471-2458-13-813

Rogers, C. R. (1950). The significance of the self-regarding attitudes and pereceptions. In M. L. Reymert (Ed.), *Feeling and Emotion: The Moosehart Symposium*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Rosenberg, M. (1979). *Conceiving the self*. New York: Basic Books.

Sackett, D. L., Rosenberg, W. M. C., Gray, J. A. M., & Haynes, R. B. (1996). Evidence based medicine: what it is and what it isn't. *British Medical Journal, 312*, 71-72.

Sagar, S. S., Lavallee, D., & Spray, C. M. (2007). Why young elite athletes fear failure: Consequences of failure. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 25*(11), 1171-1184. doi: 10.1080/02640410601040093

Scanlan, T. K., & Lewthwaite, R. (1984). Social psychological aspects of the competitive sport experience for male youth sport participants: Predictors of competitive stress. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 6*, 208-226.

Schneider, M., Dunton, G. F., & Cooper, D. M. (2008). Physical activity and physical self-concept among sedentary adolescent females: An intervention study. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 9*(1), 1-14.

Shavelson, R. J., Hubner, J. J., & Stanton, J. C. (1976). Self-concept: validation of construct interpretations. *Review of Educational Research, 46*, 407-441.

Skille, E., & Osteras, J. (2011). What does sport mean to you? Fun and other preferences for adolesecents' sport participation. *Critical Public Health, 21*(3), 359-372.

Slutzky, C. B., & Simpkins, S. D. (2009). The link between children's sport participation and self-esteem: Exploring the mediating role of sport self-concept. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 10*(3), 381-389. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2008.09.006

Sollerhed, A.-C., Ejlertsson, G., & Apitzsch, E. (2005). Predictors of strong sense of coherence and positive attitudes to physical education in adolescents. *Scandinavian Journal of Public Health, 33*(5), 334-342. doi: 10.1080/14034940510005833

Sonstroem, R. J. (1997). The physicl self-system: A mediator of exercise and self-esteem. In K. R. Fox (Ed.), *The physical self: From motivation to well-being* (pp. 3-26). Champagin, IL: Human Kinetics.

Sonstroem, R. J., & Morgan, W. P. (1989). Exercise and self-esteem: rationale and model. *Medicine & Science in Sports & Exercise, 21*(3), 329-337.

Spaaij, R. (2009). Sport as a vehicle for social mobility and regulation of disadvantaged urban youth: Lessons from Rotterdam. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport, 44*(2-3), 247-264. doi: 10.1177/1012690209338415

Theeboom, M., Knop, P. D., & Wylleman, P. (2008). Martial arts and socially vulnerable youth. An analysis of Flemish initiatives. *Sport, Education and Society, 13*(3), 301-318. doi: 10.1080/13573320802200677

Tomporowski, P. D., Lambourne, K., & Okumura, M. S. (2011). Physical activity interventions and children's mental function: An introduction and overview. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine, 52*, S3-S9. doi: org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2011.01.028

Tremblay, M. S., Inman, J. W., & Willms, J. D. (2000). The relationship between physical activity, self-esteem, and academic achievement in 12-year-old children. *Pediatric Exercise Science, 12*, 312-323.

Trussel, D. E. (2014). Contradictory aspects of organized youth sport: Challenging and fostering sibling relationships and participation experiences. *Youth Society, 46*(6), 801-818.

Walgrave, L. (1992). Maatschappelijke kwetsbaarheid van jongeren als opdracht: Social vulnerability of youth as a mission. In P. D. Knop & L. Walgrave (Eds.), *Sport als integratie. Kansen voor maatschappelijk kwetsbare jongeren* (pp. 19-36). Brussel: Koning Boudewijnstichting.

Wankel, L. M., & Kreisel, P. S. J. (1985). Factors underlying enjoyment of youth sports: Sport and age group comparisons. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 7*, 51-64.

Yitschaky, O., Yitschaky, M., & Zadik, Y. (2011). Case report on trial. Do you, Doctor, swear to tell the truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth? *Journal of Medical Case Reports, 5*(1), 179.

Zaharopoulos, E., & Hodge, K. P. (1991). Self-Concept and Sport Participation. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology, 20*, 12-16.

Uitleg

Beste jongere,

Deze vragenlijst bevat vragen over jezelf, je sport en je school. Het is belangrijk dat je op **alle vragen antwoord geeft**, zodat de gegevens goed verwerkt kunnen worden.

Het is belangrijk dat je de vragen zo eerlijk mogelijk beantwoordt en je eigen mening geeft. Er zijn geen 'goede' of 'foute' antwoorden. Het invullen van de vragenlijst duurt ongeveer 15 minuten. De antwoorden zullen anoniem en vertrouwelijk behandeld worden, dus ze worden niet besproken met andere mensen (bijvoorbeeld: vrienden, begeleiders of ouders). De antwoorden worden alleen voor wetenschappelijke doeleinden gebruikt.

Alvast bedankt voor het invullen van de vragenlijst.

Succes!

1. Ben je nieuw bij de jeugdzorginstelling of vertrek je?

Ik ben er nog maar net

Ik vertrek van de jeugdzorginstelling

2. Wat is je naam? (vul je voor- en achternaam in)

3. Ben je een jongen of een meisje?

Jongen

Meisje

4. Welke studie volg je?

LBO / Pronova

VMBO / MBO

HAVO

VWO

5. Welke sporten heb je vroeger allemaal gedaan? Typ ze alsjeblieft hieronder

6. Sport je op dit moment? (naast de sportactiviteiten die worden aangeboden bij de jeugdzorginstelling)

7. Hoe vaak sport je per week? (inclusief de aangeboden sportactiviteiten van de jeugdzorginstelling)

0 keer

1 keer

2 keer

3 keer

4 keer of vaker

8. Vind je het leuk om te sporten?

Ja, erg leuk

Een beetje leuk

Neutraal

Niet zo leuk

Nee, totaal niet leuk

9. Wat vind je van de sportactiviteiten die worden aangeboden door de jeugdzorginstelling?

Erg leuk

Een beetje leuk

Neutraal

Niet zo leuk

Totaal niet leuk

Ik heb niet meegedaan met de sportactiviteiten

10. Hoe vaak heb je meegedaan met de bokslessen die werden aangeboden door de jeugdzorginstelling?

Nooit

Zelden

Soms

Vaak

Altijd

11. Heb je gebruik gemaakt van het sportschoolabonnement?

Ja

Nee

12. Hoe vaak heb je gebruik gemaakt van het sportschoolabonnement?

1 keer in de 2 weken

1 keer per week

2 keer per week

3 keer per week

4 keer per week of vaker

13. Hieronder staan verschillende uitspraken over sporten en je lichaam. Klik het antwoord aan dat het beste bij je past. Er zijn geen goede of foute antwoorden.

	helemaal niet waar	gedeeltelijk niet waar	neutraal	gedeeltelijk waar	helemaal waar
Ik doe vaak oefeningen of activiteiten die me buiten adem maken	O	O	O	O	O
Ik doe minimaal 3 keer per week lichamelijke activiteiten (zoals rennen, dansen, fietsen, gymen, zwemmen)	O	O	O	O	O
Ik doe veel aan sport, dansen, gymen of andere lichamelijke activiteiten	O	O	O	O	O
Ik sport, beweeg, dans of doe andere lichamelijke activiteiten bijna elke dag	O	O	O	O	O
Ik heb een mooi gezicht	O	O	O	O	O
Ik zie er beter uit dan mijn meeste vrienden	O	O	O	O	O
Ik zie er goed uit	O	O	O	O	O
Mijn middel (op de plaats van je buik) is te breed	O	O	O	O	O
	helemaal niet waar	gedeeltelijk niet waar	neutraal	gedeeltelijk waar	helemaal waar
Ik heb teveel vet op mijn lichaam	O	O	O	O	O
Ik heb overgewicht	O	O	O	O	O

Gecoördineerde bewegingen (zoals een bal gooien of met je voet een bal wegschieten) maak ik met zelfvertrouwen	○	○	○	○	○
Het beheersen van bewegingen van mijn lichaam is makkelijk voor mij	○	○	○	○	○
Ik ben goed in gecoördineerde bewegingen (zoals een bal gooien of met je voet een bal wegschieten)	○	○	○	○	○
Ik maak soepele bewegingen bij de meeste lichamelijke activiteiten	○	○	○	○	○
Ik maak makkelijk gecoördineerde bewegingen (zoals een bal gooien of met je voet een bal wegschieten)	○	○	○	○	○
Ik kan lang rennen zonder te stoppen	○	○	○	○	○

	helemaal niet waar	gedeeltelijk niet waar	neutraal	gedeeltelijk waar	helemaal waar
Ik kan lang lichamelijk actief zijn zonder moe te worden	○	○	○	○	○
Ik ben goed in langdurige activiteiten zoals lang rennen, zwemmen of skiën	○	○	○	○	○
Over het algemeen gaan de meeste dingen die ik doe goed	○	○	○	○	○
Over het algemeen kan ik dingen niet goed	○	○	○	○	○
De meeste dingen die ik doe, doe ik goed	○	○	○	○	○

Over het algemeen heb ik veel om trots op te zijn	○	○	○	○	○
Niets wat ik doe lijkt ooit goed te gaan	○	○	○	○	○
Ik ben goed in het buigen en draaien van mijn lichaam	○	○	○	○	○

	helemaal niet waar	gedeeltelijk niet waar	neutraal	gedeeltelijk waar	helemaal waar
Mijn lichaam is flexibel	○	○	○	○	○
Ik denk dat ik goed presteer bij een test die mijn flexibiliteit meet	○	○	○	○	○
Lichamelijk ben ik blij met mezelf	○	○	○	○	○
Lichamelijk voel ik me goed over mezelf	○	○	○	○	○
Ik voel me goed over wie ik lichamelijk ben	○	○	○	○	○
Als anderen ziek zijn, steken ze mij vaak aan	○	○	○	○	○
Ik ben vaak ziek	○	○	○	○	○
Ik ben zo vaak ziek dat ik niet alle dingen kan doen die ik wil doen	○	○	○	○	○

	helemaal niet waar	gedeeltelijk niet waar	neutraal	gedeeltelijk waar	helemaal waar
Wanneer ik ziek ben, duurt het lang voordat ik weer beter ben	○	○	○	○	○
Ik moet vaker naar de dokter omdat ik ziek ben dan andere kinderen van mijn leeftijd	○	○	○	○	○
Ik ben goed in de meeste sporten	○	○	○	○	○
Ik heb goede sport vaardigheden	○	○	○	○	○

	nooit	zelden	soms	vaak	altijd
Ik ben goed in sporten	○	○	○	○	○
Ik ben lichamelijk sterk	○	○	○	○	○
Ik heb veel kracht in mijn lichaam	○	○	○	○	○
Ik zou het goed doen bij een krachttest	○	○	○	○	○

Dit is de laatste pagina met vragen. **Let op!** Klik na deze vraag op verder om de vragenlijst te voltooien.

14. Klik het antwoord aan dat het beste bij je past.

	nooit	zelden	soms	vaak	altijd
Hoe vaak heb je het gevoel dat het je niet kan schelen wat er om je heen gebeurt?	○	○	○	○	○
Hoe vaak is het gebeurd dat je je verbaasde over het gedrag van iemand die je goed dacht te kennen?	○	○	○	○	○
Hoe vaak is het gebeurd dat iemand waarop je dacht te kunnen vertrouwen je heeft teleurgesteld?	○	○	○	○	○
Hoe vaak heb je het gevoel dat je oneerlijk bent behandeld?	○	○	○	○	○

	nooit	zelden	soms	vaak	altijd
Hoe vaak heb je het gevoel dat je in een onbekende situatie bent en je niet weet wat je moet doen?	○	○	○	○	○
Hoe vaak gebeurt het dat je zelf niet helemaal begrijpt wat je denkt en voelt?	○	○	○	○	○
Hoe vaak heb je gevoelens die je liever niet wilt hebben?	○	○	○	○	○

	nooit	zelden	soms	vaak	altijd
Veel mensen – zelfs met een sterk karakter – hebben wel eens het gevoel een mislukkeling te zijn. Hoe vaak heb jij je in het verleden zo gevoeld?	○	○	○	○	○
Hoe vaak heb je het gevoel dat je niet precies weet wat er gaat gebeuren?	○	○	○	○	○
Hoe vaak heb je het gevoel dat de dingen die je elke dag doet, niet zo belangrijk zijn?	○	○	○	○	○
Hoe vaak heb je gevoelens waarvan je niet zeker weet of je ze onder controle kunt houden?	○	○	○	○	○

	heel slecht	slecht	neutraal	goed	heel goed
Hoe denk je dat je je zult voelen over dingen die je later, in de toekomst, gaat doen?	○	○	○	○	○
Hoe voel je je over de dingen die je elke dag doet?	○	○	○	○	○

Dit is het einde van de vragenlijst! Heel erg bedankt voor je deelname.

Klik op de pijltjes rechtsonder om de vragenlijst te voltooien.

Appendix II Permission statement

Toestemmingsformulier

Deelname onderzoek vrijetijdsbesteding

Beste jongere,

Mijn naam is Vera, ik ben 23 jaar en ben momenteel bezig met een onderzoek naar vrijetijdsbesteding. Ik studeer Gezondheid en Maatschappij aan de Wageningen universiteit. Ik zou er erg mee geholpen zijn als je mee zou willen doen aan het onderzoek. Als je mee doet, houdt dit in dat je bij de opname bij de jeugdzorginstelling en bij vertrek een vragenlijst invult (duurt ± 15 minuten).

Als jij mee doet aan het onderzoek dan heb ik daarvoor toestemming nodig van jou en van je ouder/verzorger. Als je dit formulier ondertekent, geef je toestemming om mee te doen aan het onderzoek.

- Meedoen houdt alleen in dat je bij de opname in de jeugdzorginstelling en bij vertrek een vragenlijst invult (duurt ± 15 minuten).
- De resultaten zullen geheel anoniem worden verwerkt, in een beveiligde database.
- Deelname is op vrijwillige basis en is niet verplicht.
- Je kunt de toestemming altijd zonder reden weer intrekken.

Naam jongere:...

Geboortedatum jongere:..

Naam ouder/verzorger: ....

Adres:...

Postcode + Woonplaats:...

Telefoonnummer (overdag):...

Ik stem toe met deelname aan het onderzoek.

Datum: Handtekening ouder/verzorger: Handtekening jongere:

....

Indien telefonische toestemming ouder/verzorger,
naam en handtekening medewerker Jeugdzorginstelling Eindhoven:

....

Introductie

Mijn naam is Vera, ik ben masterstudent aan de Wageningen Universiteit en doe de studie Gezondheid & Maatschappij. Momenteel ben ik bezig met mijn afstudeeronderzoek. Dit afstudeeronderzoek gaat over jongeren en sportparticipatie. Het doel van het onderzoek is om bij te dragen aan kennis over jongeren en sportparticipatie. Het interview gaat om uw ervaring met jongeren en het sportprogramma. Het interview zal ongeveer 45 (coach/medewerker Jeugdzorg) / 30 (jongere) minuten duren.

Informed consent
1. U werkt mee aan een onderzoek waarvoor dit interview wordt opgenomen.
2. U bent niet verplicht antwoord te geven en mag het interview stoppen wanneer u dat wilt, zonder opgaaf van reden.
3. Dit interview wordt vertrouwelijk behandeld, alleen de onderzoekers hebben inzage in de gegevens.
4. Dit interview wordt anoniem verwerkt zodat uw uitspraken niet naar u te herleiden zijn.
Is dit voor u duidelijk en gaat u akkoord met dit interview?

Deel 1: Achtergrond informatie
1. Kunt u uzelf kort voorstellen? (*leeftijd en geslacht noteren*)
2. Wat doet u in het dagelijks leven?

Sport coach / medewerker jeugdzorginstelling
3. Op welke manier bent u betrokken bij het sportprogramma bij de jeugdzorginstelling?
   - Vanaf wanneer bent u betrokken?
   - Vanuit welke organisatie?
   - Wat is uw functie?
4. Welke opleiding heeft u gedaan? (*pedagogiek, psychologie, MBO/HBO/WO, BSc/MSc*)

Jongere
5. Welke studie volg je? (*niveau, jaar*)
6. Waar verblijf je momenteel? (*welke jeugdzorginstelling*)
7. Hoe bevalt het?
8. Welke sporten beoefen je?
9. Hoevaak sport je per week?

Deel 2: Het sportprogramma

Sport coach / medewerker jeugdzorginstelling
Kenmerken sportprogramma
10. Wat voor een soort sport wordt er beoefend tijdens het sportprogramma?
11. Kunt u de indeling van het sportprogramma beschrijven? Waarom is er voor deze indeling gekozen?
12. Door wie wordt het sportprogramma gegeven/begeleid? (gediplomeerd?)
13. Wat is het doel van het sportprogramma denkt u?
14. Denkt u dat dit doel wordt bereikt? Waarom denkt u dat?
15. Hoe vaak wordt het sportprogramma aangeboden?
16. Waar wordt het sportprogramma aangeboden?
17. Is deelname verplicht of is het vrijwillig? Waarom is dat zo?
18. Wordt er een financiele bijdrage gevraagd voor het sportprogramma? Zo ja, hoeveel?
19. Met welke leeftijdsgroep heeft u gewerkt bij het sportprogramma?
20. Wat voor type zorgverlening ontvingen deze jongeren?
21. Wat was hun problematiek?
Inhoud sportprogramma
22. Wordt er bij het sportprogramma nadruk gelegd op winnen, plezier en/of ontwikkeling van de jongeren? Wat is het belangrijkst denkt u? Waarom denkt u dat?
23. Hoe zou u de coachingstijl van de sport coach beschrijven? Kunt u een voorbeeld noemen?
24. Wat voor een mentaal en sociaal klimaat wordt er gecreeerd voor de jongeren tijdens het sportprogramma? (*open sfeer, ruimte voor proberen en leren, positief of negatief sociaal contact*)
25. Hoe is het respect tussen de sport coach en de jongeren? En tussen de jongeren onderling?
26. Ervaart u wel eens conflicten met jongeren tijdens het sporten? Waar gaan die conflicten over? Hoe lost u die dan op?
27. Hoe wordt er door de sport coach gereageerd op negatief gedrag van jongeren op elkaar (bv uitlachen als iemand de bal mist)? En door de medewerker van de Jeugdzorginstelling?

28. Hoe wordt er door de sport coach gereageerd op positief gedrag van jongeren op elkaar (zoals een compliment op techniek)? En door de medewerker van de Jeugdzorginstelling?
29. Is er bij het sportprogramma een samenwerking met ouders, scholen of een andere partij? Wat voor een samenwerking? Waarom is deze samenwerking er (niet)?
30. Heeft u ervaring met andere sportprogramma's met kwetsbare jongeren?
Zo ja, vraag 10 t/m 28 herhalen voor dit sportprogramma

Jongere
31. Hoe vaak heb je mee gedaan aan het sportprogramma? Waarom?
32. Kun je de indeling van het sportprogramma beschrijven? Wat vind je van de indeling/structuur van het sportprogramma?
33. Wat voor een advies zou je geven aan de sport coach over de indeling van de sportlessen?
34. Kun je beschrijven wat voor een sociale sfeer er heerst tijdens het sportprogramma?

Relatie met andere jongeren
35. Kun je de relatie met de andere sportende jongeren omschrijven? Hoe gaan jullie met elkaar om?
36. Voel je je verbonden met de andere sportende jongeren? Denk je dat je door het sporten een betere band met hun krijgt? Waarom denk je dat?
37. Ga je met respect om met de medesportende jongeren? En zij met jou? Waarom wel/niet?
38. Komt het wel eens voor dat een jongere zich onaardig gedraagt tegenover een andere jongere? (bv iemand wordt uitgelachen omdat hij de bal mist tijdens een potje voetbal) Hoe reageren de andere jongeren daarop? Hoe reageert de coach daar op?

Relatie met de coach
39. Kun je je relatie met de sport coach omschrijven?
40. Heb je het gevoel dat de coach je stimuleert om mee te doen met het sporten? Waardoor komt dat denk je? Kun je een voorbeeld geven waaruit dat blijkt?
41. Hoe is het respect tussen jou en de coach? En hoe is het respect tussen de andere sportende jongeren en de coach?
42. Komt het wel eens voor dat een jongere zich onaardig gedraagt tegenover de coach? Hoe reageert de coach daar op? Hoe reageren de andere jongeren daarop?

Competenties van de coach
43. Wat vind je van de communicatie vaardigheden van de coach? (*duidelijke communicatie, consequent*)
44. Wat vind je van de sport vaardigheden van de coach?
45. Heb je het gevoel dat er tijdens het sporten ruimte is om te oefenen en fouten te maken en daarvan te leren? Waar komt dat door denk je?
46. Heb je het gevoel dat je beter wordt in sporten door het sportprogramma? Waarom wel/niet? Draagt de coach hier ook aan bij? Zo ja, hoe dan?
47. Wat voor een advies zou je aan de sport coach geven over de communicatie tijdens de sportlessen?

Deel 3: Participatie aan het sportprogramma

Sport coach / medewerker jeugdzorginstelling
48. Wat is uw ervaring met het sportprogramma? (positief/negatief)? Waar komt dat door denkt u?
49. Wat is uw ervaring met de deelname van de jongeren aan het sportprogramma? Waar komt dat door denkt u? Hoe gaat u daarmee om?
50. Hoe wordt er gereageerd op jongeren die niet mee willen doen met het sportprogramma?
51. Hoe wordt er gereageerd op jongeren die te laat zijn bij het sportprogramma?
52. Wat voor een advies zou u geven aan andere Jeugdzorginstellingen die een sportprogramma voor kwetsbare jongeren op willen zetten?

Jongere
53. Heb je zelf soms geen zin om mee te doen aan het sportprogramma? Waarom is dat denk je?
54. Stel, je zit een dag niet zo lekker in je vel en hebt eigenlijk geen zin om te sporten. Wat zou jou dan toch over kunnen halen om toch te gaan sporten?
55. Hebben andere jongeren wel eens geen zin om mee te doen aan het sportprogramma? Waar komt dat door denk je?
56. Zou je andere jongeren aanraden mee te doen met het sportprogramma? Waarom wel/niet?

Heeft u nog vragen over het onderzoek?

Heel erg bedankt voor uw tijd en betrokkenheid. Indien u de resultaten van het onderzoek wilt ontvangen, dan zou ik graag uw e-mail adres noteren.