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Social and Financial Return on Investment of IRTS programmes

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Review of Current Assessment Studies

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Executive Summary

To be added later



1 Introduction

Sport and physical activity as a tool for social impact has received widespread recognition in research, practice and policy over the past decades. Among the developments in this field is the inclusion of refugees and other forcibly displaced persons through sport (henceforth Integration of Refugees Through Sport - IRTS). In this report, we refer **to IRTS as the use of sport and physical activity programmes to facilitate the inclusion, health and learning of refugees and other forcibly displaced persons**. While a growing body of literature shows that IRTS programmes can result in a range of health and social benefits, the societal and financial value of these benefits has received limited attention.

Yet, due to increasing pressures on (public) funding, measurable social and financial values (returns) of interventions have become increasingly relevant as a decision criterion for public expenditure of resources. As a result, social impact measurement has recently become more important for implementing organisations and funders to assess the societal value created by an intervention and determine its 'value for money'. **An emerging method for measuring the social impact of an intervention is the Social Return on Investment (SROI)**. SROI is increasingly used across a range of policy areas, particularly by public agencies and third sector organisations, to measure and value social impacts and justify public investment (Fujiwara 2014). To better understand how the SROI approach is applied in sport-based interventions, specifically in the context of IRTS, **the purpose of this report is to review both academic and grey literature to help build an initial overview of the field**.

The report is divided into four parts. The **first part** provides a **general introduction** to the topic of social impact measurement and different approaches used to assess the social and financial value of (sport) interventions. In particular, it focuses on the SROI approach, its general definition and the rationale behind the approach.

The **second part** of the report focuses on the **methodology** used to explore the application of the SROI approach in the context of refugee and forcibly displaced persons inclusion through sport.

Section three provides a **systematic review of the relevant literature**. An initial search revealed a significant lack of research in the specific area of the application of SROI in IRTS programmes. In order to still provide an overview of the financial and social value of IRTS programmes, it was therefore decided to broaden the scope of the review to include similar contexts including **SROI in the sport (for development) context** and **SROI in the refugee context**.

The **fourth part** of the report **summarises and evaluates the key findings and critically discusses the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the SROI approach** in the context of IRTS programmes.

This report ends with a short **conclusion** and some **future recommendations**.

1.1 Terminology

Despite the project's title, Integration of Refugees through Sport, this report will include more-open terminology based on the preference of both our stakeholders and academic literature. As a result, this report uses the term “inclusion” in place of “integration”. This choice reflects ongoing shifts in academic perspectives, where the term integration has been criticised for its association with state policies that only narrowly define processes of arrival and societal participation (e.g. Rytter 2019; Schinkel 2017).

Similarly, while the term “refugee” has a specific legal definition and much of the focus of this report is on refugees, our project partners often engage with individuals beyond this definition. To account for this broader population, we follow the terminology used by UNHCR, which uses forced displacement as an “open-ended term referring to the involuntary movement of people within or out of their country” (UNHCR 2018: 102). **Consequently, we use the term “forcibly displaced persons” to better represent the diverse range of people served by IRTS programmes.** This term includes, but is not limited to, refugees. Where citing other work, the terminology they used will be included.

2 Social Impact Measurement and the SROI Approach

This chapter provides an overview of social impact measurement in general, and the SROI approach in particular. First, the chapter highlights why social impact measurement has become more important to different stakeholders, and then delves into the different parts of an **SROI analysis based on Nicholls et al.'s (2012) framework**. The aim is to **provide a basic understanding of this approach** however it is beyond the scope of this report to provide in-depth information on how to conduct an SROI analysis¹.

2.1 Measuring social impact – emerging trends and developments

The integration and combination of economic, social and environmental values has become increasingly important for organisations in the private, public and third sectors (Corvo et al., 2022). To assess the blended value created by an intervention or programme, organisations are engaging more and more in social impact measurement activities. As part of this development, **several methods have emerged for organisations to conduct social impact analyses**. Yet there is some ambiguity regarding the definitional clarity of the term ‘social impact’ and the standardisation of these methods (Molecke & Pinkse, 2017). **In this report, we draw on a definition by Rawhouser et al. (2017, p. 83), which covers the diverse contexts in which social impact measurement is applied and the range of stakeholders involved.** They understand social impact as “beneficial outcomes resulting from prosocial behavior that are enjoyed by the intended targets of that behavior and/or by the broader community of individuals, organizations, and/or environments.” **Following this definition, social impact measurement can be understood as all the**

¹ More practical information and guidance on how to conduct an SROI analysis can be found in [“A guide to Social Return on Investment”](#) by Nicholls et al. (2012).

activities an organisation undertakes to understand its contribution (individually or collectively) to observed changes in society and the environment (cf. Figure 1).



Figure 1: The Model of SROI

The increase in social impact measurement activities in recent years is based on a number of emerging and interrelated trends. First, due to funding pressures, public and private funders increasingly demand data on the impact of interventions to allocate resources effectively and maximise value for money (Corvo et al., 2022). The increased emphasis on evidence-based decision making is driving organisations to adopt formal social impact measurement methodologies. This development is further shaped by trends towards **rationalisation and marketisation in the social sector**, emerging from the fields of finance and accounting (Molecke & Pinkse, 2017). This shift has led to **greater adoption of performance measurement** and reporting practices in order to improve efficiency and accountability decisions. Finally, these developments have influenced the social impact measurement and evaluation strategies of nonprofits and social enterprises (Molecke & Pinkse, 2017). While implementing organisations have used monitoring and evaluation activities to assess social outcomes (e.g. changes in participants' behaviour) for quite some time, the measurement of long-term outcomes and impact has only recently become more important for them. This development has been strongly influenced by external stakeholder demands (Whitley et al., 2020).

The recent developments have created a complex construct of different stakeholders involved in social impact measurement, driven by diverse underlying interest: While **funders** may be more interested in focusing on an **accountability function** to assess the maximum social impact for each amount they invest in a programme or intervention (Liket et al., 2014). **Implementing organisations** may be more interested in using evaluation and social impact measurement to **enhance organisational learning** and improve their programmes (Molecke & Pinkse, 2017). These different underlying objectives need to be taken into account when conducting a social impact analysis.

One specific approach of measuring social impact that attempts to combine accountability and learning objectives is the **Social Return on Investment approach**, which will be outlined in the next chapter.

2.2 Social Return on Investment – An introduction of the approach

Social Return on Investment “is a framework used for understanding, measuring and valuing net social impacts of an activity, organisation or intervention” (Nicholls et al., 2012). **There are two types of SROI:**

- a) **evaluative**, which assesses actual outcomes retrospectively
- b) **forecast**, which estimates potential social value based on expected outcomes.

The SROI approach aims to assess the social value generated by an activity or organisation. Typically, this involves a "social investor," such as a public institution, foundation or a company engaged in Corporate Social Responsibility, who views its activities as "social investments" and measures their positive impacts as a "social return" (Krlev et al., 2013).

The SROI method intends to illustrate the relationship between social investments and their benefits by converting certain elements of social value into financial metrics, resulting in an SROI coefficient. **The SROI coefficient expresses the monetary value of outcomes relative to the initial investment**, e.g. a ratio of 2:1 indicates that a €1 investment returns €2 in social value. Although communicating this ratio can be attractive to stakeholders, it is important to note that this **SROI ratio should not be compared without the context**. Therefore, the monetary aspect is further enriched by both quantitative and qualitative evaluations of the softer "social" returns. Krlev et al. (2013) consider three different rationales of the SROI:

1. **Monetisable value creation:** social benefits that can be clearly translated into financial returns.
2. **Non-monetised value creation:** social benefits that cannot be directly translated into monetary terms.
3. **Value creation for society:** SROI emphasises the value created for various stakeholders, including society at large, rather than focusing solely on financial returns to investors.

Overall, SROI aims to evaluate an intervention from a social, economic and environmental perspective, known as the triple bottom line (Norman & MacDonald, 2004). The approach thereby aims to highlight the impact of social investments, often showing that the social value created exceeds the resources invested, highlighting the importance of looking beyond mere economic value. Consequently, the results of an SROI analysis can provide results that support communication with stakeholders and inform strategic decision making.

Nevertheless, **conducting an SROI analysis requires time and a wide range of knowledge and skills**, including programme evaluation, performance measurement, cost-benefit analysis and financial analysis.



Yates and Marra (2017, p. 138) emphasise that an “SROI still is only as good, or bad, as those who implement it.”

One of the most frequently used frameworks that provides guidance for conducting an SROI analysis is that proposed by Nicholls et al. (2012). **The framework divides the process of an SROI analysis into six distinct stages**, including:

1) Establishing scope and identifying stakeholders

The six stages process starts with defining the scope of the analysis, including what will be measured, who the key stakeholders are and how the analysis will be conducted.

2) Mapping outcomes

Next, an impact map is developed through stakeholder engagement, illustrating the relationships between inputs, activities and outcomes. Inputs refer to the resources or efforts contributed by stakeholders to make an activity possible.

3) Evidencing outcomes and giving them a value

Outputs represent a quantifiable summary of the activity, for example the amount of people trained through a programme. Outcomes are the final results or changes that stem from the activity. Taken together, these elements build a theory of change that explains how inputs facilitate the achievement of outputs, which in turn drive the changes reflected in the outcomes.

4) Establishing impact

Once the outcomes have been mapped, data is collected to confirm whether these changes have occurred. Any factors unrelated to the intervention are removed in order to focus solely on the actual impact. Once the final outcomes have been identified, their (monetary) value is determined. **Valuation is the process of assigning a monetary value to items that are not traded on the market.** In our everyday life, prices act as proxies, estimating the value of goods and services and the exchange of value between sellers and buyers. **There are several methods used to value different outcomes:** For health outcomes such as “overall good health”, **cost-saving methods** are commonly used, for example the cost of attending a doctor. Another approach for physical health includes using “**cost of an activity that could result in the same outcome**” e.g. gym memberships, biking, swimming to represent the health benefits gained (Nieto et al., 2024).

SROI also gives value to outcomes that are harder to measure. For these, the **willingness-to-pay approach** is often used, which directly asks people how they value things and how much they would pay for them. When selecting proxies, it's important to keep in mind that valuation is regardless of whether money is actually exchanged or stakeholders can afford the monetary value placed on outcomes. **There is no standardisation of the valuation process yet.** Consequently, to be methodically sound, the process requires transparent and plausible decision-making with stakeholder involvement and a focus on outcomes that can be clearly attributed to the activities of a programme or intervention.



To address challenges of attribution and over-claiming, **an SROI analysis incorporates a number of adjustments**. These include the following aspects, which help to assess whether the outcomes analysed in the previous steps are actually a result of the activities carried out:

- **Deadweight:** How much of the outcome would have occurred naturally, without the activity? To calculate deadweight, reference is made to comparison groups or benchmarks.
- **Displacement:** How much of the activity displaced other outcomes?
- **Attribution:** How much of the outcome was caused by external factors such as other organisations or people, rather than the activity itself?
- **Drop-off:** How much does the outcome reduce over time? This information is usually presented as percentages.

5) Calculating the SROI

In SROI, financial proxies are used to estimate the social value of non-traded goods to different stakeholders. By combining the valuation of different financial proxies, an estimate can be made of the total social value created by an intervention. Once all information in step 4 has been collected, the fifth step is to calculate the SROI ratio and test its robustness using a sensitivity analysis. The sensitivity analysis examines the extent to which the results depend on the assumptions made. It tests changes in deadweight, attribution, proxies, outcomes and inputs. **The recommended approach is to calculate how much each estimate needs to change in order to show a social return of €1 for every €1 invested.** This shows how changes in estimates affect the ratio.

6) Reporting, using and embedding

Finally, the last stage of an SROI analysis involves sharing the results with stakeholders and using the findings to refine processes ensuring that the results are integrated into ongoing practice. When reporting the results of an SROI analysis, it is important to include qualitative and quantitative aspects beyond the calculated financial aspects to provide a comprehensive assessment of the social impact of an intervention or programme.

Alongside the six stages, Nicholls et al. (2012) have **highlighted seven principles that need to be carefully considered when conducting an SROI analysis**:

1. **Involve stakeholders:** Include stakeholders throughout the process to ensure that the measurement and valuation of outcomes reflect their perspectives.
2. **Understand what changes:** Identify and provide evidence of the changes that occur, both intended and unintended, and their positive and negative impacts.
3. **Value the things that matter:** Use financial proxies to recognise the value of outcomes that aren't traded in markets, and ensure that stakeholders are represented, especially those who are excluded from markets.

4. **Only include what is material:** Focus on information that gives an accurate picture of the impact, based on what stakeholders would consider substantial.
5. **Do not over-claim:** Claim only the value directly attributable to the organisation's actions, excluding outcomes that would have happened regardless.
6. **Be transparent:** Clearly document and explain decisions made throughout the analysis, including stakeholder engagement, data collection methods and how results are communicated.
7. **Verify the result:** Provide independent assurance to confirm the validity of the analysis and give stakeholders confidence in the results.

3 SROI in Physical Activity and Sport: First Overview

The increase in social impact measurement activities by organisations in the private, public and third sectors has also led to an increase in research in this area. As this report focuses specifically on the use of sport and physical activity to generate financial and social value, the following section provides an overview of the findings of **two key reviews** in this field from **Gosselin et al. (2020)** and **Nieto et al. (2024)**.

In a systematic literature review, **Gosselin et al. (2020)** assessed the use of SROI within the field of **physical activity and sport (PAS)**. The majority of the identified studies were conducted in the UK (76%) and published as grey literature (94%). The publication of studies between 2010 and 2018 shows that the application of SROI in sport is a relatively new field of research. **Most of the studies were carried out by private consulting firms (41%)**, but universities and sports organisations were also represented among those conducting them. About half of the studies (53%) were considered by Gosselin et al. (2020) to be of good quality, **but the study design was identified as the weakest area**. The lack of a control group in all studies and the employment of a before and after comparison in only 18% of the studies weakened the quality of the SROI analysis. The identified studies covered a variety of areas in physical activity and sport, including primary prevention (n=8), sport for development (SFD) (n=5), secondary and tertiary prevention (n=3) and high-performance sport (n=1).

The outcomes analysed in the studies consist of a diverse range of areas, such as personal resources (e.g. health, well-being, knowledge, self-efficacy), community resources (e.g. social contacts, relationships, social trust), regional resources (e.g. economic development), organisational resources (e.g. capacity, productivity), public resources (e.g. fiscal benefits, reduced obesity), and societal resources (e.g. intercultural interaction, increased understanding of gender equality, disability and ethnicity). The studies in the area of SFD covered the most diverse outcomes as each type of outcome was represented in at least one study. However, due to difficulties in the quantification and reliable measurement of some outcomes, they were not monetised in the SROI studies but instead only mentioned as further information. The large variety of **outcomes shows that physical activity and sport in general and SFD in particular generate benefit to individuals and society in multiple ways**. It is notable that the studies in the context of physical

activity and sport put a greater focus on outcomes related to community resources in comparison to the wider field of SROI studies. **Despite the wide variety of outcomes measured, none of the studies included negative outcomes in their analysis**, a common weakness also “noted in previous SROI reviews” (Gosselin et al., 2020, p.8).

The calculated SROI ratios in the studies ranged from 1.7:1 to 124:1. **Thus, all studies identified a positive return on investment and every 1 € invested in the analysed physical activity and sport programmes, generates 1.7€ to 124€ of social benefit.** The lowest SROI ratio (1.7:1) was evaluated in a high performance and a youth development programme. The highest SROI ratio (124:1) resulted from a study about a programme for people with a disability. **Excluding these extreme values, the SROI values of the studies range from 3:1 to 12.5:1.** The mean ratio of the studies conducted in the area of SFD was the second highest with 5.9:1, only surpassed by the ratio for programmes in the area of secondary and tertiary prevention (44:1). The values generated by the SROI analyses tempt us to determine the success and usefulness of the programmes for society based on the level of SROI. However, **the calculated values are not comparable with each other, due to the high heterogeneity in the methods employed in the different studies.** In line with this, the majority of the studies were not designed to inform a decision-making process, although the SROI framework was essentially developed for this purpose. Instead, SROI was used to demonstrate the benefits of the programmes. This reflects the accountability function of social impact measurement rather than learning objectives which can help organisations improve their programmes.

The second key review identified in the literature by Nieto et al. (2024) provides an update to the review by Gosselin et al. (2020) and extends its scope by addressing the question of how social outcomes are measured and valued. Their review included a total of 55 documents from 2010 to 2022, primarily from high-income countries. The largest number of studies identified were conducted in the United Kingdom (n=30). Out of 55 documents, 3 conducted a forecast SROI (predicting future value), 5 combined forecast and evaluative SROI, and the remaining 47 were evaluative SROI analysis (assessing past outcomes). The majority of studies used an evaluation timeframe of one year of activity (n=27), 11 studies covered more than one year (ranging from 1.5 to 5 years), 6 studies evaluated less than one year and 14 did not specify a timeframe. Only 8 documents were peer reviewed scientific studies whereas 47 were reports describing SROI analysis carried out by a specific organisation. The organisations carrying out the scientific articles were all universities, whereas the organisations responsible for the reports were a mix of sports clubs, universities, external consultants, and government agencies. All documents aimed to quantify the wider benefits of PAS for public understanding, with 9 studies explicitly aiming to attract funding or guide resource allocation. 6 studies aimed to use the SROI analysis as a model for future programmes and evaluations.

The majority of studies evaluated the benefits of specific programmes, and 6 studies measured participation in PAS at the population level, based on national or community surveys. In terms of the focus of PAS, most of the studies identified in the review focused on sport (n=29) or a combination of both (n=17), while only 9 studies focused on physical activity. Physical activity programmes included walking,

cycling and mixed activities. The sport studies focused heavily on football (n=19), but also included baseball, athletics, rugby or other mixed sports.

Stakeholder groups that were involved in the PAS programmes included diverse groups that were divided into four categories: (1) Individual/consumer sector (e.g. direct participants of the activity); (2) Private/commercial sector (e.g. PAS providers); (3) Charities/third sector (e.g. voluntary clubs); (4) Public/government sector (e.g. healthcare systems).

The primary social outcomes measured in the studies fell into six domains: health (94.5%), crime (50.9%), education (83.6%), subjective well-being (89.1%), social capital (60%) and others (3.6%-23.6%). Health and subjective well-being were the most frequently measured outcomes. Health related outcomes were classified into four subcategories: effects on general health, physical health, mental health and other effects of improved health. Indicators of crime included reduced crime, reduced calls for service, reduced anti-social behaviour, reduced substance misuse, safer places and reduced recidivism. Education outcomes were classified into the sub-categories of impact on educational attainment, absenteeism, skills acquisition and other impacts of improved education. Subjective well-being outcomes were grouped into seven subcategories: general well-being, quality of life, life satisfaction, happiness, motivation, self-confidence and self-esteem, and other outcomes. Finally, networks and relationships, sense of identity and belonging, community engagement, inclusion, integration and equality and trust formed the social capital outcomes identified in the documents.

In terms of valuation methods, the review found several approaches used to value the different outcomes. For health outcomes, cost-saving methods were commonly used. "Overall good health" was often valued by annual National Health System savings per person, while "physical health" and "mental health" outcomes were frequently valued by the cost of treatment per condition. A notable approach for physical health was using exercise costs (e.g., gym memberships, biking, swimming) to represent the health benefits gained. For criminal outcomes, most documents used the cost of criminal incidents as a financial proxy. Educational outcomes were mostly valued on the basis of education-related Gross Domestic Product growth, by estimating the annual average of lifetime productivity returns due to PAS, or the cost of an activity that could lead to the same outcome. The "cost of activity that could result in the same outcome" method was also commonly used for subjective well-being and social capital outcomes.

A general challenge highlighted by the review was the lack of standardisation of outcomes and financial proxies, making it difficult to directly compare the results of different SROI studies. Nieto et al. (2024) conclude that, to improve consistency and comparability, future SROI studies should clarify cost inclusions and adopt more standardised indicators and proxies across studies in the field of Physical Activity and Sport.

4 Methodology of the Literature Review

The initial aim of this report was to provide an overview of the application of the SROI approach in the context of forcibly displaced persons inclusion through sport. However, after starting the literature search, it quickly became evident that there was **a lack of research in this specific area**. In order to explore how the SROI approach could be used in the context of IRTS, **it was therefore decided to look at similar contexts**. In principle, the topic of applying the SROI approach in the context of integration can be divided into **three sub-dimensions: Inclusion of forcibly displaced persons, Sport (for development) and the SROI Approach**. Due to the lack of research on all three dimensions together, we decided to

- a) conduct a SROI analysis in the sport (for development) context,
- b) conduct a SROI analysis in the forcibly displaced persons context.

The aim was to **identify ten studies for each of these two thematic areas**. However, only eight studies were identified as an in the field of forcibly displaced persons (see figure 1).

In order to identify these studies, **a knowledge-based approach** was used in which both the authors of this report and the project partners of the Erasmus+ project Global IRTS collected studies that were already known to them. Additionally, an **internet search** was carried out to identify further studies. In an iterative process, we assessed whether the already identified studies met the criteria and searched for further studies until the number of ten studies was reached or it became apparent that no further studies could be identified within a reasonable period of time. **To be considered for inclusion, studies had to address one of the topic areas and were not a literature review or meta-analysis. Other inclusion criteria were:**

- ✓ scientific articles or grey literature;
- ✓ published in English;
- ✓ evaluation of SROI in monetary terms in the field of a) sport (for development) or b) forcibly displaced persons.

Additionally, **the following exclusion criteria were applied:**

- ✓ publications without a calculated monetary value;
- ✓ publications using models other than the SROI approach;
- ✓ publications using the SROI approach but not related to the specified topics;
- ✓ and theoretical papers (literature review, meta-analysis, etc.)².

² Although theoretical papers were excluded from the analysis of SROI in the context of sport for development and forcibly displaced persons, literature reviews of relevance identified during our research have been included in the literature review chapter above to provide an overview of recent findings.

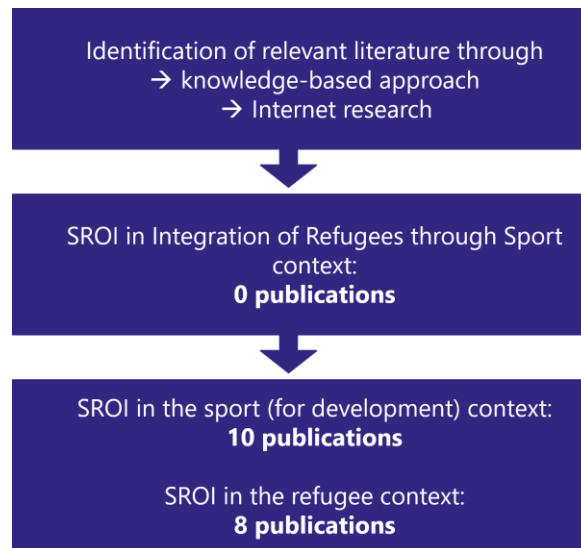


Figure 2: Methodology of the literature review

A set of criteria was defined to analyse the studies using the SROI approach. The criteria were derived from the most commonly used **SROI framework by Nicholls et al. (2012)** and include:

- year of publication
- country
- subject of study
- SROI-Ratio
- identified stakeholders (if applicable)
- outcomes
- sources of data for identification, quantification & valuation of outcomes
- consideration of negative outcomes
- consideration of impact adjustments and sensibility testing.

With regard to the impact adjustments and sensitivity tests, it analysed whether the studies included the areas of deadweight, attribution, drop-off, duration and displacement in their calculations and whether a sensitivity analysis was carried out. The specific values determined and used in the individual areas were not analysed in detail as this would have gone beyond the scope of this report. In the analysis of studies that conducted an SROI analysis in the context of sport (for development), a further criterion distinguished studies that looked at sport in general and studies that were located in a sport for development context.

The aim of the following overviews of the subject areas is not to provide an exhaustive analysis of the literature, but to create initial insights that can help to apply the SROI approach in the context of the inclusion of forcibly displaced persons through sport in the future.

5 SROI in the context of sport (for development)

As outlined in table 1, ten SROI studies were identified in the context of sport (for development). The full table is available in Appendix 10.1.

Table 1 SROI publications in the context of sport (for development)

Author	Year	Country	Subject of Studie	SFD/ Sport	SROI-ratio
W. Butler & K. Leatham	2014	UK	Three projects of the Active Communities Network (ACN) Sutton Positive Futures , Urban Stars and Southwark b-active use sport to engage with young people. The objectives of the projects include the reduction and prevention of drug and alcohol consumption and associated crimes, the reduction and prevention of (violent and weapon related) youth crimes and the increase of social cohesion.	SFD	4.21:1
Laureus	2011	UK	The three projects Kickz , The Boxing Academy and 2nd Chance use sport activities with young people to reduce youth crime.	SFD	1. Kickz: 7.53:1 2. The Boxing Academy: 3.05:1 3. 2nd Chance: 4.70:1
Laureus, ECORYS	2012	UK, Germany, Italy	The SROI Analysis included the evaluation of 4 youth sport projects. Kick im Boxing (Germany) and Midnight Basketball (Italy) primarily aim to reduce criminal behaviour. Sport & Thought (UK) primarily	SFD	1. Sport and Thought: 6.58 2. Fight for Peace: 4.42 3. Kick im Boxing: 3.43

			focuses on the reduction of school exclusion and truancy. Fight for Peace (UK) primarily aims to engage young people in their personal development.		4. Midnight Basketball: 5.65
C. Hannah-Russell, R. Joiner, S. Radford, T. Dickson, S. Grimmett, S. Covington & E. Howe	2022	UK	The Programme aims at reducing loneliness and social isolation in older people and increasing employment and education in younger people by training and supporting young people to conduct physical activity sessions with older people. The focus of the programme is on the older people.	SFD	2.68:1
C. Baker, P. Courtney, K. Kubinakova, L. Ellis, E. Loughren & D. Crone	2017	UK	Gloucestershire County Council's (GCC) Active Together (AT) programme aims to help encourage more participation in sport and physical activity across the county by engaging with different groups of the community (sport clubs, scout groups, parish and town councils, schools).	Sport	7.25:1
B. Sanders & E. Raptis	2017	South Africa	The project initiated by Grassroot Soccer South Africa promotes youth employability and leadership by training coaches in basic and foundational skills for the labour market, vocational or technical skills, professional and personal skills (e.g. habits, ethics,	SFD	1.72:1

			personal integrity) and core skills (e.g. computer literacy, problem-solving, social interaction).		
UEFA grow	2020	Europe	The UEFA grow project developed a framework to conduct a SROI analysis of the value of football for the European National Football Associations .	Sport	No SROI-ratio. Total valuation: > €43 billion.
L. Davies, E. Christy, G. Ramchandani & P. Taylor	2020	UK	The analysis evaluated the total value of the sport sector in England .	Sport	3.28:1
R. Buckland, J. Nicolaou & N. Marsh	2018	Australia	The analysis evaluated the value of club-based football in Western Australia .	Sport	2.16:1
W. Alomoto, A. Niñerola & M.-V. Sánchez-Rebull	2024	Spain	The Asociación la Muralla offers help to people with mental disorders through a social club that uses art and sport workshops.	SFD	12.12:1

5.1 Year of Publication

The 10 studies were published between 2011 and 2024. This indicates that the use of the SROI analysis in sport is a relatively new field. Since only 3 of the studies were published before 2015, **the approach seems to have become increasingly important in recent years in particular.**

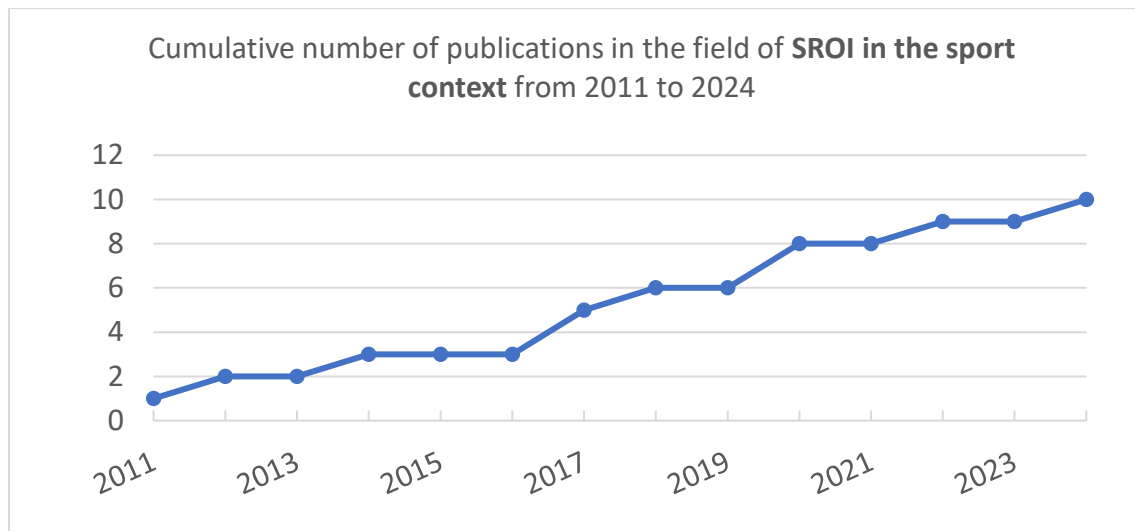


Figure 3: Cumulative number of publications in the context of SROI and sport (for development)

5.2 Country

Most of the studies were conducted within one country. These included the UK (n=5), Spain, Australia and South Africa. Additionally, the study of Laureus & Ecocrys (2012) analysed projects in three different countries (UK, Germany, Italy) and the SROI approach developed in the UEFA Grow Project was implemented in a total of 28 different European countries. The distribution of countries in which the studies were conducted shows that the approach is predominantly employed in **countries of the Global North**. It is striking that more than half of the identified studies were (partially) carried out in the UK (n=6).

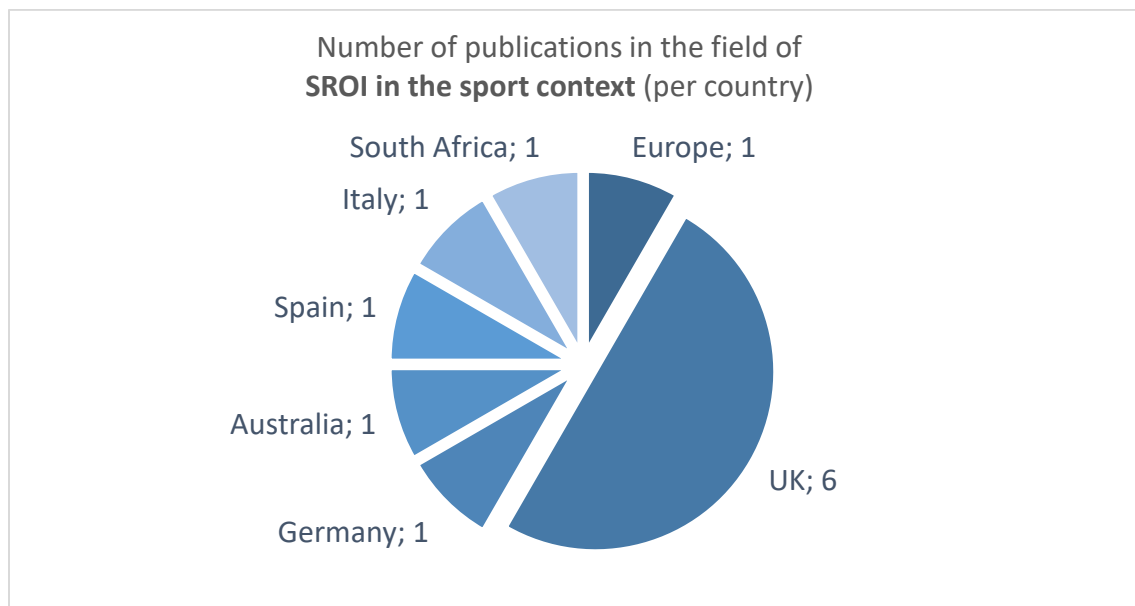


Figure 4: Publications per country in the context of SROI and sport (for development)

5.3 Subject of Study

Four of the studies looked at the social impacts of people participating in a specific sport (Australian Football, Football/Soccer) or sport and physical activity in general. The geographical scope of these studies is between the regional and the country level, with the UEFA grow project SROI approach being explicitly developed to be used in different countries.

Six studies were conducted in the context of Sport for Development programmes. Most of these programmes were targeted at young people (n=4).

Furthermore, one programme addressed young and older people together, with a focus on the older people, and one programme targeted people with mental health disorders. **The thematic areas of the programmes for young people include crime reduction, drug prevention, social cohesion, reduction of truancy and school exclusion, personal development, employability (see figure 4).** The programme focused on older people aimed at reducing loneliness and isolation and the programme for people with mental health disorders aimed to support their (re-)integration to society.

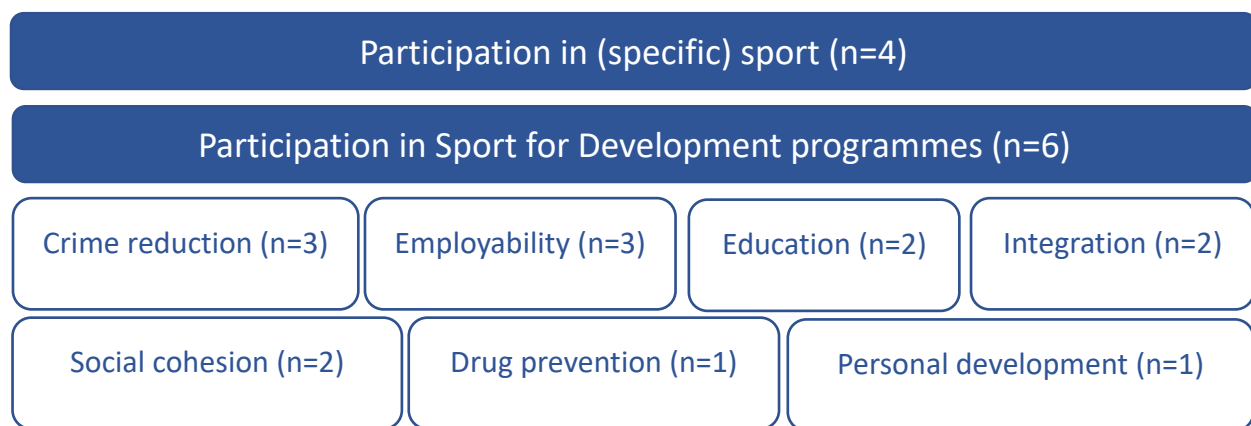


Figure 5: Subject of studies in the field of SROI and sport (for development)

5.4 SROI ratio

The calculated SROI ratios ranged between 1.72:1 and 12.12:1. The lowest SROI ratio was calculated in the study of Sanders & Raptis (2017) about a Sport for Development project that promotes youth employability in South Africa. The highest SROI ratio was calculated in the study of Alomoto et al. (2014) about a Sport for Development project that works with people with mental disorders in Spain. **The UEFA Grow study did not calculate an SROI value.**

Table 2: SROI-ratios in the context of sport (for development)

Study	SROI-ratio
Butler & Leathem (2014)	4.21:1

Laureus (2011)	Kickz: 7.53:1 The Boxing Academy: 3.05:1 2nd Chance: 4.70:1
Laureus, ECORYS (2012)	1. Sport and Thought: 6.58:1 2. Fight for Peace: 4.42:1 3. Kick im Boxring: 3.43:1 4. Midnight Basketball: 5.65:1
Hannah-Russell et al. (2022)	2.68:1
Baker et al. (2017)	7.25:1
Sanders & Raptis (2017)	1.72:1
UEFA grow (2020)	No ratio. Total valuation of the programme: > €43 billion
Davies et al. (2020)	3.28:1
Buckland et al. (2018)	2.16:1
Alomoto et al. (2014)	12.12:1

5.5 SROI Approach

The majority of studies (n=7) employed the SROI framework of Nicholls et al. or a self-adapted version of the framework (n=1). Solely the studies conducted by Laureus (2011) and Laureus & Ecocrys (2012) developed their own approach whereby the approach of the latter was based on the knowledge gained in the first study. More information about these two studies can be found in Box 1 and 2.

5.6 Identified Stakeholder

As outlined in chapter 2.2, the first step of the SROI framework of Nicholls et al. (2012) is the identification of the relevant stakeholders. **The most frequently mentioned group** in the studies that indicated stakeholders were **participants/users**. Other stakeholder groups included the family and friends of participants, volunteers, people working in the programmes, the wider community, partner organisations, employers, state agencies (e.g. local or governmental authorities, police, judicial system) and sport organisations (e.g. sport clubs, commercial fitness and exercise providers, sport for development organisations). It is interesting to see that in the study of Hannah-Russell et al. (2022) researchers whose academic focus is in line with the objectives of the intervention were also identified as a stakeholder group. An example of the stakeholder identification process can be found in Box 2, which details the study of Butler & Leathem (2014) about three projects of the 'Active Community Network' in London. The reports of the studies of UEFA grow (2020) and Buckland et al. (2018) did not give any information about identified stakeholders.

5.7 Outcomes

In the **area of mental health & well-being**, many studies identified an improvement in general physical and mental health as well as personal/subjective well-being as a desired outcome. More specific outcomes in regard to health were **reduced stress, suicide prevention, improved life expectancy and reduced mortality and the reduction of various diseases** (hypertension, heart disease, strokes, diabetes, breast cancer, colon cancer, dementia, osteoporosis, schizophrenia, anxiety, depression, hip fractures, back pain). Outcomes associated with these improvements were the reduced number of treatments, medical visits and relapses and the avoidance of associated costs. Baker et al. (2017) further investigated the improvement in healthcare access as an outcome. With regard to a change in health behaviour, some studies identified the **reduction and prevention of drug and substance misuse as an outcome**. In addition to the numerous positive outcomes, UEFA grow (2020) and Davies et al. (2020) also included the **negative health consequences of sport in the form of sport injuries in their studies**.

In the **area of education and learning through play**, the studies included various learning outcomes, as well as outcomes related to improved education and employment. The various learning outcomes include **increased social and life skills** (such as confidence, self-esteem, resilience, agency, self-awareness, competence, engagement, purpose and maturity), **improved physical/sporting skills and gained knowledge and awareness in regard to health in general and mental health disorders specifically**. Outcomes related to improved education referred to **increased school attendance** and engagement in school work and the reduction of disruptive behaviour, truancy and school exclusion. This also includes the reduction in the number of young people not in education, employment or training (NEET). In addition, studies investigated **increased educational qualification**, attainment and facilitation of further education. Apart from the improved education, many studies looked at the **improved employability and increased employment**. These outcomes were considered both generally and in more specific sub-topics such as **professional development, improved productivity and job matching and employability skills related to maintaining employment**. The increase in wage and stipend, reduced costs and service facilities for job searching and unemployment, and increased human capital were also considered here. Looking at these different aspects shows that the studies were concerned both with increasing ability to find and perform work, but also with skills for job retention and thus long-term effects.

In the **area of social cohesion**, the addressed outcomes included community improvements, **increased involvement, reduced (youth) crime, safer environments and the relief of social systems**. The community improvements encompass **enhanced social inclusion and social capital, stronger community connections, increased interactions, reduced isolation, improved accessibility of community resources and better integration of different interest groups in the community**. Studies that investigated increased activity looked at this both in a family context and in the community. Whilst the former also looked at improved relationships within families, the latter focused primarily on increased volunteering and associated aspects such as the sense of doing something good for the community. With regard to crime, the outcomes related to a **general reduction and the prevention of re-offending and recidivism**. Most of the studies that investigated criminal behaviour focused on **youth crime**.

In addition to the outcomes that could be assigned to one of the project areas (mental health & well-being, education & learning through play and social cohesion), the studies included further outcomes. Often,



these referred to improvements in organisational aspects of the implementing and affiliated organisations. Examples for this are unrequired resources that can be reallocated, gained expertise, increased collaboration or the ability to raise more funding. In summary, the overview of the outcomes depicts the high variety of dimensions addressed in the studies. **It is striking that only two studies also consider negative outcomes in the form of sports injuries.** The limitation to the positive aspects in SROI studies is criticised, as the calculated SROI ratio can lose its informative value if not all aspects are included in the analysis (Krlev et al., 2013).

5.8 Sources of Data

All studies used a **mixture of primary and secondary data** as a basis for the SROI analysis. While some studies give information about the exact data sources they employed, others stayed rather vague. With regard to **secondary sources**, many studies use **data from (government) institutions** in addition to **scientific publications such as peer-reviewed journals**. These included the metropolitan police, the ministry of justice, the home office, the youth justice board, the british crime survey, the youth cohort survey, the labour force survey, the Family Expenditure Survey, the UK CMO Physical Activity Guidelines, Australian Bureau of Statistics, Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, Australian Sports Commission AusPlay, Productivity Commission Report on Government Services, Western Australian Government State Budget, Department of Prime-Minister and Cabinet. The studies used interviews, surveys/questionnaires, workshops, focus groups and observations to collect primary data. Furthermore, a more informal approach was taken as well by consulting with stakeholders. In the study of Butler & Leathem (2014), questionnaires were specifically employed to assess before-and after indicators. In addition to the data collected explicitly for the SROI studies, **existing internal databases were also available in the studies of Butler & Leathem (2014), UEFA Grow (2020) and Buckland et al. (2018).** In the case of Butler & Leathem (2014), the database included data from facilitated participant questionnaires. The databases used in the UEFA Grow (2020) and Buckland et al. (2018) studies were **statistics from national/regional sport associations.**

The data were used to assess the different outcomes of the studies. Although all studies used primary and secondary data sources, the **valuation approaches vary between the different outcomes and studies:** While some studies provide detailed information on their financial proxies that are derived to measure the outcomes, others do not provide any information on their valuation approaches (Hannah-Russell et al., 2022). As the outcomes can be divided into **tangible and intangible outcomes**, different approaches become apparent: Tangible outcomes such as ‘improved health’ or ‘reduced crime’ are usually measured by valuing the **reduced cost of the change in crime or health** (Davies et al., 2020; UEFA grow, 2020; Laureus, 2011; Laureus & ECORYS, 2012; Butler & Leathem, 2014; Baker et al., 2017). Valuing intangible outcomes, such as ‘increased self-awareness or resilience’, is more difficult and presents a challenge.

One solution to this challenge is the ‘**cost of an activity that could result in the same outcome**’ approach, which is also known as the ‘revealed preference method’. This approach looks for other activities that could compensate for the outcome and uses the cost of that activity as a financial measure of the programme outcome (Alomoto et al., 2024; Butler & Leathem, 2014; Baker et al., 2017).

Another prominent approach is the ‘**willingness to pay**’ approach, which is also known as the ‘stated preference method’. This approach involves stakeholders in the valuation process and asks them to define the value of a particular outcome to them. For example, Butler and Leatham (2014) used ‘**Life Satisfaction Indexing**’ to value improved life satisfaction. In this example people are asked to “reveal a monetary sum in this case approximates value – for example the required increase in their salary that would create the equivalent feeling of improved life satisfaction achieved by the outcome” (p. 53).

Other methods used in the studies analysed often involve estimates and projections of certain conditions. For example, Davies et al. (2020) used a methodology that is also used by the Department of Education to measure improvements in educational attainment. The method includes an estimate of the number of additional participants with formal education and the corresponding average of annual lifetime productivity returns.

Further studies use large databases such as the **Global Value Exchange database** to define financial proxies by adapting global standards to local contexts (Sanders & Raptis, 2017).

A wholly different valuation approach is taken by Buckland et al. (2018). They identified 18 outcomes in their study, which they categorised into one quantified economic benefit, ten quantified social benefits and seven unquantified benefits, such as social inclusion, cultural integration and empowerment. By dividing the outcomes into these categories, the authors limit the calculation of the SROI to tangible outcomes that can be plausibly measured. In addition to the monetary valuation of the tangible outcomes, intangible outcomes are presented in a qualitative way together with the calculated SROI. Moreover, there is a wide range of individual approaches that are not included in this chapter, as this would go beyond the scope of the report.

5.9 Impact Adjustment and Sensibility Analysis

In regard to impact adjustment, the number of studies that did consider its sub-dimensions differed based on the dimension: **Deadweight and Attribution** were considered the most often (n=8). **Duration and Drop-off** was considered in six studies. **Displacement** was only taken into account in three studies. Interestingly, of these three studies, Davis et al and Butler & Leatham set the Displacement rate at 0%. Thus, only Baker et al. (2017) calculated distribution as a factor (3.5%) in their analysis. Further, only five of the studies conducted **sensibility testing**, while the other five studies gave no information about it, which makes it likely they did not perform a sensibility testing. **Despite eight of the studies employing the (adapted) SROI Framework of Nicholls et al. (2012) they did not perform all required steps** in regard to Impact adjustment and Sensibility Analysis.

In order to demonstrate further the specificities of conducting an SROI analysis, the below boxes present two case studies.

5.10 Box 1: Teenage Kicks & Sport Scores

5.10.1 Teenage Kicks



In the project **“Teenage Kicks” funded by the Laureus Sport for Good Foundation**, the consultancy and think tank New Philanthropy Capital conducted a Social Return on Investment Analysis of three sports projects **tackling youth crime and violence in the UK** in the frame of a **three-year period** (Laureus 2011). Data on the outcomes and the related costs saved as well as the costs of the implementation of the projects were drawn from published materials of the projects, conversations with experts, interviews with project staff and participants, site visits of the organisations and governmental sources. Even though all projects shared the common goal of reducing crime violence and thus similar outcomes, they were assessed individually and the economic impact analysis was tailored to the specific circumstances of the projects.

Firstly, the specific objectives of the projects were examined and those suitable and feasible for the economic analysis were selected. Therefore, for example, outcomes of the **Kickz project** related to employment and training were not considered due to the small amount of applicable data. Likewise, the outcomes of The Boxing Academy related to health were limited to the prevention of drug use as the impact of the project on the long-term physical activity of participants and thus on their improved health in adulthood was not measurable. **In the SROI analysis for both the Kickz project and The Boxing Academy, the number of crimes prevented by the projects and the associated cost savings for the police, the criminal justice system and the victims were calculated.** This analysis included factors that may also have influenced these figures, such as a general reduction in juvenile crime. This begs the question of whether the projects only serve as a diversion or contribute to an actual reduction in crime. The SROI analysis of The **Boxing Academy** further included cost savings due to the prevention of drug use and the enhanced educational qualification of participants. Due to the lack of quantitative data about the impact of the project, a different approach was chosen to analyse the **2nd chance project**. Instead of calculating the costs saved by the project, the potential costs that would be saved per person if the project can successfully prevent them from re-offending were determined and compared to the expenditures of the project. The figures used in the analysis were based on data from the Metropolitan Police, the Ministry of Justice, the Home Office, the Youth Justice Board, the British Crime Survey, the Youth Cohort Survey and the Labour Force Survey. **The results of the SROI analysis show that every 1 pound invested in the Kickz project generates 7.53 pounds worth of social benefit and every 1 pound invested in The Boxing Academy generates 3.05 pounds worth of social benefit.** For the 2nd Chance project, the analysis showed that for the project to break even, it only needs to stop more than one of its 400 participants from re-offending. **If the project successfully prevents 5 participants from re-offending, it generates 4.70 pounds of social benefit for every 1 pound invested in the project.**

5.10.2 Sport Scores

The created knowledge base for SROI analyses in the context of SFD projects aimed at reducing youth crime and violence was further deepened by the **research project “Sport Scores” from Laureus and ECORYS (2012)**. The project conducted SROI analyses in four projects against juvenile delinquency. In contrast to Teenage Kicks, the project selection was not limited to the UK and included two British projects (Sport and Thought, Fight for Peace), as well as a German (Kick im Boxring) and an Italian project (Midnight

Basketball). In addition, the projects were analysed on the basis of defined areas and adapted less specifically to the objectives of the individual projects. These areas include savings related to

- ✓ the reduction of crimes,
- ✓ educational and employment impacts (the reduction of disruptive behaviour, truancy, school exclusion and the facilitation of further education and employment)
- ✓ the improvement of life expectancy (due to the promotion of healthy lifestyles and regular exercise).

The project report emphasises that this list of areas is not exhaustive and SFD projects (for crime reduction) have a variety of outcomes. However, these areas are considered a reasonable starting point as they are “some of the most direct and measurable outcomes from sport projects, which can be valued with some degree of confidence” (Laureus & ECORYS 2012, p. 17). Apart from the SROI analysis of the Sport and Thought Project, which only included cost savings associated with educational and employment impacts, all SROI analyses included the 3 areas. The analysis showed that the proportion distribution of savings in the different areas varied depending on the focus of the project. For example, the educational and employment impacts created by Fight for Peace were relatively large in comparison to those of Kick im Boxing, however, the latter project also did not specifically focus on this area. All projects could be proven to create more positive impact than the costs needed to implement them. **For every 1 pound invested in the project,**

- ✓ ... Sport and Thought created 6.58 pounds of social benefit, and
- ✓ ... Fight for Peace created 4.42 pounds of social benefit.

For every 1 € invested in the project,

- ✓ ... Kick im Boxing created **3.43 € of social benefit**, and
- ✓ ... Midnight Basketball created **5.65 € of social benefit**.

5.11 Box 2: Sutton Positive Futures, Urban Stars, Southwark b-active

Butler & Leathem (2014) conducted an SROI analysis of three youth sport projects (Sutton Positive Futures, Urban Stars, Southwark b-active) that are part of the **Active Communities Network (ACN) in London**. The analysis considered **both the benefits of the individual projects and the synergy effects generated by the network**. The projects aim is to...

- ✓ reduce and prevent drug and alcohol consumption and associated crimes (Sutton Positive Futures),
- ✓ reduce and prevent (violent and weapon related) youth crimes (Urban Stars)
- ✓ increase social cohesion in the community by bringing together different groups (Southwark b-active).

To identify the relevant stakeholder, Butler & Leathem (2014) employed a structured approach. Through discussion sessions with the ACN staffing group, a **list of stakeholders was created and the inclusion/exclusion in the SROI analysis of the different groups was evaluated**. The Active Community network staffing group was selected as experts for the stakeholder identification process because their large experience gave them insights into both the organisational structure of the programme and the relationships and connections between the various groups involved in the programme. When identifying the participants as a stakeholder group, it became clear that the experiences and the resulting outcomes of the individuals differed based on their age and gender. It was therefore decided to create subgroups in order to be able to analyse the outcomes separately and therefore more specifically. This resulted in the following stakeholder groups:

- Young men under 17
- Young men over 17
- Young women under 17
- Young women over 17.

Other groups that were considered likely to experience change as a result of the programme included:

- Peers and siblings of the participants
- Volunteers (former participants of the programme who advance to an active, implementing role)
- The wider community (in the areas of the different projects)
- Active Community Network strategic and delivery partners of the different projects.

In addition, the following **state agencies** were identified as stakeholders, as they are indirectly influenced:

- Police
- Judicial System
- National Health Services (NHS)
- Department for Work and Pensions (DWP)
- Social Services.

For each of these stakeholder groups, the report by Butler & Leathem (2014) contains a reasoning behind their inclusion. For example, volunteers are included as stakeholders due to the skills they develop by being a volunteer in the programme and social services are included as it is expected that the number of cases social workers have in the programme areas will decrease. In some cases, identified stakeholder groups were also excluded from the analysis, as it was deemed unlikely that they would be significantly influenced by the outcomes of the programme and the outcomes thus did not have enough materiality for these stakeholders. The excluded stakeholders were:

- Community Safety Partnerships
- National Funders
- Greater London Authority

- Home Office
- Nike
- Local MP's
- Local Councillors.

After the list of included stakeholders was completed, **outcomes and chains of change** were identified for each of the stakeholder groups individually. This process was conducted with data from the ACN data system "VIEWS", which is based on facilitated participant questionnaires, as well as the results of interviews and workshops with key stakeholders.

The SROI analysis showed that **every 1 pound invested** in the projects of the ACN **generated 4.21 pounds worth of social benefit**.



6 SROI in the context of forcibly displaced persons

The **eight publications**, which were identified in the field of SROI and forcibly displaced persons are presented in table 3. The full table is available in Appendix 10.2.

Table 3: Publications in the context of SROI and displaced people

Author	Year	Country	Subject of Studie	SROI-ratio
K. Hiruy, R. Eversole, A. Ajetomobi, C. Walles, A. Alemi, F. Ahtesh, E. Ettehad, C. Bonstelle & A. Chipman	2021	Australia	The Asylum Seeker Resource Centre (ASRC) offered short term employment of Asylum Seekers for 6 months accompanied by a mentoring program .	1.21:1 (4 Years)
K. Cooney & K. Lynch- Cerullo	2012	US	The Refugee employment program of Jewish Vocational Service (JVS) offers vocational English and job readiness training for refugees and recent arrivals as well as job placement followed by post-placement retention and advancement services. Additionally, participants receive resettlement assistance from other providers.	1.64:1 (1 Year) 2.88:1 (2 Years) 6.20:1 (5 Years) 11.09:1 (10 Years)
P. Pólvara	2022	Spain	The program " Generating Future by connecting Training to Employment " from the Norte Joven Association offers vocational training and job placement for school dropout young adults from vulnerable socioeconomic environments including immigrants, asylum applicants and refugees.	2.28:1 (3 years)
M. Walk, I. Greenspan, H. Crossley & F. Handy	2015	Canada	The Academy of Computer & Employability Skills (A.C.E.S) Job and Skills Training Program serves its clients through settlement service, job placement, professional development and skills training. The courses include an academic training, an internship and job	2.08:1 (3 years)

			search support and clients are awarded diploma certificates.	
T. Stacey	2014	UK	The Health Befriending Network (HBN) established a successful befriending programme , where mainly pregnant asylum seeking and refugee women are supported by peers - who are trained for this role - to access health, maternity care and social support depending on the clients needs.	5.44:1 (1 year)
B. Provan	2020	UK	The Analysis considers the impact of a policy change extending the "move-on"period for newly granted refugees from 28 to 56 days allowing refugees to secure work and mainstream benefits as well as arranging alternative accommodation by the time the support of the move-on period is stopped.	2.2:1 - 3.1:1
S. Durie	2007	Scotland	The Impact Arts FabPad project targets homeless people and newly arrived migrants and offers arts, design and practical skills training to help them turn their houses into a home. Further participants get support to enter other opportunities like education, training and employment.	8.38:1 (1 year)
L. Willis, M. Mustaphanin, J. Skinner, F. Garbe & E. Gilwhite	2014	UK	The Introduction to Community Development & Health (ICDH) Course is a 15 week course which aims to develop community engagement and health promotion skills.	14.00:1 (5 years)

6.1 Year of Publication

The **eight studies identified** in relation to SROI and forcibly displaced persons were **published between 2007 and 2022**. As outlined in figure 5, most of the identified studies were published in the last ten to fifteen years. This indicates **a slowly growing interest in using the SROI method** and applying it in the context of forcibly displaced persons.

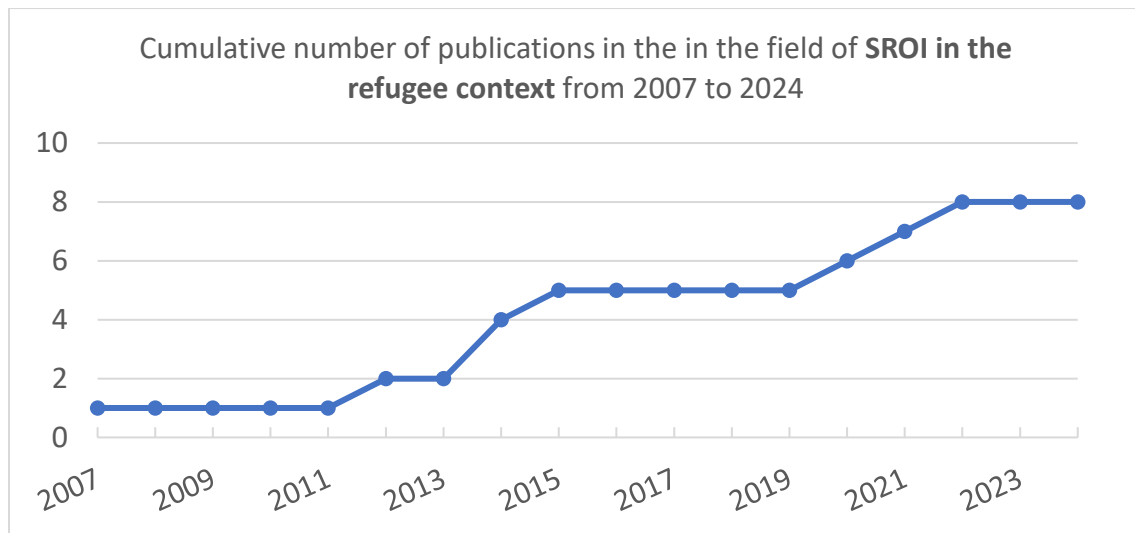


Figure 6: Cumulative number of publications in the context of SROI and forcibly displaced persons

6.2 Country

So far, the SROI-approach has been applied in **six countries** to evaluate programs targeting displaced people. Each study was conducted within one country. Against this background, it is particularly striking that the UK has conducted three studies in this field. In general, the distribution of the countries points out that **the SROI-approach is mainly applied by countries of the Global North.**

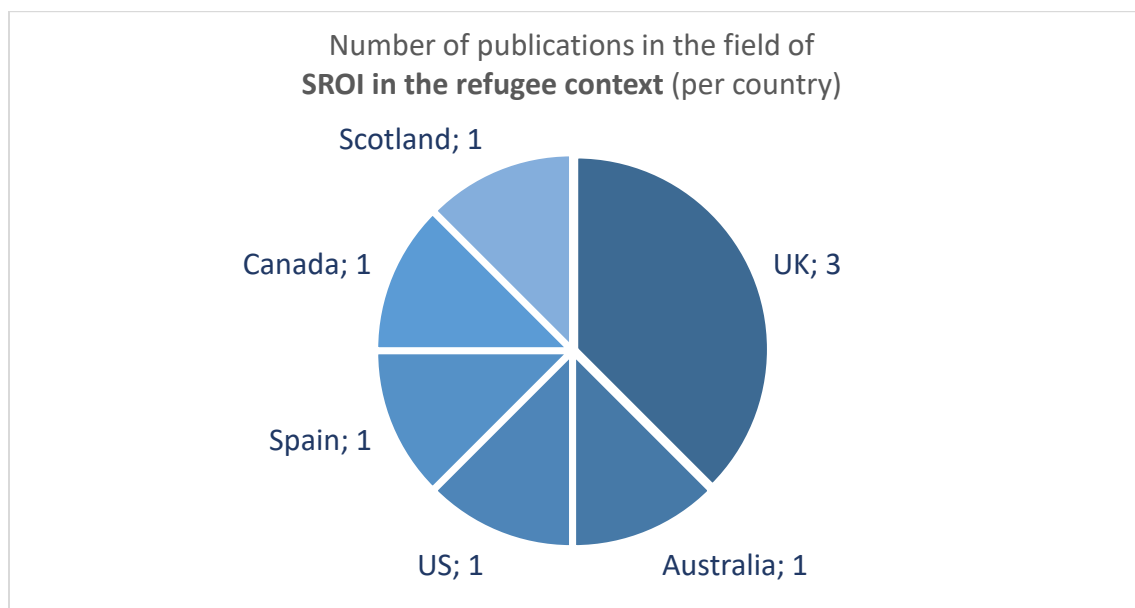


Figure 7: Number of publications per country in the context of SROI and forcibly displaced persons

6.3 Subject of Study

The subjects of the studies analysed vary widely. Most of the studies analyse programmes (n=7), while one study evaluates a possible change in regulation. **The majority of the analysed programmes aim to improve the employability of their participants (n=5).** To this end, the programmes use different elements to support their target groups. While Hiruy et al. (2021) analysed a programme using short term-employment combined with a mentoring programme, other studies evaluated programmes that provide job readiness training, vocational training, job placement, settlement services, advancement services and post-placement retention. **The ‘Impact Arts FabPad project’ stood out**, as it primarily offers art, design and practical skills training, but also supports its participants to access education, training or employment (Durie, 2007).

Alongside the studies focusing on employability programmes, there are two studies focusing on programmes to **improve community engagement and access to health care for forcibly displaced persons.** The ‘Befriending programme’ aims to establish a social support network of peers who support mainly pregnant asylum seeking and refugee women (Stacey, 2014), while the ‘Community Development and Health Course’ is a fifteen-week course to improve community engagement and health promotion skills (Willis et al., 2014). Another study examines the possible extension of the “move-on” period in the UK, during which newly granted refugees are supported by the government to secure work and accommodation for the time after the “move-on” period, when state support ends (Provan, 2020).



Figure 8: Subject of studies in the context of SROI and forcibly displaced persons

All the programs and subjects that are evaluated in the studies identified target forcibly displaced persons or forcibly displaced women in particular. Nevertheless, two of the evaluated programmes consider more than one target group. The ‘Generating Future by Connecting Training to Employment’ programme targets school dropout young adults from vulnerable socioeconomic environments in general and includes immigrants, asylum applicants and refugees (Pólvara, 2022). On the other hand, the ‘Impact Arts FabPad project’ mainly focuses on homeless people, but also includes newly arrived migrants, as these two target groups face similar housing challenges (Durie, 2007).

6.4 SROI ratio

Each of the studies that evaluated programs calculated an SROI ratio accordingly, while the one study that examined regulatory change calculated two SROI ratios, representing the minimum and maximum SROI ratios for the possible change (Provan (2020). **Because each SROI ratio was calculated using different**

stakeholders and financial proxies, the resulting SROI ratios can't be compared. In addition, the **SROI ratios were calculated for different time periods.** Most SROI ratios were calculated for one year, two ratios were calculated for three and five years, and one ratio was calculated for two, four, and ten years. Most studies considered only one duration (n=7) and only one study examined the SROI-ratio for one, two, five and ten years. **Considering all calculated SROI ratios, the ratios vary from 1.21:1 for 4 years to 14.00:1 for 5 years.**

Table 4 SROI-ratios in the context of SROI and forcibly displaced persons

Study	SROI 1 year	SROI 2 years	SROI 3 years	SROI 4 years	SROI 5 years	SROI 10 years
Durie (2007)	8.38:1					
Cooney & Lynch-Cerullo (2012)	1.64:1	2.88:1			6.20:1	11.09:1
Stacey (2014)	5.44:1					
Willis et al. (2014)					14.00:1	
Walk et al. (2015)			2.08:1			
Provan (2020)	2.2:1 to 3.1:1					
Hiruy et al. (2021)				1.21:1		
Pólvora (2022)			2.28:1			

6.5 SROI Approach

The majority of the studies referred to the SROI framework of Nicholls (n=5) to evaluate their programmes' SROI. Further, one study used the **Robin Hood Foundation Approach**, which is a much simpler approach considering only earning differences and programme costs (see Box: Cooney & Lynch-Cerullo 2012). **Two other studies used their own approach to identify the SROI:** The approach used by Stacey (2014) consists of two steps: 1. Identifying stakeholder and gathering evidence and 2. Valuing outcomes and SROI calculation, while the approach used by Durie (2007) has more similarity to the SROI framework of Nicholls, following the eight steps to evaluate a programme's SROI (as outlined in chapter 2.2).

6.6 Identified Stakeholder

According to the framework by Nicholls et al. (2012), identifying relevant stakeholders is an important first step in the SROI assessment process (see chapter 2.2). All the studies following the framework and the three studies following different approaches identified relevant stakeholders. However, the number of stakeholders and the stakeholders themselves vary considerably. The minimum number of stakeholders considered is two, while some other studies considered up to ten different stakeholders. The large variety of stakeholder groups included in the evaluation indicates that the actual implementation of the framework varies widely between studies.

At the individual level, all studies identified the beneficiaries as stakeholder group. In addition, several studies identified **friends and family of the beneficiaries** as well as **volunteers and staff** as relevant stakeholders at the individual level.

At an organisational level, some of the studies identified the organisations themselves, donors, partner organisations and companies as stakeholders, and at a wider level, social services, local and national government, including ministries, and national health service were identified as relevant stakeholders in some cases.

6.7 Outcomes

In the area of mental health and well-being, all but two studies addressed **improved health conditions** in some way (n=6). Some of the studies described their **mental health and well-being outcomes** in general terms, such as 'improved life satisfaction', 'improved health and well-being', 'increased well-being' or 'healthier participants'. Others were more specific about their health-related outcomes, such as 'reduced anxiety' or 'improved health behaviour'. In addition, Stacey (2014) identified 'increased awareness of appropriate use of health services' as one of the outcomes.

In the area of **education and learning through play**, all but two studies identified outcomes, focusing on improvements in participants' skills, education and employment. In terms of improved skills, the studies included social, life and digital skills (social skills, self-confidence, self-esteem, self-efficacy, time management and digital skills). Outcomes in the area of improved education and employment were related to increased readiness for work, increased training and employment opportunities, obtaining a training certificate, completing further training and entering the labour market were included in several studies.

The outcomes in the area of **social inclusion** were mostly related to improved involvement of people in communities and relief of social systems. Outcomes in this area were considered in all but one study (n=7). Improved involvement outcomes referred to **improved family stability** and **involvement in social and professional networks**.

In terms of relieving social systems, the results are very diverse, as different social systems were considered. Across all the studies that looked at social system relief, cost reductions were found in relation

to rough sleeping, social care, income support, childcare, temporary accommodation, mental health and service contact, tenancy support, agency support and the National Health Service. Further increases in income as a direct result of access to the labour market were seen as relieving social systems, including tax and insurance receipts, which contribute to government savings and revenues.

While all studies included positive outcomes, none included negative outcomes in any form. Limiting SROI studies to the positive aspects is criticised, as the calculated SROI can become meaningless if not all aspects are included in the analysis (Krlev et al., 2013).

6.8 Sources of Data

To identify outcomes, **most studies (n=7) conducted qualitative data collection**, using methods such as interviews, focus group discussions, written feedback, telephone calls, surveys or participants' collages. Only Provan (2020) relied on statistical data and secondary research to identify the outcomes of an extended 'move-on' period for newly granted refugees.

In order to quantify and value these outcomes, different data sources and a variety of valuation approaches were considered across the different studies analysed: While some of the studies provide detailed information about the sources from which they rely on to measure their outcomes, others provide only vague information about their sources. In general, some studies used only secondary data (n= 4), while others used primary data (n=3) or combined both primary and secondary data sources (n=1).

Primary data were collected through own research and data collection (Durie, 2007), data routinely collected through an intake form for potential participants (Walk et al., 2015), or by engaging stakeholders in the valuation process of identified outcomes (Pólvora, 2022).

Secondary data sources often included data banks and models providing unit costs or financial proxies for specific topics or market prices for particular activities, services or products. Examples of such data banks used by the studies include the UK Social Value Bank (Provan, 2020), Unit Costs of Health and Social Care 2011 (Stacey, 2014) or the wellbeing valuation model (Willis, 2014). In addition, many studies drew on **national and government statistics** (Willis, 2014), **research papers** presenting systematically collected statistical estimates or known costs associated with the outcomes, such as the cost of a jobseeker's allowance per year (Stacey, 2014).

Besides the data sources, the **valuation approach is a crucial aspect that strongly influences the final SROI ratio to a large extent**. In particular, the **valuation of so-called intangible outcomes** such as 'improved self-confidence' is difficult and poses a major challenge within an SROI analysis. The identified studies used different approaches in order to derive a plausible measure for these intangible outcomes. One approach used by many studies is the **'cost of an activity that could result in the same outcome'** approach. In this approach, the cost of a gym membership is used as a financial proxy to value the improved self-confidence of the participants in the programme analysed (Willis et al., 2014), or the cost of a time management course to value improved time management of programme participants (Walk et al., 2015).

Another prominent approach to valuing intangible outcomes is the ‘**willingness to pay**’ approach. This approach is closely linked to primary data sources, as programme stakeholders are asked about their perceptions of the value of particular programme outcomes.

Other studies have used a fixed percentage of participants' gross income data to value improved personal skills (Walk et al., 2015). **Tangible outcomes, such as ‘improved health’ or ‘gained employment’, are often valued by taking into account reduced costs for social services or by measuring tax revenues from newly acquired income.**

While some studies rely on **statistical data** to measure cost reductions or financial returns, others rely on **individual data** collected from their participants or their organisation (Hiruy et al., 2022; Cooney & Lynch-Cerullo 2012). The valuation approaches presented in this chapter are the most prominent approaches identified in relation to SROI in the refugee context. Beyond this, there are a large number of creative and individual approaches used to derive financial proxies for a range of different outcomes that are not included in this report in order to focus on the most common practices.

6.9 Impact Adjustment and Sensibility Analysis

In terms of impact adjustment, the studies varied considerably. Although most of the studies included some form of impact analysis in their analysis, Provan (2020) did not perform any impact adjustment, and Stacey (2014) only considered duration, but left out all the other sub-dimensions of impact adjustment according to Nicholls et al. (2012). **All other studies calculated an SROI ratio for at least one year, as already shown in chapter 6.4.. In total, four out of eight studies performed a proper impact adjustment, including all sub-dimensions as well as the sensibility testing.** However, it should be noted that the corresponding percentages applied to each of the outcomes and sub-dimensions varied widely among the different studies. Looking at the sub-dimensions individually, all but two studies included ‘drop-off’, five studies included ‘deadweight’ as a sub-dimension in their impact adjustment and four studies addressed ‘attribution’, ‘displacement’ and a sensibility testing.

6.10 Box 3: Robin Hood Approach - Jewish Vocational Service

The SROI analysis conducted by Cooney & Lynch-Cerullo (2012) **focuses on monetizing the individual benefits of the participants of an employability-programme.** To do so, the authors applied the Robin-Hood-Approach (Weinstein, 2009) to calculate an SROI. This approach stands in contrast to the SROI framework from Nicholls et al. (2012), which focuses strongly on public benefits and includes a broader range of outcomes on community and societal level. The programme analysed by Cooney and Lynch-Cerullo (2012) includes vocational English for employment, short-term readiness training and job-placement followed by post-placement retention and advancement services. **The programme targeted refugees and recent immigrants.** In total 350 participants were considered for the calculation of the programme’s SROI. To calculate the SROI, programme costs were calculated on the one hand and the difference in potential earning trajectory between participants’s human capital at baseline and human capital post-programme were calculated on the other hand.

$SROI = (\text{number of clients enrolled}) \times (\text{earnings difference}) / \text{programme cost}$

The SROI was measured for the first, second, fifth and tenth year after completion of the refugee employment programme. According to the results in Year 1, for every \$1 invested in the Refugee Employment programme, \$1.64 in client benefits is generated. In Year 2 \$2.88 in client benefits is generated. The 5-year SROI is calculated as \$6.20:1 and the 10-Year SROI as \$11.09:1. While the SROI of the first two years are based on actual data, the two projections for year 5 and 10 are calculated by a formula:

$ROI(\text{year 1}) + ROI(\text{year 2}) \times 4 \text{ years} = \text{projection ROI year 5}$

$ROI(\text{year 1}) + ROI(\text{year 2}) \times 9 \text{ years} = \text{projection ROI year 10}$

The Robin-Hood-Approach (Weinstein, 2009) implies that **benefits to individuals can also lead to benefits at the community level**, such as 'tax revenues' in the case of the programme analysed by Cooney and Lynch-Cerullo. The approach is much less complex compared to the framework of Nicholls et al. (2012), as no intangible outcomes are measured. **It is therefore a more simple alternative for performing a SROI analysis that requires fewer resources.**

6.11 Box 4: Transparent Valuation of Outcomes

A very important aspect of an SROI analysis is a transparent valuation process. This is therefore also covered by the seven principles of Nicholls et al. (2012). In particular, **the valuation of tangible and intangible outcomes and the corresponding impact adjustment are very complex processes**, as explained earlier in this report. **This makes it all the more important to be transparent about data sources, financial proxies and the impact adjustment applied to each valued outcome.** The studies analysed deal with this transparency in different ways: While some provide very little and superficial information, others explain in great detail where all the figures are derived from, often resulting in very long reports.

However, some of the studies did manage to provide a transparent overview of how outcomes were assessed and how impact adjustments were made. Willis et al. (2014) present a table with detailed information on where financial proxies are derived from and how outcomes are valued (see Appendix Table 5). They also present an overview of impact adjustment, although information on displacement, drop-off and duration is missing. Another good example of how to provide a transparent overview of the evaluation and impact adjustment of results can be found in the Walk et al. (2015) study (see Appendix Table 6). The financial proxies are explained in more detail and the impact adjustments presented include duration, deadweight, attribution and drop-off. However, the data sources for the corresponding financial proxies and displacement are not included in the table. While both studies have limitations, they do manage to provide a transparent overview of their valuation process and impact adjustment, allowing readers to understand how the ratio was calculated and what figures were included in the analysis. The following criteria should be included in a template for a transparent presentation of the outcome valuation:

- Stakeholders
- Outcome description
- Financial Proxy description
- Proxy value
- Source
- Deadweight
- Attribution
- Displacement
- Drop-Off
- Duration
- Outcome value/s



7 Discussion

In order to discuss the usefulness of the SROI approach, specifically its application for IRTS programmes, this chapter will use a SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats) analysis. **Despite the lack of studies focused on inclusion of forcibly displaced persons through sport, the above presented data from sport and refugee contexts separately can be used to uncover the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (for implementing organisations) of this approach.** This should provide further useful insights for anyone wanting to conduct an SROI analysis of their work within the field of inclusion of forcibly displaced persons.

7.1 Strengths

All of the studies identified in our review showed a positive SROI ratio, indicating that the programmes and interventions evaluated created positive social and financial values. From the perspective of implementing organisations, **an SROI analysis can therefore help to understand the value of their programmes and interventions to society.** This can provide implementing organisations with valuable arguments to legitimise their programmes to stakeholders, funders or the public, and to justify or attract funding. In support of this, Buelens et al (2018), in their overview of evaluation methodologies for complex sport programmes, place SROI under the **accountability and communication function.** By focusing on an accountability and communication function to measure impact, an SROI analysis can help answer the question: What difference does a programme or intervention make?

Another strength specifically for organisations that have not previously engaged in social impact measurement is the potential, through the process of analysis, to help organisations develop an ongoing focus on **impact and performance management.** In particular, analysis activities such as mapping outcomes or developing a theory of change (showing the logic of a programme from inputs and activities to outputs and outcomes) can provide organisations with valuable information about whether the assumptions underlying their programme are actually leading to the desired outcomes. This step can promote **organisational learning** and provide insight into how day-to-day activities relate to achieving desired outcomes. Employees learn how their work contributes to social impact, which can be a powerful motivator. In addition, the impact dimensions or objective indicators developed in an SROI analysis can be used for regular project tracking, helping management to run their organisation effectively. An SROI analysis should therefore not be seen as a 'one-off' activity. Rather, it is part of a continuous improvement effort (Krlev et al., 2013).

7.2 Weaknesses

Despite the clear strengths of the SROI approach, there are some identified weaknesses. Organisations should be aware of this when deciding whether or not to implement an SROI analysis within their organisation. It is also important to consider the understanding of both economic and social values required to implement such an approach. **Not all organisations are equipped with the appropriate knowledge and skill set for this kind of evaluation** and should therefore consider whether it is the best fit

for them. The main challenges and criticisms of the approach, in terms of methodology and implementation in practice, found in the literature are outlined below:

7.2.1 Methodological weaknesses of the SROI approach

- **Monetary Valuation Challenges and Overemphasis on Monetisation:** Estimating the worth of items without market prices is difficult, leading to criticisms about the validity of monetary assessments (Stiglitz et al., 2009). This applies especially to intangible benefits. While physical health indicators may be tangible, capturing aspects like mental health and self-esteem remains challenging. Forcing monetisation in inappropriate contexts can lead to misleading conclusions; robust qualitative and quantitative findings are often more valuable for understanding social impact (Krlev et al., 2013).
- **Proxy Measures and Intransparency:** Approaches like using individuals' willingness to pay or well-being surveys to assign monetary values can oversimplify complex social impacts and treat individuals as rational utility maximisers (Fujiwara, 2011). Additionally, there is significant inconsistency and lack of transparency regarding available tools and their applications across different fields and organisations as also highlighted by the findings in this review.
- **Comparative Limitations and Lack of Standardisation:** Current SROI practices are not suitable for comparing organisations within the same field due to variability in assessment methods (Nieto et al., 2024). This is evident where SROI ratios are not comparable due to variations in approaches (also identified in this report).
- **No Consideration of Negative Effects/Outcomes:** As highlighted in this review, negative outcomes and impacts of the programmes analysed were largely excluded from the results. Intentionally ignoring negative outcomes can limit the learning function of social impact measurement and prevent organisations from improving their programmes.
- **Neglect of Political and Cultural Factors:** Political participation, advocacy, and cultural issues like discrimination are often overlooked in SROI studies, limiting the understanding of broader social impacts.

7.2.2 Practical challenges for implementing organisations

- **Lack of necessary Skills and Resources:** Conducting an SROI analysis requires a range of skills and substantial financial and time resources. While implementing organisations often deliberately locate their activities in areas where markets do not function well, particularly small to medium-sized implementing organisations face severe resource constraints that can hinder the implementation of SROI analysis (Nicholls, 2009).
- **Data Collection Constraints:** Smaller organisations may struggle to gather the necessary data for comprehensive impact assessments, making standard documentation more challenging.
- **Need for Continuous Assessment:** While SROI could promote ongoing impact management, there is often a preference for quick results over longitudinal studies that track changes over time (Krlev et al., 2013).

7.3 Opportunities

Beyond the weaknesses and challenges of the SROI approach outlined above, which need to be carefully considered, there are some external opportunities that a SROI can bring. In times of limited (public) resources and competing priorities, SROI can provide a compelling opportunity to highlight the social value generated by IRTS programmes. By making visible the often greater value created compared to the resources invested, **SROI analysis can serve as a "game changer" for informing strategic funding allocation and optimising resource management** (Nieto et al., 2024).

Translating qualitative impacts into financial terms can resonate with funders and policymakers. This translation provides funders with a clear and relatable case for the measurable impact of sport-based inclusion programmes, bridging the gap between narrative evidence and evidence-based decision-making. When combined with other forms of measurement, SROI complements existing methodologies to create a robust and compelling case for programme funding and support. In this context, it is important to emphasise that qualitative data should be integrated into an SROI analysis. A combined approach provides a broad and nuanced understanding of programme outcomes, addressing both the need for tangible metrics and the depth provided by social outcomes that cannot be translated into monetised value. Presenting robust quantitative or qualitative evidence is certainly more valuable in promoting a performance and impact perspective in the social sector than exaggerated exercises in monetisation.

By demonstrating a combined approach of clear financial benefits and robust quantitative and qualitative evidence of IRTS initiatives, SROI can strengthen advocacy efforts. It is important to note, however, that advocacy efforts should not overshadow important lessons that organisations can learn from impact measurement methods. Literature indicates that implementing organisations and practitioners are currently strongly influenced by accountability pressures from external stakeholders (Liket et al. 2014; Molecke & Pinkse, 2017). Rather than reflecting on their programmes to promote learning and improvement for their target groups, organisations are pressured to tick the necessary boxes to secure funding. This is reinforced by the reliance on short-term grants, which often leads to a focus on quantifiable measures (Moustakas, 2024). Such evaluations primarily serve the interests of funders at the expense of deeper qualitative insights (Coalter, 2009).

To help organisations improve their programmes, funders should support practitioners to evaluate their programmes, not just to demonstrate the impact and social and financial return of their funding. **The SROI approach can help implementing organisations to engage different stakeholders in a conversation that ensures programmes are designed to meet the needs of local contexts.** By focusing on the theory of change approach and evaluating its results as part of the SROI analysis, implementing organisations can use the findings to improve programmes for their target groups.

7.4 Threats

While SROI may enhance existing methods to collect data on sport for refugee programs, if used by itself may erase some of the in depth data characteristic of this area of study. It is certainly important to be able to measure the impact of inclusion of forcibly displaced persons in sport programmes for society more broadly through measures such as the SROI. **However, it is important to also recognize that sport may**

improve one's life without having measurable impacts on society as a whole. This improvement may lead to better integration into society but initially it is about providing a safe space where an individual can feel joy. **It was clear throughout the literature in this field that joy can be a key driver of sport participation.** In their study on a sport programme at the Rwamwanja refugee camp in Uganda, Koopmans and Doidge (2022) focus on fun and play rather than an economical outcome of sport intervention. They claim that “within a refugee camp, sport and play cannot change the social structures, but can provide space where emotions can be expressed in different ways” (p. 540). **It provides a temporary emotional escape** which is especially important for people faced with a range of challenging and traumatic circumstances. Sport can temporarily take over the mind and body, allowing participants to briefly ignore the circumstances around them (Stone, 2018).

While most surroundings are foreign for a newly arrived refugee, sport and physical activity may provide a space that is more familiar, particularly when the individual has a social history with the sport (McDonald et al., 2019). Similarly, Stone (2018) contends that “sport can provide a temporary substitute for aspects of a previous life that may have been lost or a continuation of one particular aspect that helped define a previously more solid identity” (pg. 180).

Sport's role may differ, depending on the external circumstance of the forcibly displaced person: For example, in the tedium of a **refugee camp** or the limitations placed on newly arrived forcibly displaced persons, sport may merely provide a distraction from their concerns, as fun play-based activities can assist in emotional expression and help to develop confidence and improve wellbeing (Koopmans & Doidge, 2022). Engaging in fun sport activities can lay the foundations for further outcomes often cited in SDP such as stronger community connection, improved health and better education (Koopmans & Doidge, 2022). Sport can be important at the beginning for newly arrived forcibly displaced persons and once they're more established in the new place, perhaps when language skills or employment are acquired, sport may begin to take more of a secondary role.

When considering SROI, it is important to reflect about the individual situation, **as the 'return on investment' may simply be access to joyful experiences.** Or the person will have opportunities in their “new society” that stemmed from their experiences within a sport programme. While not necessarily intended to be an outcome of the programmes, both Luguetti et al. (2022) and McDonald et al. (2019) found that there were **employment opportunities** for participants that stemmed from their connections in the programmes. However, these opportunities were based on people they knew and met through the sport programme, not directly related to the programme. In an SROI approach, this may not be considered a direct outcome of the programme and included in the added value for society. **Allowing sport to first exist as a space of joy and connection can ultimately lead to further opportunities for inclusion, however these may often be indirect and happen some time after the end of a programme.** These impacts should not be discounted. **The biggest threat of the SROI approach is that sport is considered only for the potential of broader impacts and not for the possibility to experience joy and inclusion in a safe space.** This may in turn encourage the erasure of such data as useful when advocating for sport to be considered in a refugee context.

8 Conclusion

The most significant finding of this study is the **lack of research in the specific area of financial and social return on investment of IRTS approaches**, given that no literature could be identified in this area. Beyond the scope of this specific area, **the study presented a number of relevant findings related to the areas of SROI analysis in the context of sport (for development) as well as SROI analysis in the context of forcibly displaced persons.**

The calculated SROI ratios in the identified studies ranged from 1.21:1 to 14.00:1. Thus, **all studies showed a positive return on investment** in the analysed sport and inclusion programmes for forcibly displaced persons. The identified outcomes of all the studies analysed in the report could be grouped into **three areas**: (1) mental health and well-being, (2) education and learning through play, (3) and social cohesion and inclusion. The outcomes ranged from **improvements in general physical and mental health and subjective well-being, improved life satisfaction, increased social and life skills, improved employability, increased participation, reduced (youth) crime and relief for social systems.** These can also be valuable outcomes for IRTS programmes. Therefore, the application of SROI in the evaluation of IRTS programmes can provide valuable insights into the societal and economic impacts of the approach. However, **careful consideration must be made before carrying out an SROI analysis.**

SROI provides implementing organisations with a tool to quantify the social value of their programmes, providing compelling evidence for stakeholders, funders and policymakers. By **translating qualitative impacts into financial terms, SROI can be used to enhance the legitimacy of programmes and bridge the gap between narrative-driven evidence and the data-driven requirements of funders and policymakers.** A combined approach that integrates robust quantitative and qualitative measures can provide a holistic understanding of programme outcomes, addressing both the economic and social dimensions of forcibly displaced persons' inclusion through sport. SROI as a tool for measuring accountability positions it as a valuable approach in resource-constrained environments, advocating for IRTS and placing sport higher on the public agenda.

Nevertheless, SROI is not without its challenges: Its **methodological limitations**, such as the difficulty of monetising intangible benefits, lack of standardisation, and insufficient consideration of negative outcomes or political and cultural factors, call for **careful and selective application.** An overemphasis on financial metrics risks **oversimplifying the complex social outcomes** that are central to IRTS programmes. In addition, the **resource-intensive nature of SROI analysis** can pose practical challenges for smaller implementing organisations with limited capacity and lack of knowledge and skills. Organisations should weigh these resource requirements against the expected benefits and consider alternative or complementary evaluation methods where appropriate, particularly when implementing organisations want to improve their programmes and learn why and how they lead to a particular outcome, the SROI approach can only provide limited insights.

Furthermore, an **over-reliance on financial metrics risks neglecting the intrinsic value of sport as a space for joy, emotional expression and temporary relief for forcibly displaced persons in difficult**

circumstances. SROI may not always capture the nuanced outcomes of IRTS programmes, particularly those related to personal enjoyment, safe spaces or indirect impacts such as long-term opportunities resulting from sport participation. Therefore, while SROI provides valuable insights, it should not overshadow qualitative data that highlights these transformative experiences. Consequently, it is crucial to involve refugees and forcibly displaced persons in all stages of an SROI analysis in order to gain deeper insights into the value of the programme and possible unintended impacts.

8.1 Recommendations

SROI has the potential to strengthen advocacy for IRTS programmes. **However, its implementation must be deliberate, well resourced and complemented by qualitative and contextual data** to provide a comprehensive understanding of the financial and social value of IRTS programmes.

Therefore, the following recommendations are for implementing organisations:

1. **Think Twice:** Consider carefully whether the SROI approach is the right methodology for your organisation, based on your objectives and available resources.
2. **Inclusion of Refugee Voices:** Actively involve forcibly displaced persons in the SROI process, including designing, implementing, and evaluating programmes. Their lived experiences and perspectives are essential for identifying meaningful outcomes and understanding nuanced impacts that might otherwise be overlooked.
3. **Clear Objectives:** Organisations must clarify the purpose of conducting SROI—whether to attract funding, enhance accountability, or foster organisational learning—and tailor the analysis to meet these specific goals.
4. **Selective Monetisation:** Use monetisation carefully, focusing on tangible impacts where appropriate, while ensuring that qualitative dimensions of social impact are preserved and integrated.
5. **Clarify cost inclusions:** It's important to adopt more standardised indicators and proxies across studies in the field of Physical Activity and Sport.
6. **Capacity Building:** In particular, smaller implementing organisations need to be provided with training and resources to enable them to carry out SROI analysis effectively.
7. **Complementary Methods:** Use SROI as part of a broader evaluation framework that combines qualitative narratives and quantitative data to provide a comprehensive picture of programme impacts.

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10 Appendix

10.1 Examples of Outcome Valuation

Stakeholders	Change reported	Proportion of change	Deadweight	Attribution	Proxy Selected	Proxy Value	Source
ICDH Graduates	Improved general confidence	51%	10%	0.75	Resilience & self-esteem component of personal wellbeing	£1,056	Cox et al., 2012 Social Value policy paper
	Improved mental health	69%	10%	0.74	Emotional wellbeing component of personal wellbeing	£1,056	Cox et al., 2012
Wellbeing Outcomes	Increase in community involvement	56%	7%	0.73	Positive functioning component of personal wellbeing	£1,056	Cox et al., 2012
	Increased trust in society	30.5%	7%	0.73	Trust & belonging component of social wellbeing	£2,640	Cox et al., 2012
	Increase in volunteering	59%	17%	0.73	Satisfying life component of personal wellbeing	£1,056	Cox et al., 2012
Other Outcomes	Improved self-efficacy	56%	5%	0.75	Level 1 health & social care course - full fee	£1,017	www.Hotcourses.com
	Improved health behaviours	85%	12%	0.74	Gym membership for 1 year	£253	Puregym.co.uk
	Completed further education/training	56%	1%	0.73	Supportive relationships component of social wellbeing	£2,640	Cox et al., 2012
	Gained paid work	24%	5%	0.73	Health Trainer role (AFC Band 3 half time – NICs & state benefits)	£2,931	NHS pay scales 2012 RCN website
Friends and Family	Improved their health behaviours	66%	12%	0.70	Gym membership for 1 year	£253	Puregym.co.uk
Partner organisations	Increased the number of volunteers	67%	17%	0.66	Health Trainer role (AFC Band 3 half time- NICs)	£8,043	NHS pay scales 2012 RCN website
The State : Local/central government	Savings on council tax benefit when learners get paid work	24%	5%	0.73	Council tax (for 1 year equivalent)	£492	Local research
	Savings on housing benefit when learners get paid work	24%	5%	0.73	Housing benefit (for 1 year equivalent)	£2,756	Local research
	Savings on JSA when learners get paid work	24%	5%	0.73	JSA (for 1 year equivalent)	£1,864	DWP website

Table 5: Overview of outcome validation and impact adjustment by Willis et al. (2014, p. 39).

Table 2. Outcomes (average per client)

Outcome	Financial Proxy	Duration	Amount	Deadweight	Attribution	Drop-Off	Year 1	Year 2 (discount rate 3.5%)	Year 3 (discount rate 3.5%)
Receive training certificate	Increase in earning power for those who completed program, but are not yet employed (30%) = \$1,000 annually	3-year	\$300.00	17.5%	20%	75%	\$198.00	\$47.83	\$11.55
Finding employment	Increase earning power for those who found employment (70%); diff. between social assistance (OW) and actual earnings when employed (earnings now—minimum wage: \$12–\$10.25 = \$1.75 per hour). 50% work fulltime => 40 hours /week, 50% part time => 20/hours/week x 52 weeks	3-year	\$1,919.27	3.1%	20%	40%	\$1,487.82	\$862.50	\$500.00
Time management	Based on cost of time management course (\$399) for 88/110 clients (80%)	2-year	\$319.20	17.5%	30%	-	\$184.34	\$178.10	
Personal assets (self-esteem and self-confidence)	3% of gross income using pre-income data (= social assistance) for 48/110 clients (44%): 50% single, 50% with 2 kids: \$626/ month single, \$992/month for 2 kids	2-year	\$127.09	17.5%	20%	10%	\$83.88	\$72.94	
Social and professional networks	Same proxy as self-esteem and self-efficacy for 98/110 clients (89%)	2-year	\$259.47	7.5%	20%	10%	\$192.01	\$166.96	
Social assistance cost—City of Toronto	Decrease in social assistance subsidies (77/110): 50% single, 50% with 2 kids: \$626/month single, \$992/month for 2 kids	2-year	\$6,795.60	17.5%	20%	60%	\$4,485.10	\$1,733.37	
Child care subsidy—City of Toronto	Decrease: 50% of clients with child care subsidies no longer in need	1-year	\$272.73	17.5%	20%		\$180.00		
Total Outcomes (average over 110 clients)			\$9,993.35				\$6,811.14	\$3,061.70	\$511.55
Total Present Value (adding years 1–3): \$10,384.40									
Net Present Value (total present value – inputs): \$5,380.74									

Note: n = 110.

Table 6: Overview of outcome valuation and impact adjustment by Walk et al. (2015, p.139).

10.2 SROI in the context of sport (for development) – Detail about the SROI Analysis

Nr	SROI Approach	Identified Stakeholders	Outcomes	Negative Outcomes	Sources of Data	Consideration of Impact adjustments				
						Deadweight	Attribution	Duration & Drop-Off	Displacement	Sensibility testing
1	SROI framework of Nicholls et al.	1. Young Men under 17 2. Young Women under 17 3. Young men 17 and over 4. Young Women 17 and over 5. Peers & Siblings of End Users 6. Young People Volunteers 7. Wider community Members 8. Strategic & Delivery Partner Organisation 9. State Agencies (Police, Judicial System, National Health Service, Department for Work & Pensions, Social Services)	1. Reduced stress 2. Higher level sport skills 3. Sports qualifications 4. Health 5. Engagement in school work 6. Relationships with family members 7. Reduces substance misuse 8. Reduced involvement in crime 9. Sense of personal well-being 10. Employability & Employment 11. Social and life skills 12. Improved & safer living environment 13. Maturity 14. Sense of doing something for their community 15. Active in locally based positive activities 16. Unrequired Resources (ability to re-allocate these resources elsewhere)	no	Primary data <i>(participant questionnaires, interviews and workshops, questionnaires, assessment of development of young people by professional youth workers, additional questionnaires for well-being and employability)</i> Secondary data <i>(publications)</i>	yes	yes	1-3 years yes	yes	yes

			17. Increase in Collaboration (ability to re-allocate these resources elsewhere) 18. Expertise from Active Communities Network 19. Ability to pull in additional funding 20. Reduced numbers of young people involved in crime (police savings, judicial system) 21. Improved health and fitness 22. Reduced treatments 23. Reduction of serious and recurring substance misuse 24. Reduced job seeker allowance claims							
2	Self designed Kickz & The Boxing Academy: 1. Identification of project objectives and selection of objectives feasible for economic analysis 2. Calculation of created impact 3. Financial Valuation of created impact	not applicable	Kickz: 1. Reduction of crime The Boxing Academy: 1. Reduction of crime 2. Prevention of drug use 3. Enhanced educational qualification 2nd Chance: 1. Prevention of Re-offending	no	Primary data (<i>Stakeholder Interviews</i>) Secondary data sources (<i>e.g. Metropolitan Police, Ministry of Justice, Home- Office, Youth Justice Board, British Crime Survey, Youth Cohort Survey Labour Force Survey</i>)	yes	yes	no	no	no

	4. Impact Adjustment (Deadweight & Attribution) 5. Calculation of SROI 2nd chance: 1. Identification of project objectives and selection of objectives feasible for economic analysis 2. Calculation of cost savings if person is prevented from re-offending 3. Calculation of break-even point and different SROI values based on how many people might be prevented from re-offending									
3	Self-designed based on project results of Laureus (2011), there is no further information given on the methodology	not applicable	1. Reduction of crimes 2. Educational and employment impacts: - reduction of disruptive behaviour, truancy and school exclusion - facilitation of further education and employment	no	Primary data <i>(Impact survey)</i> Secondary research <i>(Qualitative evidence gathered by researchers)</i>	no	no	1 year yes	no	no

			3. Improvement of life expectancy (due to the promotion of healthy lifestyles and regular exercise)							
4	SROI framework of Nicholls et al.	1. Participants 2. Family Members of Participants 3. Programme site senior teams 4. Programme delivery teams 5. Community partners 6. Researchers	1. Health 2. Social Activity 3. Family Involvement 4. Primary & unplanned Healthcare Access 5. Programme Partner Profile	no	Primary data (<i>Survey, Interviews, Focus Groups</i>) Secondary data	yes	yes	1 year yes	no	no
5	SROI framework of Nicholls et al.	1. Recipients of AT funding 2. People locally responsible for awarding the funding	1. Community connections & resources - Improved Well-being through development of cultural, recreational and sports facilities, - Improved access to community resources - Greater integration of social, sport and special interest groups 2. Education & skills - Increased agency and self-awareness - Reduced social isolation - Improved competence, engagement and purpose - Improved physical, social and life skills and training 3. Health & Wellbeing	no	Primary data (<i>Stakeholder Workshops, Survey, Participant Interviews</i>) Secondary data (<i>research articles</i>)	yes	yes	1 year yes	yes	yes

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Improved mental health - Safer and more positive environments - Stronger and more connected people and communities - Reduction in chronic disease, LTC and medication - Reduced burden on social care services - Improved physical health and vitality - Improved personal resilience and self-esteem 							
6	SROI framework of Nicholls et al.	1. Coaches 2. Coaches' immediate families 3. Employers 4. Implementing Staff 5. Local Government 6. Educational Institutions	1. Increase in confidence 2. Employability skills related to remaining employed 3. Value of increased health awareness 4. Wage and stipend differences compared to minimum wage 5. Cost of services and facilities for job searching 6. Employee rewards, 7. Outcomes for external stakeholders (employers, government, educational institutions)	no	Primary data <i>(Interviews, Questionnaire)</i> Secondary data	yes	yes	yes	no	yes
7	SROI framework of Nicholls et al.	no information given	1. Economic <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Facility development - Facility hire - Player spending - Employment 2. Social	yes	Primary data <i>(stakeholder consultation, player (parent) survey)</i> Secondary research <i>(Literature Review; Data</i>	yes	no	no	no	no

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Improved educational attainment - Improved school attendance - Reduced NEET - Reduced adult crime - Reduced youth crime - Volunteering 		<i>from national associations)</i>					
8	SROI framework of Nicholls et al.	1. Public/ Government Sector <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sport England - Local Authorities - Secondary schools - Higher Education Institutions - Government Departments - Public Health England 2. Private/ Commercial Sector <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Commercial fitness and exercise providers 	3. Health <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reduced hypertension, heart disease, strokes, diabetes, breast cancer, colon cancer, dementia, osteoporosis, schizophrenia, anxiety, depression - Improved subjective wellbeing - Football injuries 	yes	Primary data <i>(Consultation with stakeholders)</i> Secondary data <i>(e.g. Family Expenditure Survey, UK CMO Physical Activity Guidelines)</i>	yes	yes	none yes	yes	yes
			1. Physical & mental health <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reduced CHD/Stroke, Type 2 Diabetes, Breast Cancer, Colon Cancer, Dementia, Depression, hip fractures, back pain - Good Health - Increased sport injuries 2. Mental wellbeing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Improved subjective wellbeing 3. Individual development <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - educational attainment - human capital 4. Social & Community Development							

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Employers with sport, exercise and physical activity facilities <p>3. Charities/Third Sector</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Voluntary sport and exercise clubs - Sport and leisure trusts - National Governing Bodies - Charities delivering sport and physical activities - Other sport for development organisations <p>4. Consumer Sector</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sport/exercise/physical activity participants - Sports volunteers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Social capital - Crime reduction, - Non-market value for organisations utilising sport volunteers 							
9	Adapted version of SROI framework of Nicholls et al.	no information given	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Volunteering hours 2. Improved education attainment 3. Reduced mortality 4. Avoided health costs 5. Improved productivity 6. Improved job matching 7. Personal well-being 8. Reduced recidivism (return to prison) 9. Suicide prevention 10. Improved mental health 	no	Secondary data (e.g. WAFC's data base, Australian Bureau of Statistics, Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, Australian Sports Commission AusPlay, Productivity Commission Report on Government Services, Western Australian Government State budget, Department	no	yes	no	no	no

					<i>of Prime Minister and Cabinet, peer-reviewed journals)</i>					
10	SROI framework of Nicholls et al.	1. Users 2. Social club workers 3. Workshop teachers 4. Internship students 5. Volunteers	1. Social Interaction with new people 2. Interest in and enjoyment of sporting activities 3. Interest and enjoyment of art-related workshops 4. Reduction of medical visits and relapses 5. Improved social life and makes friends 6. Professional development and experience, 7. Knowledge and attitude improvement for mental health disorders	no	Primary data <i>(Interviews, Surveys, Observations)</i> Secondary data <i>(research)</i>	yes	yes	2-5 years yes	no	yes

10.3 SROI and forcibly displaced persons - Details about the SROI Analysis

Nr	SROI Approach	Identified Stakeholders	Outcomes	Negative Outcomes	Sources of Data	Consideration of Impact adjustments				Sensitivity testing
						Deadweight	Attribution	Duration & Drop-Off	Displacement	
1	SROI framework of Nicholls et al.	1. participants 2. Victorian Government 3. Asylum Seeker Resource Centre (including staff) 4. other partners such as the Victoria Hall Council	1. Increase in digital and soft skills 2. Increase in confidence 3. Increased income and improvement in health and well-being 4. Enhanced cultural competence at the ASRC 5. Increased services during the pandemic 6. Contribution to government savings and income	no	secondary data <i>(unit costs, reports, market values)</i>	yes	yes	1-4 Years yes	yes	yes
2	Robin Hood Foundation Approach	1. participants 2. Jewish Vocational Service 3. other providers	1. increased income	no	primary data <i>(data given by participants)</i>	no	no	1,2,5 and 10 years yes	no	no

3	SROI framework of Nicholls et al.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Norte Joven organization 2. beneficiaries (program participants) 3. Tutors and teachers 4. Volunteers 5. Companies 6. Customers of the audits 7. Families or legal guardians of the beneficiaries 8. Social Services - Treasury 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Avoided cost for societal welfare expenditures 2. Improved life satisfaction 3. Enhanced self-confidence 4. Increased readiness for employment 5. Healthier 	no	primary data (stakeholders' perception)	yes	yes	3 years yes	yes	yes
4	SROI framework of Nicholls et al.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Clients 2. Volunteers 3. Instructors 4. City of Toronto 5. Ontario Ministry of Citizenship & Immigration 6. Other donors 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. receive training certificate 2. finding employment 3. time management 4. personal assets (self-esteem and self-confidence) 5. social and professional networks 6. social assistance cost - City of Toronto 7. Child care subsidy - City of Toronto 	no	primary data (routinely collected data using an intake form)	yes	yes	1-3 years yes	no	yes
5	<u>own approach:</u> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Identifying stakeholders and gathering evidence 2. valuing outcomes and SROI calculation 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Clients 2. Volunteer befrienders 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. increased confidence and self-worth 2. Increased employment opportunities 3. Increased awareness of appropriate use of health services 4. Improved health and well-being 	no	secondary data (Unit Costs of Health and Social Care 2011; cost of job seeker allowance/year)	no	no	1 year no	no	no

			5. Number of people self-reporting increase in confidence							
6	SROI framework of Nicholls et al.	1. refugees 2. local and national government	1. Reduced costs of Rough Sleeping 2. Tax and insurance revenues through earlier employment 3. Less costs for mental health service contacts 4. Better Wellbeing of refugees 5. Less anxiety among refugees 6. Savings to local authority temporary accomodation costs	no	secondary data (reports; data banks, e.g. UK Social Value Bank, research papers; relevant government research, systematically collected and published statistical and research-based estimates)	no	no	none no	no	no
7	<u>own approach:</u> 1. Boundaries: Defining the scope of the work 2. Stakeholders: Identifying and mapping objectives 3. Impact mapping: Analysis of inputs, outputs and outcomes 4. Indicators: Identifying the evidence base for impacts 5. Data: Collecting required information	1. Cunningham Housing Association 2. Impact Arts 3. North Ayrshire Council 4. North Ayrshire Community Planning Partnership 5. Communities scotland 6. Referral agents 7. Staff 8. Participants 9. Participant's families 10. UK government	1. Reductions in repeat homelessness 2. Reduced tenancy support costs 3. Improved health and well-being of participants and greater family stability 4. Reduced agency support 5. Increased training and employment opportunities 6. Movement into the local labour market.	no	primary data (own and local research) secondary data (unit costs)	yes	yes	1 year yes	yes	yes

	6. Model and calculate: Financial modelling of social return 7. Present: Results 8. Verification: Peer review									
8	SROI framework of Nicholls et al.	1. ICDH Graduates 2. Friends and family members 3. Partner organisations 4. Sheffield PCT 5. Sheffield Local Authority 6. Local/National Government 7. The wider National Health Service	1. Increased wellbeing 2. Improved self-efficacy & health behaviours 3. Completed further education or training 4. Gained paid work 5. Increased number of volunteers 6. Savings on council tax benefit, housing benefit & JSA 7. Reduced National Health Service cost	no	secondary data (reports; data banks; research papers; national statistics; models, e.g. wellbeing valuation model)	yes	yes	5 years yes	yes	yes