



MAPPING OF CONTEXT, POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES

INTEGRATION OF NEWLY ARRIVED MIGRANTS
THROUGH ORGANISED SPORT —
FROM EUROPEAN POLICY TO LOCAL
SPORTS CLUB PRACTICE (INAMOS)

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O Introduction

Based on a review of current research, there is no existing comparative analysis of political frameworks regarding conditions, initiatives, programmes or roll-out strategies across different EU member states that foster social integration of newly arrived migrants (NAMs) in organised sport. Therefore, it is important to analyse and compare the role of certain contextual conditions such as political sport programmes and sports federations that promote the implementation of programmes and initiatives for social integration of migrants in voluntary sports clubs (VSCs) (roll-out strategies). This should be reviewed and reconstructed against the backdrop of integration, as well as the political significance of sport and VSCs in different countries.

Analysis of the relevant socio-political context was conducted from two perspectives: (1) The first perspective considers the specific integration challenges and general societal and migration characte-

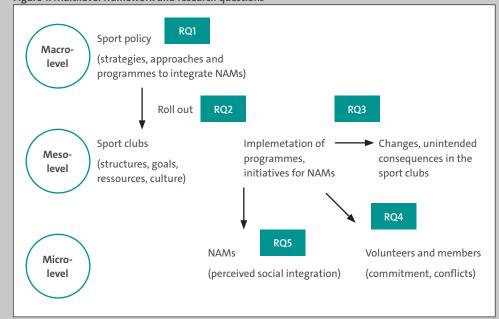
ristics and migrant policies in the country. (2) The second perspective considers sport policy and politics as well as the general framework under which VSCs in the country operate. This refers to implementation of policies or practices that attempt to integrate migrants through sport launched by public stakeholders (e.g., ministries and public agencies) or sports organisations (e.g., umbrella sport organisations), and how the programmes are designed, and which roll-out strategy is pursued.

Therefore, this report addresses the first two main research questions of the INAMOS project:

RQ 1: Which strategies, approaches and programmes are currently being used in the participating countries to encourage VSCs to integrate NAMs?

RQ 2: How are sport-based integration programmes for NAMs "rolled-out" to the level of local sports clubs? What kind of support structures and incentives are needed for a successful and targeted "rollout"?

Figure 1. Multilevel framework and research questions



In figure 1, these two main research questions are embedded in the multi-level framework and in the context of the other main research questions (see in more detail report: PROJECT MANUAL).

These first two research questions were examined as part of a mapping exercise of national programmes. This mapping was performed nationally by the researchers participating in the project. Importantly, the comparator nations of Australia and Canada were included.

As a first step, the mapping of national programmes was carried out using the following aspects to facilitate the selection of one programme per country involved in the project:

 What programmes are established to introduce NAMs to sports club activities? (broad overview of information readily available)

For each prospective programme:

- 2. Level (i.e., national, regional, local)
- 3. Sender (e.g., government, NGO, private actor)
- 4. Size (e.g., budget, number of organisations involved, timeframe)

The answers to these aspects were used for the construction of a sample equipped to provide variation and contrasts.

In a second step, an analytical grid (see report: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY) formed the basis for data collection by the respective partners. Partners were asked to collect the required information about the programme selected through desktop research and, where required, expert interviews. The questions fall under two main themes: Contextual conditions and Programmes.

O Findings: Contextual conditions for integrating NAMs through sport

Integration challenges

The so-called European refugee crisis in 2015 posed challenges for many EU-Member states that had to deal with a large influx of migrants and refugees. To understand these challenges and potential differences between the countries participating in the project, we asked questions about each country's migration ratio (in general) and distribution, particularly with regards to the overall percentage of the population with a migrant background and the total number of NAMS (in particular) and the demography (country of origin, age, gender) of this group.

Regarding the overall percentage of the population with a migrant background, Table 1 shows significant variation spanning from Denmark (10,5%) to Switzerland (37,7%).

Table 1. Migration ratio in the participating countries

Country	Percentage of individuals with a migration background in the population
Australia (2020)	29,7
Canada (2016)	21,7
Denmark (2020)	10,5
Germany (2020)	26,7
Norway (2020)	14,7
Sweden (2020)	19,6
Switzerland (2020)	37,7

While these data provide some understanding of the conditions for meeting the integration challenges following the refugee crisis in 2015, it is important to also understand that migrants as a group are very heterogenous and that migration from neighbouring countries may be different to migration from more geographically and culturally distant countries. Therefore, Table 2 shows the total number of NAMs and their distribution according to their country of origin, age, and gender. It should be noted though, that these proportions, and the information they are derived from, should be seen as rough indications since there are many potential error sources associated with their construction. Most of all, as the concept of migrants is contested and even though project members agreed on specific definitions, data sources (such as official statistics) are bound by their own definitions

This means that the meaning of the term migrant can range from an individual being born abroad to an individual with grandparents born abroad. So, for example, while the Swiss proportion is large, it includes 1st, 2nd, and 3rd generation migrants.

Table 2. Demographics of NAMs in the participating countries

Country	Total number	Countries of origin (top-three in falling order)	Age (largest age group)	Gender	Population (millions)
Australia	2019: 537.800 (primarily visitor and higher education sector-visas)	South and central Asia, North-East Asia, Oceania	20-24	52 % female	25,50
Canada	242.415 per year 2011–2016	Philippines, India, China	0-15	59 % female	37,74
Denmark	5.336 per year 2010–2019	Asia, Africa, Euro- pe-outside EU	0-14	51 % male	5,79
Germany	343.653 per year 2015–2020	Syria, Afghanis- tan, Iraq	18-29	68 % male	83,78
Norway	43.565 per year 2015–2019	Poland, Syria, Lit- huania	0-18	75 % male	5,42
Sweden	52.188 per year 2015–2019	Syria, Iraq, Afgha- nistan	0-18	67 % male	10,01
Switzer- land	2020: 11.041 (+ 54.134 in the process of applying for asylum)	Eritrea, Afghanis- tan, Turkey	20-29	60 % male	8,67

Although these data sets are not completely comparable, it is evident that the recent influx of migrants differ between the participating countries. Public opinion on migration also varies between the participating countries, perhaps reflecting numerical differences. In Canada, somewhat contra-intuitively with its comparably high proportion of NAMs, immigration is not a topic of concern for federal voters and is not an issue that strongly divides the country. On the contrary, the population is largely positive towards the economic benefits immigrants bring. In Denmark, and despite its comparably low proportion of NAMs, immigration and refugee policy are one of the topics that are high on the political agenda for citizens. The majority of the population believes that immigrants and refugees will cause problems in the country, especially in relation to the eco-

nomy, welfare society services, crime and national identity. It should also be noted though, that many Danes hold the attitude that Denmark should accept refugees and has a moral obligation to help people in need. The remaining countries (Australia, Germany, Norway, Sweden, and Switzerland) are located on a continuum between Canada and Denmark. Australians, with the largest proportion of NAMs, generally hold a positive opinion on immigration, although concerns are raised regarding the social welfare system. Similarly, Germans are also concerned with immigrants being a burden on the welfare system while simultaneously holding an opportunist view on immigration, with large support for skills-based immigration. Norway is similar in that respect, becoming increasingly more receptive towards immigrants, due to their positive contribution in the labour market and cul-

tural life. Swedes hold positive attitudes toward migration in general, compared to other European countries. But similar to Germany, attitudes vary with reasons for immigration where immigration for work and study and from regions perceived to be culturally and ethnically close is viewed most favourably. Lastly, in Switzerland about half of the Swiss population think that immigration should be reduced, while a fifth of the population are determined opponents of immigration. It should be noted though, that in Switzerland (as in many other countries) public opinion tends to vary over short time periods depending on how political issues (such as those about immigration) are framed. It should also be noted that these numbers are also associated with similar problems of measurement as in Table 1 and should thus be treated with caution. Taking Australia as one example, its total number is comparably high due to the many visitors and exchange students entering the country each year. Taking Switzerland, as another example, age is noted only in the group 'unaccompanied minors', leading to potentially skewed

information about the largest age group.





General frameworks of migration policies

Current and previous integration challenges, together with public opinion on migration more broadly, has in turn shaped policies and politics for migration and integration in the participating countries. One of the basic assumptions underpinning their importance for sport-based integration is that the ways in which migrants are thought of ultimately affect sports clubs' potential to function as vehicles. Therefore, we sought information on the overall lines of argumentation regarding, first, the role of migration in society and migrants' societal contribution and/or costs, and second, the interrelation between civil society and integration of migrants that are associated with current public policies. We also asked questions about more specific aspects that are likely to affect migrants' daily life, namely the rules and associated lines of argumentation around seeking asylum and residence permits, NAM's place of residence and eligibility in the labour market and educational system.

Results show that, just as public opinions on immigration differ, so do public migration policy and politics. However, as in most public domains, lines of argumentation that are associated with public policies pertaining to the role of migration in society are shown to be less polarised than public opinion. One common characteristic in current public policies in the participating countries is the instrumental and opportunist view visible among public opinion in Germany, Norway and Sweden. This view is perhaps best exemplified by Switzerland stating that without foreign workforce, many economic sectors would not be able to maintain current levels of production. Similarly, but with a specific focus on skilled workforce, Germany and Sweden both see themselves as dependent on immigration

of qualified, skilled, and entrepreneurial workers. Canadian policies raise similar concerns but also point out that immigration has positive economic impacts in terms of raising domestic workers' wages. Denmark, instead, seems to have more concerns with an increasing shortage of unskilled labour. Therefore, foreign labour is necessary to maintain and develop the welfare system. Australian policies also emphasise that immigrants strengthen the country because of their hard work and talent. The government rhetoric is that welcoming immigrants is also central to the Australian identity since its openness to people from all over the world is essential for 'Who we are as a nation'.

In line with such an instrumental view on migrants' societal contribution, public policies in the participating countries are also quite clear on the societal costs of migrants. In some countries, they are first and foremost phrased as burdens on the welfare systems, as most prominently in Germany, Norway and to some extent in Australia. The latter, together with Canada, has certain sections of its population voicing concerns over a potential undermining of national identity. For Canada specifically, national identity issues are in turn connected to social cohesion more broadly. Danish and Swedish policies are less explicit on burdens on social welfare systems. Instead, Denmark emphasizes costs associated with difficulties in integrating immigrants in the labour market and the education system. In Sweden, which seems to be the least concerned with costs, societal costs are not prominent in government- or parliamentary statements on migration. However, societal costs are ascribed to failed integration, and there is thus an increased focus on 'societal information' (democracy, obligations, gender equality, children's rights, etc.).

In efforts to limit public spending, civil society organisations are often enrolled in efforts to meet societal challenges. This has been evident in many social spheres, in many countries globally and during long periods of time. Results show that addressing the challenges following the European Refugee Crisis in 2015 is no exception. In all the participating countries, civil society organisations are given and/or are taking responsibility for the integration of migrants. In some cases, this responsibility is explicitly voiced in public policies as in Germany's 'National Integration Plan' and Sweden's 'Agency for Youth and Civil Society'. In other cases, such as Denmark and Norway, public policies are less explicit but nevertheless visible. Canada, standing out in comparisons, has even less explicit formulations concerning the interrelation between civil society and integration of migrants and instead relies on bottom-up initiatives in which civil society organisations at the local level perform work associated with integration.



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The size, role and function of civil society

Finally, regarding the contextual conditions for integrating NAMs through sport, we asked questions about the basic structure of each country's voluntary sport system, including each country's total number of VSCs, total number of individual sports club memberships, and sport's role in broader civil society. We did this to further situate the results about national and regional policies, strategies and programmes aiming at integrating NAMs through sport, following in the next section. Table 3 shows the total number of civil society organisations, VSCs and individual sports club memberships in each country. It also shows the relationship between population size and individual sports club memberships.

Judging by these numbers, civil society organisations are a vital part of the society in the participating countries. Sports clubs, in turn, constitute a significant share of the populations of civil society organisations more broadly. This is especially visible in Canada and Switzerland, where sports clubs make up almost a fifth of the total population of civil society organisations. Although some of the numbers might provide a very precise impression, these should be handled with similar caution as with the rounded

numbers provided. As with Table 1 and 2, the numbers, and the information they are derived from, should be seen as rough indications since there are many potential error sources associated with their construction.

The possibility to act as a partner in public efforts to integrate NAMs is to a large extent based on the character of sports clubs as membership-based, non-profit, and voluntary. These characteristics are also the basis for considering sports clubs as civil society organisations. Other features common for sports clubs in the participating countries are that they are part of a hierarchical system in which club sport is organised in a federative, vertical (by sport) and horizontal (by geography), and membership-based system. In turn, it is common that all organisations at all levels are federated under a national-level. sport umbrella organisation. These characteristics are shared by Germany, Norway, Sweden, and Switzerland. Denmark follows the same principle, but sport is organised under three umbrella organisations with different aims, structures, and ideologies. Sport is largely delivered by nonprofit community sport organisations in Australia and Canada too, but in addition organized by schools, higher education bodies and migrant-specific organisations.

Table 3. Civil society organisation, sport organisations and memberships in the participating countries

Country	Civil society organisations	Voluntary sports clubs	Individual sports club memberships	Total population	Individual sports club memberships per inhabitant
Australia	600.000	70.000	-	25.499.884	-
Canada	175.000	33.649	-	37.742.154	-
Denmark	80.000	11.507	2.664.907	5.792.202	0,46
Germany	627.274	89.594	27.566.608	83.783.942	0,33
Norway	95.300	12.000	1.929.901	5.421.241	0,36
Sweden	257.572	18.000	3.149.000	10.099.265	0,31
Switzerland	100.000	19.000	2.000.000	8.654.622	0,23

Findings: Programme design in relation to (societal- and political-) context

The remaining part of the Findings section is concerned with civil society's and sports' societal role and its interrelation with the state, including the lines of argumentation that encompass political views on these aspects. The section furthermore deals with sport's autonomy (or lack thereof) vis-à-vis the state, and the funding schemes directed at sport-clubs in place in the participating countries.

The aim of the section is to highlight differences between countries regarding contextual aspects that presumably are most significant for our understanding of the programming of sport-club based integration of NAMs. In other words, contextual features that, although unique for that country, are unlikely to be impactful in terms of sports clubs' willingness and ability to work towards integration of NAMs have not been included. Our analysis focused on five separate ideational and material aspects according to which countries' programme design and implementation contexts may vary:

- 1. Civil society's ascribed societal role and interrelation with the state,
- 2. Sport's ascribed societal role,
- 3. The relationship between sport and government institutions,
- 4. Public funding schemes with sports clubs as recipients,
- 5. The design of the programme itself, including the actors enrolled in it, their relative role and positioning (e.g., mandate and accountability), mechanisms put in place to coordinate actors and activities, and any financial incentives underpinning the programme.

Ultimately, we view the design of programmes as shaped by their implementation context, thus reflecting overall ideas and practices concerning civil society's and sport's role in society and state actors' governing of civil society, sport included.

With the aim to highlight contextual difference in mind, distinctions between countries can be grouped into two main country types, with each participating country most adequately understood according to one of these types. However, bear in mind that the types are idealtypical analytical constructions meant to draw our attention to differences between and not within types. In turn, this implies that no country will completely match any of the types. The two types — Commonwealth type and European type—are displayed in Table 4 and described below.



Table 4. Programme design and types of implementation contexts

Distinguishing aspect	The Commonwealth type	The European type
Civil society's societal role & interrelation with the state	Civil society's issue-based function is emphasized. Collaborative/co-governance features of government-civil society relationships within a confederation model.	Civil society's democratic function is emphasized. Associational form and autonomy vis-a-vis the government is an important precondition.
Sport's societal role	Sport is an activity that reflects values of national importance (e.g., fairness) and creates individual and societal positive impacts.	Organized and voluntary sport is part of the public welfare system and should therefore be accessible to all. Sport-for-all ambitions are preconditions for shaping effects (social integration and democratic fostering).
Sport – government relation- ship	Sport specific government agency. Government-sport interaction ('investment', contracts, monitoring, etc.) take place at the NSO-level.	National, cross-sport umbrella organisations represent sport in government interactions.
Sports club-directed funding	Direct funding to sports clubs is scarce and takes the form of project- or special-initiative based applications.	Purpose of club-directed funding is to create favourable conditions. Free or subsidised facilities and block-funding is available.
Programme design	Immigration-specific actors are central to a cross-sectoral, network-approach to programming. Sports clubs are enrolled as one among several activity providers.	Sport-specific actors are central to programming. Implementation is rolled out via a hierarchical sport structure. Sports clubs are encouraged and supported (financially and administratively) to take initiatives to organise activities aimed at integration.

Programme design and implementation context in the Commonwealth type

Notably, Canada and Australia, display a contextual setting and programme design that is distinct from the participating (European) countries.

Regarding civil society's ascribed societal role and interrelation with the state, civil society's issue-based (e.g., social justice) function is emphasised in countries of this type, and co-governance features are therefore prominent in government-civil society relationships. In the Commonwealth type, sport is positioned as an activity that reflects values of national and community importance (e.g., fairness), and individual and societal positive impacts (e.g., social, mental, and physical well-being, economic growth) are ascribed to the activity itself (rather than the specific organisational framework in which it is delivered).

Furthermore, countries of this type have a sport-specific government agency that sets policy and recognizes (national) sport organisations as eligible for government 'investment'. Contractual relationships are established with individual NSOs, and funding and monitoring is carried out at the NSO-level. Hence, even though there are national-level sport organisations, there is no singular speaking-partner for the national government, and no crosssport centralised body that may lead implementation efforts. Concerning funding schemes, direct funding to sports clubs is limited, and when in place it takes the form of project- or special-initiative based applications.

Regarding the design of integration-related programmes in countries of this type, immigrant-specific actors (e.g., social service agencies, non-profits dedicated at immigrant integration) play a key role in the programming of integration through sport. Sports clubs may be enrolled as

providers of sports activities, but the cross-sectoral approach does not typically designate clubs as the sole end-implementer. As an illustration of this type of instrumentation, the Australian organisation Sport Without Borders delivers the Sports Scholarship Programme which provides access to young people with immigrant and refugee background that wish to participate in sports clubs or community organisations. Similarly, Commonwealth Sport Canada coordinates the SportsWORKS S4N Initiative, which connects NAM social service agencies with sport delivery agencies.

Programme design and implementation context in the European type

From our analysis, it is clear that there are shared contextual conditions among the participating European countries (Denmark, Sweden, Germany, Norway, Switzerland) that contribute to constructing a certain type of instrumentation context pertaining to work with the integration of NAMs through sport. Again, this should not be taken to mean that there is no variation between these countries, but that it is possible to speak of a European policy context that is distinctly different in some respects than Australia and Canada's.

In particular, in the European type, civil society's democratic function is emphasised, and autonomy and the voluntary associational form is viewed as a precondition for this function. Civil society is thus an organisational, rather than an issue-based, sphere. In countries of this type, organised and voluntary sport is enrolled as part of the public welfare system and should therefore be accessible to all, hence the prominence of the sport-for-all

objective. Sport-for-all is viewed as a precondition for the shaping effects ascribed to participation in organized sport: Social integration and democratic fostering.

Because sport is ascribed this role of a shaper of citizens of a democratic welfare state, sport's autonomy vis-à-vis the state is far-reaching, and high value is placed on self-governance led by cross-sport national federative umbrella organisations. Thus, whereas countries in the Commonwealth type have sport-specific national level government agencies, countries of this type have national umbrella organisations that represent the entirety of organized sport in conversations with national government, and which have direct links to cross-sport delivery networks down through to sports clubs. Furthermore, the aim of sport-club directed funding is to create beneficial conditions for sports clubs to operate on their own terms. Free or subsidised facilities along with activity-based block grants from national, regional, and/or local governments are therefore common in this type of country.

The key position afforded to clubs in countries of this type translates to the instrumentation of integration through organized sport. Umbrella sport organisations, although with funding from government sport- and/or immigration/ integration agencies, set up programmes that rely entirely on sports clubs' willingness to participate. Funds ear-marked for integration are available from umbrella organisations, but clubs oftentimes need to actively apply and adhere to programme guidelines. To illustrate, in Denmark, the Danish Sport Confederation's Get-2sport programme targets well-functioning sports clubs in designated residential areas. The underlying idea of the programme is to relieve volunteers in these clubs of administrative work so that they can focus on the delivery of core activities. Likewise, in the government-funded pro-

gramme Sport for Newly Arrived and Asylum-Seekers, the cross-sport non-profit umbrella organisation of Swedish voluntary sport has installed integration officers in its regional organisations (Regional Sport Federations). These officers' task is to coordinate and support projects initiated by sports clubs. Germany provides a final illustration of how the policy context conditions the instrumentation of integration through sport initiatives. Here, the Integration Through Sport programme was established by the German Olympic Sports Association in collaboration with the Federal Ministry of the Interior and the Ministry for Migration and Refugees. The programme is rolled out via state/ regional sport organisations where so-called Integration Facilitators act as boundary managers between clubs that apply for funding and the sport system. However, the structural embedding of these roles differs between regional sport federations.

Differences within the European type

Although it is evident that there are shared contextual conditions among the participating European countries (Denmark, Sweden, Germany, Norway, Switzerland) that contribute to constructing a certain European instrumentation context pertaining to work with the integration of NAMs through sport, it is also possible to discern country-specific differences. For the purpose of illustrating these differences, we will in this concluding part of the findings describe the programmes deployed in the European countries in more detail (see Appendix A for extended descriptions). Table 5 provides a broad overview of these.

Table 5a. Programme design in the European countries

	Denmark	Germany	Norway	Sweden	Switzerland
Programme	Get2sport	Get2sport Integration through Sport	Refugee fund	Sport for newly arrived and asylum- seekers	MiTu Move Together
Sender	The national sports confederation in collaboration with municipalities and voluntary organisations	Governmen- tal ministries in co-gover- nance with the national sports confe- deration	The Govern- ment and the national sports confe- deration	The Govern- ment	A national sport federation
Inter- mediary	No inter- mediaries	State and regional sports confe- derations	The national sports confederation, regional sport federations and big city councils	The national sports confederation, national sport organisations, regional sport organisations	No inter- mediaries
Target	Clubs in areas with many immigrants and major social prob- lems, clubs for children and young people	None explicit- ly specified, intermedia- ries might reach out to clubs acting as partners in other projects	-	None explicitly spe- cified	Clubs do not have to be members, Families with children in pre-school age
Rules	Professional and financial help relieve volunteer leaders and coaches	Clubs need to be certified as 'integration bases'	Financial support to clubs rea- ching out to families with special needs	Regionally placed inte- gration and inclusion officers are installed to assist clubs seeking fun- ding	Clubs can apply for funds to cover costs for equip- ment, coa- ching fees, facilities and membership fees

Table 5b. Programme design in the European countries

	Denmark	Germany	Norway	Sweden	Switzerland
Mandate	High level of trust, no checks and balances	Financial accountabili- ty and evalu- ation of goal attainment	High level of trust, no checks and balances	High level of trust, no checks and balances	Contractual agreements but minimal administration
End users	Socially vul- nerable chil- dren, children from immig- rant families residing in immigrant- dense and socially vul- nerable resi- dential areas	NAMs, peo- ple with migration backgrounds, groups underrepre- sented in organized sport	NAMs and asylum seekers	NAMs and asylum seekers	Children aged 3–5 in families with special needs (migration background, disabled child, financi- al difficulties)
Monitoring	No explicit monitoring	Reports on spending and goal attainment, occasional scientific eva- luations	Reports to financiers	Internal and external follow-ups, monitoring of participation data, occasional scientific evaluations	External evaluations, monitoring of participation data

As shown under the European type of programme design and implementation context, the European countries in the project share many similarities in terms of working with the integration of NAMs through sport. Table 5 shows data that substantiates that overall observation. This is visible in how the state (through its government and governmental departments and ministries) in most cases stands as the sender of programmes. As such they emphasize the point made earlier, that organized and voluntary sport is enrolled as part of the public welfare system. Being part of a public welfare system, in turn, also prescribes sport organisations to not only be accessible for all but also that they should direct attention to all sorts of social groups, in particular those underrepresented in their membership-cadres. The is visible in how the targets of programmes are specified (for groups assumed to have difficulties entering sport by their own means), but also in they ways end users are thought of (as in need of assistance and/or as underrepresented).

Simultaneously, Table 5 also demands observations pertaining to some differences between the countries. One such is visible in the way rules are constructed, in how the 'theory' behind the specific programmes is implicitly outlined. Taking the Danish Get2sport as an example, the programme theory is that sports clubs' regular activities are the best sites for the integration of new participants, be they NAMs, immigrants, socially vulnerable

individuals or other underrepresented groups. However, as the existing human resources in sports clubs are too strained dealing with existing activities and members, club volunteers need to be relieved of some administrative duties. This theory shows that there is great trust in Danish sports clubs to run their activities and address societal challenges and that they are best placed to know how to do it. In the Danish case, this high level of trust is also visible in the distribution of mandate between sender and recipient. and in the view on how programme delivery and goal attainment is to be monitored, measured or evaluated. Regarding the distribution of mandate specifically, Table 5 shows how the Nordic countries (Denmark, Norway and Sweden) differ from the continental European countries (Germany and Switzerland) in the sense that sport organisations appear more independent in the former and that sport organisations in the latter seem more subjected to accountability.

This programme theory is slightly different from the one implicitly constructed for the Swedish programme, despite their geographical proximity, their similar societal structure, organisation of sport and views on social integration and democratic fostering. The basic assumption is similar though – sports clubs lack the resources needed to reach out (more) to groups in need. The programme therefore offers professional (integration and inclusion officers) and financial (funding to projects) support. This theory is similar, in its idea to offer professional support, to the one implicitly backing the German Integration Through Sport (integration facilitators) and, in its idea to offer financial support, to the theory behind the Norwegian Refugee fund. More profound differences between these four programme theories are instead found in the distribution of mandate and control of spending and goal attainment. Even

though the Norwegian and Swedish programme theories are similar to the Danish in terms of overall high levels of trust between sender and recipients at the outset of the programmes, there is explicit monitoring activities incorporated in the two former.

The Swiss MiTu Move Together stands out by comparison, placing its implicit programme theory on the other end of the spectrum relative to Denmark, with Sweden, Norway and Germany between the two. Instead of implying lack of capacity in sports clubs to take on more participants (and especially more participants from groups in need), the idea behind the Swiss programme is that sports clubs need incentives to actively seek out families with special needs. Thus, the assumed challenge is not that sports clubs cannot take in those who approach them with a wish to participate. The main challenge is instead that some groups do not have the capacity to approach a sports club. As such, the main challenge is associated with the circumstances surrounding potential participants, not the clubs. In this specific respect, the Swiss programme theory bears some resemblance with the ones behind the Australian Sports Scholarship Programme. An important difference though, is the way in which resources are directed: towards individuals in the Australian case and towards clubs in the Swiss. The Swiss programme stands out also welcomes clubs that are not members of the national sport federation. In that sense, it again bears some resemblance with one of the non-European examples (Canada) as it at least theoretically has the potential to include non-sport organisations.

Conclusion

Does the above reasoning imply that we cannot expect VSCs to shoulder integration-related responsibilities and that financial incentives encouraging them to arrange activities for immigrants are ineffective? In this concluding section, we will discuss programmes' potential functionality relative to their respective design and the position they are given in their respective societies and sport systems.

The primary point we want to make is that the programmes used in the two types of programme design and implementation context are consistent with the respective societies they are launched in. In both cases, public authorities operate within existing institutional frameworks. The rather extensive use of the sport organisation hierarchy in Commonwealth type societies, is therefore expected, as is the enrolment of immigration-specific actors in European type societies.

Consequently, if we accept that immigrant- and sport specific organisations perform useful functions in different phases of the integration process, programmes will benefit from drawing on both. Although data is somewhat broad-brushed in all the particularities of the programmes in use in the participating countries, there are a few examples holding such integrative promises. One is an aspect of the Canadian SportWORKS S4N Initiative that aims to educate sports ambassadors and to develop partnerships. Another can be found in the Danish Get2sport that offers sport clubs in vulnerable areas integration professionals so that existing sports club volunteers can focus on running sport activities as refugees often experience problems and needs related to safety, health, well-being and social welfare (cf., Garkisch, Heidingsfelder & Beckmann, 2017; O'Driscoll et al., 2014). Similarly, the German and the Swiss initiatives carry ideas such as boundary managers and special education to coaches. Such components, we argue, have the potential to let sports clubs do what they do best while simultaneously helping immigrants to join them. Regarding the latter, a similar line of reasoning is also made by Nowy et al. (2020) in their call for more professional organisational designs.

Relative to the rhetorical question posed in the beginning of this section, we argue that it is reasonable to expect VSCs to welcome all who are interested in taking part in their activities. In many countries they are in fact bound by the laws regulating voluntary organisations to do so if they want to enjoy tax exemptions, subsidies, public funding, and similar benefits. That said, we also argue that it is less reasonable to expect sports clubs to arrange activities for others than their members. Surely, there are many sports clubs that do so for a number of reasons (financial compensation, good will, the prospects of gaining new members, etc.), but as large-scale solutions that involve the majority of all sports clubs, prospects are, at least in theory, less optimistic. Other work packages in this project will provide more empirically based insights on that.

So how much of the findings in this report can be generalised and/or transferred to other contexts than those studied in this project? As one of our main theoretical points of departure in this study is that actions taken by organisations must be understood relative to their organisational contexts, we argue that the insights provided here have a potential to be valid in contexts that resemble the ones studied (cf. Larsson, 2009). This means that findings pertaining to Commonwealth type societies should make sense for countries similar to Australia and Canada. Other countries formerly part of the British commonwealth, that share many historical trajectories, for example, might find reconnaissance in the circumstances described as conditioning programme design and delivery in the Commonwealth type countries in this study (although there are substantive differences also between them). Similarly, findings relating to the European type societies might resonate with other European countries and other countries with federative systems of membership-based sport organisations.

To conclude, we reiterate the general mission and long-term objective of the INAMOS-project: "to further mobilise the sport sector's motivation and ability to integrate increasing numbers of NAMs into organised sport and society at large, without jeopardising the integrity and ability of local sports clubs through requirements that exceed their resources and capabilities". Relative to this ambition, we claim that it is key to take into greater consideration how sports clubs can be helped to involve migrants (as any other underrepresented group – for example, individuals with disabilities, women, elderly people) in their regular activities. Such initiatives, we argue, have the potential to safeguard sports clubs' integrity while simultaneously increasing their membership base, not the number of participants – an ambition that in most cases would be shared by sports clubs and wider society alike.

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O Appendix A. Data structure

- ''					
Part 1 – Conte	Part 1 – Contextual conditions				
Societal and I	Societal and migration characteristics				
Size, role, and	d function of civil society				
1. Specify the	e country's total number of voluntary sports clubs				
Australia	70 000				
Canada	33 649				
Denmark	11507				
Sweden	18 000				
Germany	89 594				
Switzerland	19 000				
Norway	12 000				
2. Specify the	e country's total number of civil society organisations				
Australia	600 000				
Canada	175 000				
Denmark	80 000				
Sweden	257 572				
Germany	627 274				
Switzerland	100 000				
Norway	95 300				
3. Specify the	e country's total number of individual sports club memberships				
Australia	N/A				
Canada	N/A				
Denmark	2 664 907				
Sweden	3 149 000				
Germany	27 566 608				
Switzerland	2 000 000				
Norway	1 929 901				

4. Describe t	he overall function of civil society and its interrelation with the state
Australia	Function: Play a vital role in reducing poverty and injustice domestically and internationally. Strong and effective civil society a development outcome in its own right.
	Interrelation: Government supports and is committed to streamlining processes for civil society organisations.
Canada	Function: Providing community and social services; organizing cultural, recreational activities; and lobbying for social, political and economic change.
	Interrelation: Interrelated with the state through joint initiatives where both CSOs and government officials work on projects, policy, and laws together.
Denmark	Function: 1) Democratic function and 2) solve collective tasks (education, social help, culture, leisure, sport, aid to developing countries and integration).
	Interrelation: Close, friendly relations and extensive support combined with considerable autonomy based on trust (Ibsen, 2014)
Sweden	Function: Contribution to democratic and integrated society.
	Interrelation: Mutual trust and cooperation, although increasing viewed and treated in terms of their potential service contribution.
Germany	Function: Provide a sense of community and resource for tackling (future) societal challenges. Considered a partner in the development and realisation of public welfare policies.
	Interrelation: Autonomous but based on the concept of partnership and subsidiarity supported through in/direct subsidies, grants, support payments, and tax-limitations.
Switzerland	Function: Voluntary organisations, as well as sports clubs, take over important tasks substituting public initiatives.
	Interrelation: No explicit government policy since CSOs are considered largely as part of the private sector, since they have emerged without any central institution. However, CSOs are to some extent officially encouraged alternatives for public interventions, but action by public institutions occurs at the most local level possible (subsidiary principle).
Norway	Function: Voluntary organisations play political (as mediators and organisers of political interests and values), social (as activity and education organisers), and economic (as producers and distributors of wealth) functions.
	Interrelation: A corporate relationship between the voluntary organisations and the state.
Migration rat	io and distribution
5. Indicate tl	ne percentage of migrants in the population
Australia	29,70 %
Canada	21,90 %
Denmark	10,50 %
Sweden	19,60 %
Germany	25,48 %
Switzerland	37,70 %
Norway	14.70 %

	ne total number of newly arrived migrants and describe their characteristics in terms of es of origin (in falling order), b) age (age group with largest proportion), and c) gender.
Australia	Total: 2019: 537,800 (primarily visitor and higher education sector-visas)
	Countries of origin: South and central Asia, North-East Asia, Oceania
	Age: 20-24 largest age group
	Gender: 52% female
Canada	Total: 242 415/year 2011-2016
	Countries of origin: Philippines, India, China
	Age: 0-15 largest age group
	Gender: 59% female
Denmark	Total : 5336/year 2010-2019
	Countries of origin: Asia, Africa, Europe-outside EU
	Age: 0-14 largest age group
	Gender: 2019: 51% male
Sweden	Total: 52 188/ year 2015-2019
	Countries of origin: Syria, Iraq, Afghanistan
	Age Group: 38% under 18
	Gender: 67% male
Germany	Total: 333 405/year 2015-2019
	Countries of origin: Syria, Afghanistan, Iraq
	Age: 18-29 largest age group
	Gender: 64% male
Switzerland	Total: 136 962 (absolute number of immigrants in 2020). 11 041 (new asylum applications in 2020, appr. 3000 less than in 2019)
	Countries of origin: Eritrea, Afghanistan, Syria
	Age: 3,1% unaccompanied minors (16-17 largest age group, within the group of unaccompanied minors), age is not published neither in asylum nor foreigner statistics
	Gender: 60% male
Norway	Total: 43 565/year 2015-2019
	Countries of origin: Poland, Syria, Lithuania
	Age Group: 32% of asylum seekers under 18
	Gender: 75% male (asylum seekers)

Public opinio	n concerning immigration
	the public opinion on immigration in the country - whether public sentiments are unani- colarised, and if so, along which lines.
Australia	Overall, the public opinion of Australians towards immigration is positive, but concerns are raised regarding the social welfare system.
Canada	Canadians as a whole tend to be more positive than negative regarding the number of immigrants arriving in Canada and the economic benefits they bring. Immigration is not a topic of concern for federal voters and is not an issue that strongly divides Canada.
Denmark	The immigration and refugee policy is one of the topics that are on top of the political agenda for the citizens of Denmark, but its significance depends on the number of asylum seekers. The majority believes that immigrants and refugees will cause problems in the country, especially in relation to the economy, welfare society services, crime and national identity. The general attitude towards immigrants is that they must adapt to Danish culture and this attitude has been relatively constant since 1995. On the other hand, there is also the attitude that Denmark should accept refugees and has a moral obligation to help people in need.
Sweden	Compared to other European countries, Swedes hold positive attitudes toward migration in general. Immigration due to work and study and from regions perceived to be culturally and ethnically close is viewed most favourably.
Germany	About half of the German population think that immigrants are a burden on the welfare system, but only a fifth believe that immigrants take away jobs from Germans. The majority of Germans estimate immigration as a chance rather than a risk. There is an opportunist view on immigration, with large support for skills-based immigration. The perception of refugees and the government's handling of this situation is very different.
Switzerland	Results of national initiatives regarding immigration law often show the great polarity of public opinion of Swiss citizens. Observing the past political initiatives on immigration laws and how to regulate them, a slight shift can be determined, however, towards a more positive perception on immigration. Most prominent are public debates on multiculturalism as either a chance for Swiss society or as threat of traditional values. Hence, the debate includes perceptions of mass immigration as a threat for the economy and employment of Swiss people, or on the other spectrum immigration as a right for anyone and as chance for the social but also economic spheres.
Norway	Compared to other European, Norwegians, along with neighbouring Swedes and Danes, hold positive attitudes towards migration in general. Although there are disagreements regarding migration policy, Norwegians are becoming increasingly more receptive towards immigrants, due to their positive contribution in the labour market and cultural life.

to the role	the] lines of argumentation that are associated with current public policies pertaining e of migration in society in terms of a) migrants' societal contribution, and b) migrants'
societal co	osts.
Australia	Contribution: Immigrants strengthen the country because of their hard work and talent. Australia's openness to people from all over the world is essential for 'Who we are as a nation'.
	Costs: Immigrants further put pressure on crowded cities and social welfare systems. Too much immigration perceived to lead to an undermining of national identity.
Canada	Contribution: Immigration has positive economic impacts (e.g., raise domestic workers wages & fill skill and labour shortages)
	Costs: Threats to social cohesion and a common national identity.
Denmark	Contribution: A political minority believes that there is an increasing shortage of unskilled labour. Therefore, foreign labour is necessary if the welfare system is to be maintained and developed.
	Costs: The political majority believes that immigration is a societal burden due to difficulties with integrating immigrants in the labour market and the education system.
Sweden	Contribution: Skills-based migration is clearly positioned as necessary for Sweden.
	Costs: Societal costs are not prominent in government- or parliamentary statements of migration. However, societal costs are ascribed to failed integration, and there is thus an increased focus on 'societal information' (democracy, obligations, opportunities, gender equality, children's rights, etc.)
Germany	Contribution: Germany is dependent on immigration of highly qualified specialists (elite migration) in certain sectors (e.g., IT sector, doctors in healthcare). In addition, there is an increasing shortage of labour from skilled workers in certain service occupations (e.g., nursing professions in the health system).
	Costs: Immigrants with below-average qualifications and consequently below-average incomes benefit from the redistributive effects of the German welfare state. Such immigrants are therefore considered a burden to welfare systems.
Switzerland	Contribution: Without foreign workforce, many economic branches would not be able to maintain the current level of production.
	Costs: Since May 2019 the federal state supports the cantons in implementing their integration programmes with 18'000 CHF per refugee. Immigrants with below-averag qualifications and consequently below-average incomes benefit from the redistributive effects of the welfare state. Such immigrants are therefore considered a burden to we fare systems.
Norway	Contribution: Immigration provides society with important skills and help cover labour shortages in several sectors.
	Costs: Migration puts Norwegian society to the test, including the sustainability of the Norwegian welfare state.

Australia	Australia has experienced significant cultural, religious, linguistic and ethnic changes through immigration, however the binary divides still persist between migrants who
	are considered as ethnics with certain identifiable characteristics – facilitating practice that can impact the (re)settlement outcomes of migrants and refugees in Australia.
Canada	Civil society and the integration of migrants are very interwoven. The idea of multiculturalism is a proud identifier for many Canadians and has been pushed heavily by civil society organisations in Canada that work closely with migrants. At the local, community level, organisations focused on the integration of migrants work closely with other actors with integration-related issues.
Denmark	Civil society organisations are responsible for parts of the reception of asylum seekers (e.g., the Red Cross that runs refugee camps). Civil society organisations also offer activities, assistance, and advocacy for immigrants. Civil society organisations that are willing to take responsibility for these tasks are provided funding. Civil society organisations are also viewed as arenas for integration, and their development is therefore supported.
Sweden	The Swedish Agency for Youth and Civil Society is governed by the official governmental civil society policy. The government agency provides support to civil society organisations so that they can develop their migration-related work on their own terms and in collaboration with local authorities.
Germany	Integration work in Germany is characterized by an active civil society. The important role played by civil society organisations (particularly organized sport) in the integration of migrants is demonstrated for example in the 'national integration plan'. The Federal Network for Civic Engagement provides a central platform for coordination and communication by migrant organisations with German associations, state and business at the federal level.
Switzerland	Integration is perceived as a state responsibility which is realised on all levels of the state as well as social partners, non-governmental organisations and foreigner organisations. As part of the Integration agenda, integration programmes on cantonal levels are coordinated aiming at giving migrants access to participation in public life. This involves activities at the arrival stage (first information and promotion of integration, consultancy, and protection of discrimination), the living stage (language, childhood, employability), and social stages, where some activities in sports clubs or clubs using sports as a means are punctually promoted and only regionally. In the sport system, sport is referred to as being integrative, and its potential is referred to in various policy documents, but the national visibility is low.
Norway	Voluntary organisations, sport, cultural life, and religious communities are key players in the success of everyday integration. Measures that promote meeting places between immigrants and the Norwegian population must be given priority.

10. Describe the rules for seeking asylum and residence permit and their associated argumentation	
Australia	The Australian Government usually allocates around 13,750 places to refugees and others with humanitarian needs under its planned Humanitarian Programme. Historically, the majority of these places are granted to offshore refugees referred to Australia by the UNHCR, but some are given to refugees who arrived by air or boat and were granted protection visas onshore. Since 1992, Australia has had a policy of mandatory immigration detention, which requires all non-citizens without a valid visa to be detained until they are granted a visa or leave the country. The argument is to keep the country 'safe' and only allow in 'legitimate' asylum seekers that go through the proper channels.
Canada	N/A
Denmark	N/A
Sweden	N/A
Germany	Asylum seekers have to register themselves as such at a governmental institution. There are prerequisites, which have to be fulfilled in order to be acknowledged as asylum seeker. If asylum seekers entering through a secure third country, then an approval as an asylum seeker is prohibited. Application for asylum is only permitted if the asylum seekers is pursued politically due to race, nationality, political opinions, religious positions or attribution to a specific social group and are expected to face grave violation of human rights in the country you left (Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge, 2019). If the application for asylum was successful, then you receive a residence permit for three years. You are allowed to go on the labor market and take over jobs. You can also have the right to transfer your family to Germany.
Switzerland	Switzerland as an immigration destination is said to become increasingly unattractive, due to a very restrictive asylum policy. For example, the Dublin Regulation is rigorously applied. Syrian citizens find a low recognition quota for refugee status and there is high pressure on Eritrean asylum seekers. Citizens from the Balkan, Georgia and various African countries (especially Mali, Guinea, Nigeria) experience fast asylum processes with a low protection rate.
Norway	N/A

	the rules that regulate NAM's place of residence and eligibility in the labour market and nal system and their associated argumentation
Australia	Place of residence: Asylum seekers may be placed in mandatory detention facilities for many years while their case is being processed, the government also has a community detention and placement programme.
	Labour market: Currently, asylum seekers who arrived in Australia by boat on or after 13 August 2012 and are granted bridging visas are not permitted to work until until a determination is made on their refugee status.
	Educational system: Refugee and asylum-seeking children have equal access to the full curriculum, appropriate to their age, ability and aptitude and any special educational needs they may have. They are admitted to school/academies using the same local authority criteria as apply to any other child seeking a school place.
Canada	Place of residence: Asylum seekers do not possess the right to travel freely in Canada, based on the rationale that they are not yet Canadian citizens. Once granted asylum, NAMs are provided orientation to help make informed settlement decisions.
	Labour market: Upon receiving a positive refugee claim, support for finding and retaining employment is provided, including referrals to assess their foreign credentials.
	Educational system: Those wanting to study in Canada will typically need to apply for a study permit through the Government of Canada.
Denmark	Place of residence: During the asylum process, the applicant usually lives in one of the Danish asylum camps. Once asylum is granted, the responsibility for housing is transferred to the municipal level (contracting-out possible).
	Labour market: After being granted asylum, the municipality (or contracted partners) offers programmes that include language tuition and employment offers, with the aim of obtaining ordinary employment as soon as possible. Programme participation is mandatory.
	Education system: After being granted asylum, the municipality (or contracted partners) proposes education for young people (age 18-25).
	The goal of integration is to ensure that migrants' a) opportunities and rights are on par with those of Danes, b) become self-sufficient, and c) understand the Danish society's fundamental values and norms.
Sweden	Place of residence: Asylum seekers can choose between living in designated asylum (free of charge) facilities or arrange their own housing (at their own costs). If asylum seekers choose to move to a residential area that has been deemed socially and economically challenged, they may lose their right to daily allowance.
	Labour market: Asylum seekers may only work if they have a certificate that states that they are exempt from the requirement to have a work permit.
	Education system: Municipalities are responsible for ensuring the right to attend school until the age of 18.
Germany	Place of residence: Registered asylum seekers are transferred to first reception facilities
	Labour market: After the acknowledgement as asylum applicants or the recognition of subsidiary protection eligibility to the labour market without any restrictions is granted.
	Education system: Mandatory schooling is extended to children of asylum seekers, but most states grant access to kindergarten etc. when asylum seekers have left the first reception facility.

Switzerland	Place of residence: Asylum seekers are transferred to one of six federal centres, based on various indicators (e.g., country of origin, family situation, and health status).
	Labour Market: Under certain conditions, NAMs above school age are eligible to work in a non-profit employment programme.
	Education system: School-aged children are educated wither in a federal asylum centre or a local school.
Norway	Place of residence: Temporary accommodation in reception centres is offered to all asylum seekers arriving in Norway. Residing in a reception centre is voluntary but it is a requirement for receiving subsistence support and allowance.
	Labour Market: Asylum seekers have access to a temporary work permit, pending a final decision.
	Education system: Up until the age of 18, asylum seekers are entitled to education from the time it is probable that they will stay in Norway for longer than three months.
Sport policy a	and politics – Rules and their associated argumentation
12. Describe t society	he lines of argumentation that encompass political views on voluntary sport's role/s in
Australia	Community benefits through volunteering, sports-related economic activity, net-positive impact on social well-being, mental and physical health.
Canada	Sport in Canada is generally apolitical and not a contested topic. However, sport is unquestionably described value in terms of addressing and reflecting the Canadian values of fairness, diversity, equity, and inclusion.
Denmark	The goal of Danish sport policy, regardless of party/-ies in power, is to support association-based sport through government support to organisations and facilities. Under a 'sport-for-all' policy objective, the aim is to promote participation and strengthen citizenship and democratic fostering.
Sweden	The goal of Swedish sport policy is to engage citizens in issues related to public goods, and that they should be supported for the contributions they make to broader society. The goals of sport policy are democratic fostering and social integration, public health, and entertainment.
Germany	Organised sport is an important pillar of public welfare. The government also recognises sport's economic impact on society. The government emphasises sport as a motor for integration.
Switzerland	The Sport Promotion Act underscores public interests such as physical performance, public health, holistic education, and social cohesion. Sports clubs in particular contribute to public welfare by promoting social integration as well as democratic and voluntary engagement.
Norway	The sports-for-all ideal permeates the view on voluntary sport's role, with children and youth being prioritised. The government's aim is to strengthen voluntary- and member-based organisations, but policies should also facilitate self-organised physical activity.

13. Describe t	the rules that specify the voluntary sport sector's autonomy vis-à-vis the state and their
	dargumentation
Australia	The government agencies the Australian Institute of Sport and Sport Australia sets policies and guidelines, oversees government investments, and provides leadership.
Canada	The government agency Sport Canada generates the Canadian sport policy, recognizes NSOs as official governing bodies, and monitors NSO funding and policy compliance. Otherwise, there is no direct link between Sport Canada and the NSOs. Provincial sport organisations have the equivalent relationship with provincial government departments and associated arms-length bodies.
Denmark	A relatively great autonomy from the state is ensured through the constitutional right to freely form associations, and with the few legal requirements in place for associations.
Sweden	The voluntary sport-state relationship in Sweden is characterized by an arm's length relationship and an implicit contract in which the government decides on the extent and purpose of its funding, and the recipient, the Swedish Sports Confederation, determines the details of the distribution and administration. This arrangement's purpose is to self-guard self-determination, while acknowledging sport's contribution to society.
Germany	With its own jurisdiction, organized sport is independent from government. Sport is a self-governing system where federations, clubs and their members enjoy far-reaching and constitutionally protected freedom and autonomy.
Switzerland	The Federal Office of SPORT is responsible for development of national sport policy. This is done in consultation with Swiss sports federations, but due to the subsidiarity and autonomy principles, there are no contractual relationships. Thus, national government has no direct legal obligations to sports clubs and vice versa, apart from the national Youth and Sport programme.
Norway	Few laws structure the relationship between sport and the state. The latest in a series of three white papers aims to strengthen voluntary sport, develop a sound relationship between the voluntary and public sectors to promote sport-for-all (idrottsjuss.no)
14. Describe s	sport-club directed government funding schemes and their associated argumentation
Australia	Sports club-directed funding is primarily project based. Federal, and some state governments, provide a range of funding programmes that sports clubs can apply for. Local governments provide facilities and some funding.
Canada	There is little if any direct funding to sports clubs from any government level. Federal government funds NSOs and provincial and territorial governments fund PSOs. CSOs can apply for funding through special initiatives or grants of their NSO, PSO or local government. Local governments subsidize public facility use by CSOs.
Denmark	Sports clubs are not directly supported by the state, but the 'Leisure Act' ensures that sports clubs have access to municipal facilities free of charge or with a minor fee, and grants economic support based on number of members under the age of 25. Lottery revenues are distributed to NSOs as basic grants with very few requirements.
Sweden	The Swedish Sport Confederation distributes government funds to sports clubs for activities directed at participants aged 7-25. Public funding is also provided by local authorities, both as direct grants and subsidies for facilities.
Germany	There is no direct funding to sports clubs at the national level. Local authorities contribute the main support for local sports clubs in terms of subsidised municipal sport facilities and grants to clubs for building their own facilities.

Switzerland Sports clubs are directly supported by the national government through the Youth Sport Programme. Regional authorities support the construction and maintenance facilities in municipalities, using profits from lotteries. Municipalities often pay so form of lump sum to sports clubs. Furthermore, sports clubs can use the public sport facilities for free or a very low fee. Norway Funding for sport facilities has been the main funding tool, making up half of state funding. The second largest amount is distributed to NIF for children-, youth, grass roots-, and elite activities. 10% of state funding is distributed directly to local activency sport system and the rationales that underpin it Australia Sport is largely delivered by non-profit community sport organisations, schools, an higher education bodies.	of ne
funding. The second largest amount is distributed to NIF for children-, youth, grass roots-, and elite activities. 10% of state funding is distributed directly to local activ 15. Describe the basic structure (particularly with regards to hierarchical levels) of the country's very sport system and the rationales that underpin it Australia Sport is largely delivered by non-profit community sport organisations, schools, an	ort
tary sport system and the rationales that underpin it Australia Sport is largely delivered by non-profit community sport organisations, schools, an	-
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	d
Canada Sport is governed and delivered in a hierarchical system with NSOs governing their respective sports nationally, and guiding PSOs that govern their respective sport processed, which guide community sport organisations or clubs. Clubs are members of PSO, which are members of their NSO.	ovin-
Denmark Sport in Denmark follows a membership structure and is organised under three umbrella organisations with different aims, structures, and ideologies.	
Sweden Swedish club sport is organised in a federative, vertical (by sport) and horizontal (by geography), and membership-based system. All organisations at all levels are fede under the Swedish Sports Confederation, the national level, cross-sport umbrella conisation.	rated
Germany The umbrella organisation DOSB is the top organisation in German sport. It represents the interests of 100 member organisations, such as sport federations and state sport confederations, in turn affiliating more than 90,000 sports clubs s, and federations with particular tasks. Numerous umbrella organisations of various sort can also be found at the state level. All levels are guided by rules around autonomy, subsidiariand partnership.	ort ;
Switzerland Swiss Olympic, the umbrella organisation for Swiss sport, represents the interests sport federations, in turn affiliating 20,000 sports clubs. In each canton there is a r nal organisation that represents the regional sport federations.	
Norway Norwegian club sport is organised in a federative, vertical (by sport) and horizontal geography), and membership-based system. All organisations at all levels are fede under the Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of State national level, cross-sport umbrella organisation.	rated

Part 2 – Prog	rammes	
Programme t	Programme type	
General desc	ription	
Australia	Sport Without Borders is a not for profit organisation dedicated to providing support for young people from migrant and refugee backgrounds who are involved or want to get involved in sport. The Sports Scholarship Program provides access to young people wishing to participat in sports clubs and community organisations.	
Canada	Commonwealth Sport Canada (NGO) coordinates the SportWORKS S4N Initiative . Provides consultation to actors in the sport hierarchy (e.g., elite clubs, NGOs and government organisations), educate young leaders and sports ambassadors, develop and maintain partnerships with community and sport organisations to deliver programs, and provide direct funding to potential participants.	
Denmark	Get2sport targets well-functioning sports clubs in residential areas with many vulnerable citizens by relieving volunteer leaders and coaches so that they can concentrate on training and club management instead of spending effort on practical and social problems.	
Sweden	Sport for newly arrived and asylum-seekers funds 19 regional integration- and inclusion officers coordinating and supporting integration projects initiated by sports clubs within their regional jurisdiction.	
Germany	Integration through Sport (IdS) was established by the German Olympic Sports Association (DOSB). State sport confederations directly or with the aid of Integration Facilitators act as boundary managers between clubs, the state sport confederation, and NAMs.	
Switzerland	MiTu Move Together aims to support integration through gymnastics for preschoolers and parents and includes advice and coordination, special education for coaches in sports clubs, financial support for sport facilities, reduced participation fee. It is a Switzerland-wide project dedicated to promoting greater integration in the area of preschool gymnastics.	
Norway	Refugee fund was established by the Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports, with funding from the Norwegian Directorate of Immigration, Directorate of Integration and Diversity, and Gjensidigestiftelsen. Clubs apply to NIF for funding to 1) initiative sporting activities at refugee centres and 2) include NAMs in ordinary club sport activities.	

16. Specify the sender of the programme		
Australia	Sport Without Borders is financially supported by government, trusts, and businesses.	
Canada	Commonwealth Sport Canada (NGO) coordinates the SportWORKS S4N Initiative.	
Denmark	Danish Sport Confederation in collaboration with municipalities and voluntary organisations (e.g., The National Olympic Committee and Sport Confederation of Denmark, Save the children)	
Sweden	The government	
Germany	The Federal Ministry of the Interior (BMI) and The Ministry for Migration and Refugees (BAMF), in co-governance with the German Olympic Sports Association (DOSB).	
Switzerland	The Sport Union Schweiz is a national federation for mass sports (Breitensportverband), who supports the aim of "sports for all" throughout their 200 member clubs and 35`000 members. The project MiTu Move Together is managed by a project team embedded in the Sport Union Schweiz.	
Norway	Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports/The Norwegian government (the Norwegian Directorate of Immigration & Directorate of Integration and Diversity).	
17. Specify intermediary organisations [and their role/s] in the implementation process		
Australia	No hierarchical intermediaries and no direct support to clubs.	
Canada	Commonwealth Sport Canada provides resources and funding to SportWORKS Officers who assist newcomer service organisations (intermediary) in Canadian communities through internships where they support knowledge transfer and capacity building for sport.	
Denmark	No intermediary organisations.	
Sweden	The Swedish Sports Confederation, National Sport Organisations, Regional Sport Organisations	
Germany	State sport confederations (16) and in some cases regional sport confederations act as connector between federal state sport confederations and sports clubs.	
Switzerland	No intermediary organisations.	
Norway	Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF), NIFs regional sport federations and big city councils	

geographi target gro	nether the programme is directed along any of the following aspects: a) clubs in specific c locations, b) clubs with particular structural preconditions, c) clubs with a pronounced up/membership cadre, and d) clubs with whom the sender and/or intermediary have olicy-implementation related relationships.
Australia	No explicit principles for club-based implementation.
Canada	The programme is not directly associated with sports clubs. Instead, it helps connect social service agencies (intermediary) for NAM youth with sport delivery agencies, such as the municipality and sports clubs.
Denmark	 a) clubs in areas with many immigrants and major social problems b) - c) clubs for children and young people d) -
Sweden	 In line with Swedish sport's basic organizing principles, there are no explicit directions concerning targeted accompanying the programme. However, one exception is the so-called Big City Project. a) In the Big City Project, focus was directed at geographical areas with 'low club-sport prescence'. b) Following on the focus described under a), some funds were directed towards clubs with particular structural preconditions such as younger, smaller, and less traditional clubs. c) By focusing on segregated communities in big-city areas, another consequence of the Big City Project was a concentration on clubs with such target groups/membership cadres. d) The Big City Project involved a concentration on clubs with whom the SSC and its regional extensions have had no previous relationships.
Germany	The "Integration through Sport" programme in general is not formally directed along these aspects, sports clubs contact the intermediary and apply for funding. Presumably, intermediaries reach out to clubs with whom they have worked in the past. a) — b) and c) One pillar of the "Integration through Sport" programme is the funding of sports clubs as integration bases. Sports clubs can apply for the certification as one, but have to commit themselves to specific tasks. When they, for example, have above average membership of migrants in their region then they are granted (additional) funding. c) — d) —
Switzerland	a) Aims to implement the programme in all four language regions of Switzerland b) Clubs do not have to be members of Sport Union Schweitz, members of Schweizerischer Turnverband (Swiss Gymnastics) are supported throughout the process. c) Families with children in pre-school age d) —
Norway	a) - b) - c) - d) -

Rules and their associated argumentation	
19. Describe the programmes activity rules and their associated argumentation	
Australia	The Sports Scholarship Programme provides access to young people wishing to participate in sports clubs and community organisations using sport to encourage social connections.
Canada	SportWORKS Officers work with newcomer service organisations in each of the communities. The rationale for assisting established newcomer service organisations is to avoid parallel work and enhance the capacity of the organisations that are already established in this area of work.
Denmark	Professional and financial help relieve volunteer leaders and coaches so that they can concentrate on training and club management instead of spending effort on practical and social problems.
Sweden	All organisations in Swedish voluntary sport were encouraged to seek funding. To administer and coordinate these efforts, regionally placed integration and inclusion officers were installed. The rationale underpinning this arrangement is that clubs are autonomous actors and therefore need to be enticed by external funding.
Germany	Clubs need to be certified as so-called 'integration bases' (Stützpunktvereine). As such, clubs are obliged to follow a specific set of formal rules from the German Olympic Sports Association (DOSB). The formal rules, which are valid across all activities concern administrative and accountability prescriptions from the national government.
Switzerland	MiTu Move Together supports programmes led by local sports clubs in contacting families with special needs. The project supplements the programmes of local sports clubs by promoting and supporting the direct approach of the groups to be integrated and building and leverage networks between associations, municipalities, and specialist agencies on national, regional, and local levels. The project supports the leaders of the programmes with a compensation for each activity with the supplement MiTu.
Norway	Clubs can apply for a maximum of NOK 25 000 per activity category (sport activities at refugee centres & including NAMs in regular sporting activities). Applications are processed by NIF's regional bodies and big city sport councils. Funds could be used to buy equipment, pay coaching fees, rent facilities, and pay membership fees.

Australia	Sport Without Border's Advisory Committee work with supporters to deliver the programmes to and with sports clubs.
Canada	The sender Commonwealth Sport Canada is responsible for the transfer of knowledge and capacity building around sport at the newcomer service organisations, through its interns. The intermediary (newcomer service organisation) is responsible for providing feedback and insight into the complexities of the challenges and issues faced by newcomers in the community. The argumentation is that SportWORK Officers are versed in the area of sport and leveraging sport for positive outcome, and the newcomer service organisations understand the challenges involved with newly arrived migrants and their community.
Denmark	The relationship between 'sender' and 'receiver' corresponds to the relationship in the sports field in general in Denmark. Very few specified requirements from the sender and few documentation requirements. The rationale underpinning this arrangement is a high level of trust and respect for voluntary associations' autonomy.
Sweden	The government offers and sets goals for funding. The SSC distributes funds (and mandate) to its regional organisations for installing integration officers. Sports clubs can also apply for funding from regional and national sport organisations. The main rationale underpinning this distribution of funding and mandate is that all organisations in this federative system are independent entities made up of their members who are free to decide on appropriate ends and means.
Germany	The German Olympic Sports Association (DOSB) is responsible for setting goals and distributing funds to intermediaries and have the obligation to report back (financial accountability) to the donors. The state sport confederations are responsible for adapting the programme to their specific regional and structural/organisational conditions and have to report back to the DOSB (financial accountability and evaluation of the objectives determined in their application).
Switzerland	To facilitate common understandings on project aims and underlying values, contracts are set up between Sport Union Schweiz and clubs. The project management provides network resources on national, regional, and local level and sports clubs deliver activities. This distribution of mandate aims at supporting the local, volunteer-led programmes by minimizing their time spent on administration.
Norway	The sender's (the Government) right is to set goals for its funding while simultaneously offer reasonable conditions (i.e., reasonable goals, appropriate funding, etc.). The intermediaries (NIF, SF, IK, IR) are granted the prerogative to prioritize and distribute mandate and funding further down the hierarchy. In this specific case, NIF decided to distribute most of the funds (and mandate) to its regional extensions, who again screened and made recommendations for sports clubs who applied for funding. The primary rationale underpinning this distribution of mandate and funding is that all organisations in this federative system are independent entities made up of their members who are free to decide on appropriate ends and means.

21. Describe the programmes end-users/target group and associated argumentation	
Australia	Sports Without Boarders provides support for young people from new and emerging communities to overcome the barriers of participation in community sport and works to build social inclusion through sport.
Canada	Newcomer youth as there are likely to have the hardest time integrating, have the least resources individually, and over the long term are likely to be more impacted.
Denmark	Socially vulnerable children and children from immigrant families residing in immigrant-dense and socially vulnerable residential areas.
Sweden	The programmes primary target group is NAMs and asylum seekers.
Germany	NAMs along with all people with a migration background, in particular girls, women, and older people as they are underrepresented in organized sport.
Switzerland	Children aged 3-5 in families with special needs and their parents or other caregivers. Families with special needs are defined as those with a) migration background, b) with a disabled child or, c) with financial difficulties. Within the group, children from different cultures and language backgrounds come together. Target groups are excluded from social life and physical exercise with their children due to scarce time-, financial-or cultural/knowledge resources.
Norway	NAMs and asylum seekers.
22. Describe the monitoring build into the programme and its associated argumentation	
Australia	Not publicly specified.
Canada	Both sender and intermediary are collecting data for monitoring and evaluation for future programming and longitudinal indicators.
Denmark	As a rule, there is no monitoring, but organisations and associations often have to submit a short report explaining how the public support has been used.
Sweden	The programme is monitored through a) internal follow-ups (to showcase results to internal- and external stakeholders), b) external follow-ups (to grant credibility to the review process), c) external statistics (to avail for adjustments in programme design), d) external evaluations (to capture regional differences), and e) commissioned research (to create knowledge on how the target group wants to be approached).
Germany	All involved actors are responsible for reporting spending and goal-fulfilment upwards in the hierarchy. At times, independent scientific evaluations of the programme are carried out (commissioned by the German Olympic Sports Association).
Switzerland	Participation rates and data are evaluated and compared to families with no special needs. The programme is also evaluated using by an external agency.
Norway	Clubs that receive support are required to report to NIF. NIF in turn is required to send a report to Directorate of Integration and Diversity.



