The Stakes are High: Reinventing the Private Sport Sector as a Catalyst for Good in Communities

Marianna Locke

A dissertation submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctorate in Philosophy degree in Human Kinetics

School of Human Kinetics
Faculty of Health Sciences
University of Ottawa

Acknowledgments

Throughout the writing of this dissertation, I have received a great deal of support and assistance. I would first like to thank my supervisor, Dr. George Karlis, whose knowledge was invaluable throughout the research process. I am sincerely grateful for the time and energy you dedicated to my holistic development over the last six years. I would also like to acknowledge my committee members, Dr. Benoît Séguin, Dr. François Gravelle, and Dr. Diane Culver for generously offering your time and expertise.

In addition, I would like to thank Barat and Patrice. I can't fully express my deep appreciation for your unyielding support and wise counsel. You were remarkable mentors and friends throughout my dissertation journey. Lastly, thank you to my parents, Mand, and Sinead. You inspire me every day to love, learn, and live with purpose. I am tremendously grateful for you and the many privileges I have been afforded. Now, time to go to work! It's time to employ the praxis that is so fundamental to this dissertation.

Abstract

The purpose of this dissertation is to examine the relationship between community wellbeing and the private sport sector. Specifically, the objectives of this dissertation are to: (1) evaluate community resident perceptions of the private sport sector's impact upon community wellbeing; and (2) examine the relationship between the private sport sector and stakeholder accountability. Stakeholder theory and locality development provided the most relevant theoretical frameworks to assess the relationship between community wellbeing and the private sport sector. Stakeholder theory enabled the consideration of an alternative vehicle for community development through the private sport sector. The methodology used in the study was Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis (IPA). Participants took part in semi-structured interviews to explore their perceptions and lived experiences associated with Lansdowne Park. The results revealed that: (1) individual and community wellbeing is reciprocal and shaped by sport, leisure, and recreation, (2) the private sport sector should be serving as community stewards, and (3) community *voices* must be heard and reflected in both private and public agendas. The findings of the study suggest that private sport enterprises can positively contribute to community wellbeing by intentionally designing shared spaces that support spontaneous play and showcase natural beauty.

Keywords: sport, leisure, and recreation, private sport sector, stakeholder, community wellbeing

Table of Contents

Tables

Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction

Research has made it clear that community plays an essential role in helping us better understand ourselves, while also making our environments more comprehensible, predictable, and manageable (Brown & Hannis, 2012). A study exploring the state of community in North America determined that people who were more integrated into their communities were less likely to experience health risks like colds, heart attacks, strokes, cancer, or depression (Putnam, 2000). According to Putnam (2000), studies from Scandinavia and Japan also support these findings connecting strong community engagement with lower levels of illness.

As individuals, we need to feel connected to others (Pinker, 2015). Feeling strong connections to others helps foster strong feelings about self (Brown & Hannis, 2012). Seymour Sarason (1974) argues that individuals need to feel this community membership and any social change nurturing this connection improves individual wellbeing and the quality of the collective life. Sarason (1974) defines this membership, this *sense of community*, as "the sense that one was part of a readily available mutually supportive network of relationship" (p. 1). Sarason (1974) proposes that many existing social problems can be addressed by forming and sustaining a sense of belonging, responsibility, and purpose in people's daily community lives. The extensive review provided by Mannarini, Tartaglia, Fedi, and Greganti (2006) reveals "Sarason's (1974) sense of community is related to various indexes of quality of daily life, such as life satisfaction (Prezza & Costantini, 1998), perception of safety and security (Perkins & Taylor, 1996), social and political participation (Chavis & Wandersman, 1990; Davidson & Cotter, 1989), and even individual ability to use problem-focused coping strategies (Bachrach & Zautra, 1985)" (p. 204). Research supports that individuals with a stronger sense of community are more likely to be healthier, happier, and more civically engaged (Brown & Hannis, 2012).

People want and need a sense of community, but there are challenges to fulfilling this basic need. Growing numbers of people do not or cannot turn to essential social support provided by close friends, families, or other groups associated with leisure related activities (Francis, Giles-Corti, Wood, & Knuiman, 2012). There is a great irony in the current state of community. Francis et al. (2012) contend as our awareness and appreciation for the benefits of a strong sense of community grows, our sense of community is declining throughout the Western world. This decline can be attributed to a variety of factors, including smaller family networks, suburbanization, longer commutes, remote work, and the Information Revolution transforming how leisure-time is experienced (e.g., television, social media use, etc.) (Freeman, 2001).

This decline in sense of community can result in several negative consequences. When individuals feel disconnected, with little or no agency in their environments, their self-image is impacted and they can experience a sense of hopelessness. When individuals feel isolated from each other and without any power to change their circumstances mental and physical health problems can develop (Adler & Proctor, 2010). The absence of meaningful social relationships can threaten heart function in similar ways to that of cigarette smoking, high blood pressure, obesity, and lack of physical activity (Pinker, 2015). Rates of loneliness have doubled in the United States (and globally) since the 1980s, leading former U.S. Surgeon General Dr. Vivek Murthy to suggest loneliness is a “growing health epidemic” (Harvard Business Review, 2017). Research supports that reduced lifespans are highly associated with loneliness and weak social connections (Harvard Business Review, 2017).

Several studies link loneliness with illness of various forms (Cacioppo & Patrick, 2008). Loneliness disrupts executive functioning, increases vascular resistance, cortisol regulation, and sleep dysfunction (Cacioppo & Hawkley, 2009). If not addressed, loneliness will lead to

increased risks for depression and overall organismic fatigue (Cacioppo & Hawkley, 2009). The World Health Organization (WHO) recognizes the importance of this psychosocial dimension to individual health and wellbeing. The WHO (2003) has identified 13 factors that can affect individual health, including income and social status, *social support networks*, employment and working conditions, and *social and physical environments*. Many of these health and wellbeing factors are influenced by communities. However, despite increased global interest and awareness in the health benefits of strong social connections, communities are struggling to maintain the vital social networks that positively impact individual and collective wellbeing (Twenge, Spitzberg, & Campbell, 2019).

Glover (2014) suggests communities represent one of the most tangible comforts and concerns of the twenty-first century. Contemporary research has concentrated on addressing this perceived community decline. Specifically, examining the consequences of reduced social relationships and the associated potential for social capital (Putnam, 2000). Social capital is a community's social fabric. It refers to the network of relationships between people (Putnam, 2000). Robert Putnam (1995) was one of the early researchers to popularize the term social capital. Like other forms of capital, social capital is assumed to provide some form of returned value to individuals through their investment in social relations (Putnam, 2000). The investment and nurturing of these social relationships provide people access to resources and opportunities that would otherwise not be available to them (Glover, Shinew, & Perry, 2005). Communities represent a viable source of social capital, and social capital represents the value of communities (Glover, 2014).

Social capital underscores the importance of relationships, networks, norms, trust, and resources (Mignone, 2003). Communities with higher social capital will have higher levels of

trust among residents, more collaborative participation, and greater consideration in decision-making, collective action, and resource sharing among community members (Mignone, 2003). Mignone (2003) discusses three key factors vital to the development of social capital, including bonding, bridging, and linkage. Each factor is influential in providing potential resources and opportunities to individuals. Bonding refers to the relationships within the community. Bridging relates to ties with other communities, while linkage connects communities to institutions (e.g., governments and corporations) (Mignone, 2003). These type of horizontal and vertical social connections enhance what Glover (2014) refers to as *sphere of sociability*. This can be especially valuable for marginalized populations where unequal resources (e.g., education, employment, healthcare, etc.) can severely limit personal and professional opportunities (Assari, 2018).

Individuals, communities, and nations have the ability and responsibility to change the way we relate individually and collectively to each other and our social world (Boggs, 2012). At all levels, increased concentration is being placed upon wellbeing. Rising health costs have been a major catalyst for this concentration (Rokach, 2014). Sport, leisure, and recreation provides a medium where individuals and communities can improve their wellbeing. According to Edginton and Chen (2014):

> Leisure provides opportunities to enhance and enlarge choice and freedom in the daily decisions one makes. Leisure is valued for many reasons, not the least of which is the opportunity to engage in freely chosen life experiences. It is through leisure that individuals are able to express, explore, discover as well as create, exchange, and communicate with others in a meaningful fashion. Leisure promotes social cohesion, providing opportunities for individuals to bond or unify with one another. As such,

> leisure is a powerful vehicle that has the potential for improving, nourishing, and sustaining individuals through their lives. (p.1)

Sport, leisure, and recreation can serve as an alternative vehicle for community development. They positively contribute to the social, physical, intellectual, spiritual, and psychological well-being of individuals (Edginton & Chen, 2014). The growing value in offering opportunities for individuals to connect outside of work in meaningful and satisfying ways has become a focus of communities. Nations as a whole are also confirming the importance of sport, leisure, and recreation by developing policies and structures to encourage participation (Edginton & Chen, 2014). The individual and collective benefits of shared leisure experiences help us feel better about ourselves and each other (Brown & Hannis, 2012).

French sociologist Emile Durkheim (1912) was one of the early scholars to concentrate upon the communal benefits of shared experiences. Durkheim (1912) coined the term *collective effervescence,* which he describes as a type of "magic" that he witnessed during religious ceremonies. Durkheim (1912) depicts collective effervescence as an experience of connection, communal emotion, and a "sensation of sacredness" that occurs when we partake in something bigger than ourselves. Durkheim (1912) further suggests that during collective effervescence attention moves from self to the group. Sport, leisure, and recreation can offer this platform for collective effervesce. According to Giulianotti (2005):

> Sport is a vehicle for, and an index of, the growing juridico-cultural importance of human rights and the greater relevance of humankind. Major sports events occasion global fascination, and thereby represent cultural media through which their followers can more vividly imagine the community of humankind. Sports participation enables the

> dissemination of humanitarian messages and the implementation of contemporary policy initiatives. (p. 216)

Giulianotti (2005) by no means suggests sport is the answer to all of our social problems, but does submit sports can connect people and promote solutions.

Although communities (and nations as a whole) are increasingly cognizant and committed to the vast benefits associated with sport, leisure, and recreation, budget restrictions and bureaucratic red tape have severely limited the implementation of these programs (Taylor, 1996). As is the case, we must reexamine how we can better offer community sport, leisure, and recreation opportunities. Community activist Grace Lee Boggs challenges us to rethink how we conceptualize community. To "rebuild, redefine, respirit" communities as models of twenty-first century self-reliant and sustainable multicultural collections (Boggs, 2012). We must go beyond the traditional manifestations of capitalism which frequently exploit, exclude, and perpetuate social inequality (Boggs, 2012). Boggs (2012) discusses, "Creating new forms of community-based institutions (e.g., co-ops, small businesses, and community development corporations) will give us ownership and control over the way we make our living, while helping us to ensure that the wellbeing of the community and the environment is part of the bottom line" (p. 48). This idea of a more conscious capitalism, where profits are not more important than people, is possible. As Boggs suggests though, it will require creativity, compassion, and collaboration among corporations and communities.

Some companies have seen declining public funds as a call to fiduciary duty. Certified B Corporations (B Corps) are transforming the business landscape and prioritizing community wellbeing. Smith and Westerbeek (2007) suggest the private sport sector presents an especially adept vehicle to positively impact communities. Smith and Westerbeek (2007) argue the

financial leverage available to corporations and the distributive/symbolic power inherent in sport presents an opportunity to improve the quality of life for individuals and communities alike. Several B Corp private sport companies support this premise. B Corp companies like Kammok (hammocks and lifestyle apparel), Burton (snowboards and outdoor gear), and Patagonia (outdoor apparel) are committed to being agents for change. At Patagonia, employees use their role as *Global Sport Activists* in the sport community to drive positive social and environmental change through conversation and action (Patagonia, 2020). In addition, several fitness and wellness centers (e.g., Absolute Pilates) have also joined B Corps.

Private sport enterprises, such as Ottawa's Lansdowne Park, are entering a new era of responsibilities and expectations. As Smith and Westerbeek state (2007), "Sport possesses the power to captivate and unite individuals within communities and create environments for contributing to social capital. Equally, the corporate world can mobilize much-needed resources to be deployed through sport to meet its social responsibilities" (p. 10). Corporate managers and sport leaders can maximize the social benefits that they deliver to society by better directing the power of sport in the delivery of social and community objectives (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). Investing in the community will also improve the economic prospects of their organizations. The potential for this reciprocal relationship will be further explored in the subsequent chapters. Specifically, this dissertation will explore the following research question: (1) How does sport, leisure, and recreation impact your personal wellbeing – quality of life?; (2) What does community wellbeing mean to you?; (3) Do you feel the private sport sector can serve as a vehicle for community development?; and (4) In what ways do you believe Lansdowne Park has a fiduciary responsibility to community wellbeing? Do you feel like a valued stakeholder?

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this dissertation is to examine the relationship between community wellbeing and the private sport sector. The objective of this dissertation is to provide an in-depth examination of community resident perceptions of the private sport sector and expected stakeholder accountability. Specifically, the objectives of this dissertation are to:

(1) evaluate community resident perceptions of the private sport sector's impact upon community wellbeing;

(2) examine the relationship between the private sport sector and stakeholder accountability.

Definitions of Key Terms:

Community. There are a variety of definitions for community. An evaluation of over 90 definitions determined that two-thirds of these definitions identified social interaction, common connections, and location as being consistent themes (Brown & Hannis, 2012). For the purpose of this dissertation, community will be defined as follows: "That combination of social units and systems which perform the major social functions having locality relevance" (Warren, 1987, p. 9).

Community resident. This dissertation will define community resident as any individual living in close vicinity to the private sport enterprise (Lansdowne Park).

Community resident perceptions. Community resident perceptions will be defined as the way in which individuals view the world, their beliefs, interpretations, and understanding of their social realities (Newman, 2000).

Community development. The definition presented by the United Nations (1955) has been selected as the working definition for this dissertation. This definition states that

community development is “a process designed to create conditions of economic and social progress for the whole community with its active participation and the fullest possible reliance on the community’s initiative” (p. 6). Community development is a democratic and social process (Minkler, 1990). It is “a process that increases the assets and attributes which a community is able to draw upon in order to improve their lives” (Gibbon, Labonte, & Laverack, 2002, p. 485). Community development emphasizes self-help and mutual support, and also promotes local capacity for problem solving and collective action to bring issues to political decision-makers (and businesses) (Brown & Hannis, 2012).

Community wellbeing. Subjective wellbeing is measured by how happy people are in their lives. This dissertation employs John Wiseman and Kathleen Brasher’s (2008) subsequent definition of community wellbeing: “Community wellbeing is the combination of social, economic, environmental, cultural, and political conditions identified by individuals and their communities as essential for them to flourish and fulfill their human potential” (p. 358). More specifically, research was grounded in the Canadian Index of Wellbeing’s (2011) eight system domains for human wellbeing. These domains include: *community vitality, democratic engagement, education, environment, healthy populations, leisure and culture, living standards, and time use.*

Leisure. For the purpose of this study, leisure will be understood as an integral component to community development with correlating advantages and benefits. In regards to being a vehicle for community development, the World Leisure and Recreation Association (2003) defines leisure as “a form of human expression that varies from the very casual and informative to the highly committed and formal” (p. 97). This definition suggests leisure can be

both informal and organic to a more structured and formal experience. Sivan and Ruskin (2000) further contribute to the study's conceptualization of leisure:

> Leisure refers to a specific area of human experience with its own benefits, including freedom of choice, creativity, satisfaction, enjoyment and increased pleasure and happiness. It embraces comprehensive forms of expression or activity whose elements are as often physical in nature as they are intellectual, social, artistic or spiritual. (p. 1)

Sivan and Ruskin (2000) also state:

> To reach a state of physical, mental and social well-being, an individual or group must be able to identify and realize aspirations, satisfy needs and interact positively with the environment. Leisure is therefore seen as a resource for improving the quality of life. (p. 1)

This goal of improving individuals' quality of life, ultimately community wellbeing, through leisure is the fundamental focus of this dissertation.

Recreation. This dissertation will define recreation as voluntary, pleasurable, and intrinsically motivated activities or experiences that occur in leisure (Kraus, 2001).

Sport. Jay Coakley (2014) describes the public's understanding of sport in North America and much of Europe to be "well-established, officially governed competitive physical activities in which participants are motivated by internal and external rewards" (p. 6). Coakley argues that this more regulated definition of sport can result in lower participation levels in physical activity. Individuals in North America and Europe value exclusive try-out based sports as representing *real* sport. If these try-out teams/organizations are created then other sporting options sponsored by park and recreation departments are often overlooked because they are seen as a "recreation activity" rather than sport (Coakley, 1978). Coakley (1978) submits that

when “sports include a wide range of physical activities that are played for pleasure and integrated into local expressions of social life, physical activity rates will be high and overall health benefits are likely” (p. 8). This more inclusive and integrated definition of sport was utilized in my research.

Private Sport Sector. The private sport sector will be defined as comprising “all profit making, commercial companies and other organisations and events that produce and sell sport goods and services with the aim of making monetary profit” (Laine & Vehams, 2017, p. 1).

Importance of Research

A vast amount of data exists on the benefits of pursuing sports, leisure, and recreation (World Health Organization, 2003). Leisure and recreation have the potential to address socio-demographic challenges and troubling issues such as increases in sedentary behavior and obesity, decreased contact with nature, threats to the environment, and inequities that limit participation (Interprovincial Sport and Recreation Council and the Canadian Parks and Recreation Association, 2015). Unfortunately, many communities today are unable to offer the services and opportunities that sport and recreation provided in the 1950s, 1960s, and 1970s (Taylor, 1996). With public funds being reallocated to other areas of concern like crime, poverty, and development, sports and recreation opportunities have been severely reduced in most municipal budgets (Taylor, 1996).

This research should be instrumental to better understanding how private sport can help offset the declining funding surrounding community sport and recreation (Crossley et al., 2007). Particularly, the potential for private sport companies to embrace community interests and wellbeing, while also benefiting their own corporate agendas. This research examines community perceptions and expectations of private sport enterprises. Specifically, in regard to

community stakeholder accountability. It will be argued that the private sport sector can, if *intentional*, positively influence community wellbeing.

The private sport sector represents a valuable underutilized contributor to community development and wellbeing. As aforementioned, the financial and social capital available to corporations and the distributive/symbolic power inherent in sport presents an opportunity for the private sport sector to improve the quality of life for individuals and communities alike. The ensuing research illustrates how private sport companies, big and small, operating through a stakeholder perspective can positively influence communities and their businesses. Ultimately, long-term community sustainability correlates with long-term company profitability (OECD, 2001).

Companies often conduct their own needs assessment without the involvement of local agencies. This implies that the socioeconomic transformational plan may not be congruent with the local organizational development plan (Idowu, 2016). This communication gap has still not been fully addressed in literature. What is needed is a more comprehensive design detailing *how* and *why* a more collaborative relationship between community and commercial is warranted. This research seeks to bridge that divide by presenting a community-centered approach for businesses to employ. Further, a cooperative model is presented that can be utilized by both communities and businesses moving forward.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This study incorporated many important themes. Consequentially, more than one functional area in the review of the literature is addressed. The subsequent section will discuss the existing literature surrounding (1) community wellbeing, (2) community development, (3) sport, leisure, and recreation, and (4) stakeholder theory perspective.

Community Wellbeing

Throughout the last decade community wellbeing has become a buzz word for governments and organizations alike (Atkinson et al., 2019). What constitutes the *good life* and influences happiness has become a prominent public issue. As a result, community wellbeing has become a primary area of political rhetoric and policy agenda (Atkinson et al., 2019). Despite the growing interest, community wellbeing is still a relatively new concept in the social sciences and warrants additional theoretical structure consideration (Sung & Phillips, 2016).

The concept of *community wellbeing* encompasses two terms, both invoking great ambiguity (Atkinson et al., 2019). Although highly debated, community has long been understood as existing as either geographical or functional in definition (Fellin, 2001). Regardless of community interpretation, each was believed to share the characteristic of people engaged in face-to-face communication through various levels of exchange and interaction (Fellin 2001). More recently, Atkinson et al., (2019) suggests the internet and social media have created new forums for virtual and digital interaction and communication which have resulted in evolving perceptions surrounding relationships and communities. Globalization has also contributed to a more integrated world, making territorial terms for “local” and community” more challenging (Atkinson et al., 2019). Despite the evolving nature of community, Lee and Kim (2015) maintain that community in relation to wellbeing is still best conceptualized as a “geographically bounded group of people at a local scale, usually residents in a locality, who are

subject to direct or indirect interaction with one another" (p. 11). Governments today are still largely structured around territorial jurisdictions (Atkinson et al., 2019), thus community policy and programming is often residentially motivated. The principal approach to community wellbeing analysis and application remains commonly a territorial definition (Atkinson et al., 2019). As a result, community wellbeing uses the word "community" to include wellbeing factors that are of interest at the scale of a community rather than the individual, national, or international scales (Atkinson et al., 2019).

Defining community wellbeing largely depends on whom is asked, community conditions and changes, how community itself is defined, and the how wellbeing is understood, more theoretical in nature or applied in context (Sung & Phillips, 2018). According to Sung and Phillips (2018), community wellbeing is about understanding and satisfying the needs and desires of its members. John Wiseman and Kathleen Brasher (2008) propose "community wellbeing is the combination of social, economic, environmental, cultural, and political conditions identified by individuals and their communities as essential for them to flourish and fulfil their potential" (p. 358). Through both of these community wellbeing interpretations, *voice* and agency is given to individuals and communities in recognizing their own wellbeing needs.

Community wellbeing approaches may differ, but measurements are generally categorized as objective or subjective (Sung & Phillips, 2018). Objective wellbeing usually denotes the material and social circumstances existing in a community (e.g., measures such as income, education, facilities, etc.). Conversely, subjective wellbeing indicates individuals' perceptions of their own wellbeing and cultural value within the community (Allin, 2007; Lau et al., 2005; Lee & Kim, 2015; Sung, 2016; White, 2010). Atkinson et al. (2019) outline some of the subjective assessment of variables that affect individual lives and collective lives. These

include: how people feel about their house, job, and levels of personal stress and/or happiness; more collective variables consist of how people feel about local transportation, the local economy or local safety, and local social factors such as level of trust in the community (Atkinson et al., 2019). Collecting subjective perceptions and feelings from individuals helps communities use this data as an instrument for action. This information becomes a valuable tool for designing policy, implementing programs, and empowering more equitable communities.

Several measurement tools exist to evaluate community wellbeing. Three of the more popularly referenced frameworks include OECD's (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) *How's Life* (2015), the *Gallup Health Ways: Wellbeing Index* (2019), and the *Canadian Index of Wellbeing* (2011) (Atkinson et al., 2019). These three assessment tools all examine individual wellbeing and combine the data to produce territorially defined reports (Atkinson et al., 2019). For Canadians, the Canadian Index of Wellbeing (CIW) has presented an opportunity to examine wellbeing beyond the historically singular economic focus of Gross Domestic Product (Michalos et al., 2011). The CIW provides Canadians with a more robust analysis of wellbeing through relevant economic, environmental, and social measurements. This more holistic evaluation provides important data and non-market contributions for Canadian communities (Michalos et al., 2011).

Canadian Index of Wellbeing

In 1999, the Atkinson Foundation helped create what would eventually become the CIW with their desire to create an independent and credible tool to measure the economic, social, and environmental wellbeing of Canadians (Canadian Index of Wellbeing [CIW], 2019). In 2011, the Faculty of Applied Health Sciences at University of Waterloo became the headquarters for the CIW. That same year, the CIW released the first complete version of their signature product, the

CIW national composite index (CIW, 2019). This inaugural index, and current CIW research, is rooted in Canadian values. Canadians were asked questions about what mattered to them most about their families and communities. Canadians identified creating a shared destiny and enabling collective action as being fundamental principles (CIW, 2019).

The CIW is designed to fulfill these Canadian values. The CIW is comprised of eight quality of life domains including: *community vitality, democratic engagement, education, environment, healthy populations, leisure and culture, living standards, and time use* (Michalos et al., 2011). Each of these domains also have eight supporting indicators. The CIW accounts for a cumulative total of 64 indicators consolidated into a composite CIW average (Michalos et al., 2011). Figure 1 represents the composite index model.

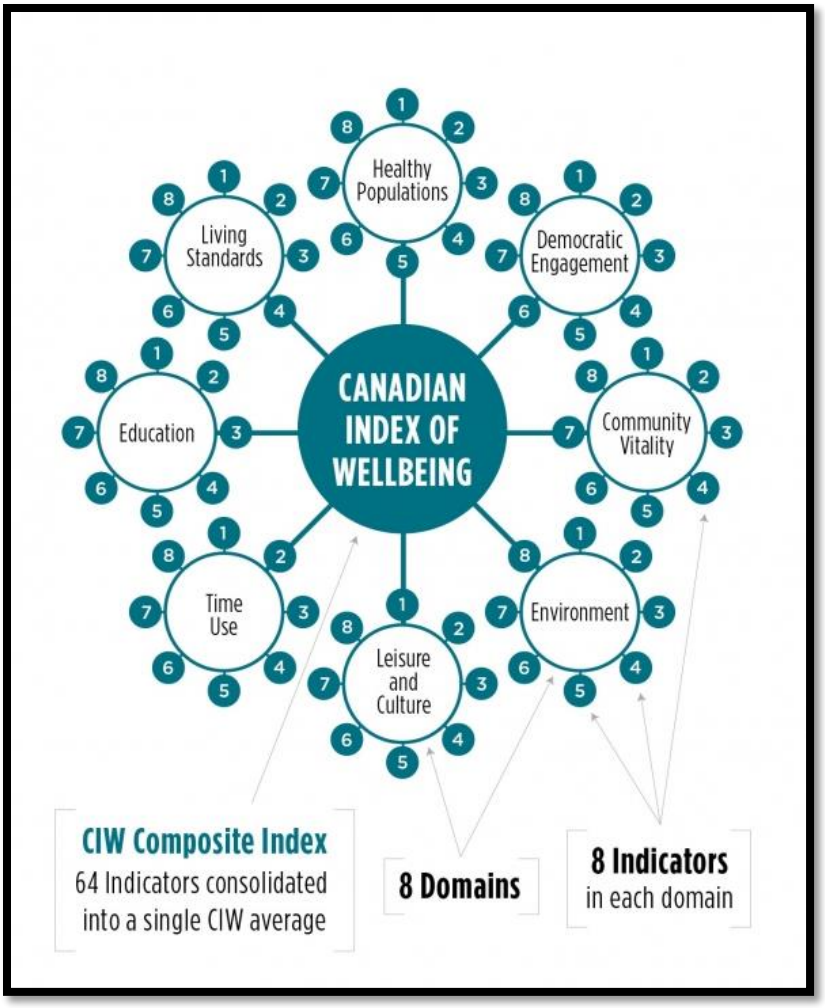


Figure 1

Data from each domain is used by policy-makers, decision-makers, and community leaders to provide a collaborative analysis and action plan for communities. Three particular domains are of considerable importance to this dissertation: *community vitality, healthy populations, and leisure and culture*. Community vitality measures social relationships (e.g., social engagement and support) and how these social connections influence quality of life in communities (CIW, 2019). The data collected for the healthy populations domain primarily consists of health status, lifestyle and behavior, and health care system factors (CIW, 2019). Finally, the leisure and culture domain examines Canadian participation and engagement with the arts, culture, and recreation.

More specifically, participation, perceptions, experiences, and opportunities in leisure activities (CIW, 2019).

The CIW does acknowledge a data gap for both *perceptions* and *experiences* of Canadians in this leisure and culture domain. The CIW has outlined specific questions for both dimensions. For *perceptions* of leisure, or feelings about leisure activities, these questions include, "why people participate, what needs are being met through participation, and how leisure and culture participation benefits them" (CIW, 2019). Similarly, for the dimension *experiences* of leisure, the CIW looks to acquire a better understanding of "the meaning it (leisure) holds for people in relation to quality of life" (CIW, 2019). Acquiring more information in these two particular areas would certainly provide a more comprehensive analysis of community wellbeing. Chapter 4 of this dissertation will contribute to the limited amount of research in the leisure and culture domain by providing subjective data of community perceptions and experiences in sport, leisure, and recreation.

Reassessing progress. Community wellbeing measurements like the CIW help us rethink the definition of progress, acknowledging that a simple economic evaluation is insufficient for sustainable policy development (Wiseman & Brasher, 2008). The holistic data also provides a more nuanced analysis for quality of life. Figure 2, from the third release of the composite CIW in 2016, illustrates that quality of life for Canadians has not improved at the same rate as the economic growth measured by GDP. Since 1994, Canada's wellbeing has seen an overall improvement of 9.9%, whereas Canada's GDP recorded a 38.0% growth rate in that same period (CIW, 2019).

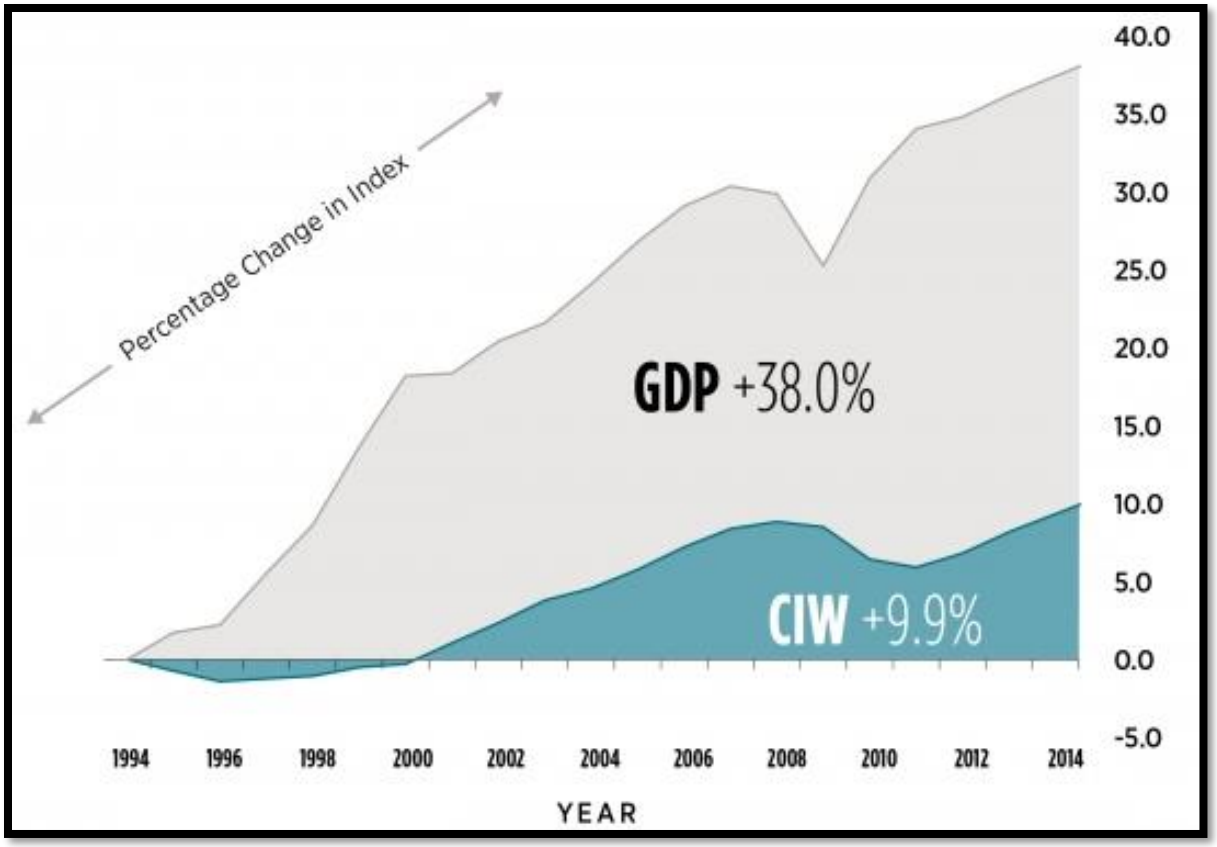


Figure 2

The comprehensive data for the CIW ensures that measuring community progress and wellbeing (e.g., sustainably providing basic human needs for food, shelter, freedom, participation, etc.) are met, rather than solely the measures of marketed economic activity which only represents the financial "health" of a community or nation (Costanza et al., 2009).

Despite the value in measurements like the CIW, social and institutional barriers have limited the application of such tools (Michaelson, Mahony, & Schifferes, 2012). These barriers include the dominance in the "growth is good paradigm", lack of political leadership, and the power of those invested in maintaining the status quo (Costanza et al., 2009). Proponents in the "growth is good" paradigm advocate that there is no better way to reduce poverty and unemployment than with a high GDP. Business leaders, economists, media, and governments

continue to promote this “growth is good” claim (Costanza et al., 2009). However, the GDP does not always track indicators of wellbeing like poverty, literacy, and life expectancy (Daly & Posner, 2011). For example, the United States has the highest GDP in the world but also high levels of poverty and incarceration. Similarly, levels of subjective wellbeing (e.g., life satisfaction, feelings of security and autonomy, and trusting one’s neighbor) are routinely higher in countries with lower GDP but stronger family and community structures than wealthier countries (Costanza et al., 2009). Ultimately, an expanding economy does not necessarily equate to social progress and improved community wellbeing.

Political leadership is also hesitant to employ large-scale community wellbeing measurements. Much of this can be associated with the perceived danger to political power (Costanza et al., 2009). If the data reveals past and current policies are creating problems and negative outcomes for those in a community, then this reflects critically on those in power. There are also organizations and institutions with a sincere interest in maintaining the status quo (Costanza et al., 2009). Some businesses financial success is based on the continuity of existing circumstances. These businesses are hesitant to endorse evaluations of the social needs of communities and implementing any program or policy changes in the community that could influence their bottom-line. However, this status quo private policy is starting to shift to more of community-oriented approach to business. Increasingly, businesses are realizing that better community relationships also coincide with better potential profits (Freeman, 2001).

Measurements like the CIW present opportunities for communities, governments, and businesses to acquire valuable subjective data about what is going wrong and what is going well in people’s lives. Exploring community deficits and assets is essential to designing more efficient projects, programs, and services (Michaelson, Mahony, & Schifferes, 2012). This data is

valuable information for the private, public, and volunteer sectors. As Nobel Memorial Prize in Economic Sciences recipient Joseph Stiglitz (2009) stated, “what you measure affects what you do, and if you don’t measure the right thing, you don’t do the right thing.” In order to “do the right thing”, communities, governments, and businesses need the data that measurements like the CIW can produce. This information can then become action points for community development efforts.

Community Development

Community development encompasses a variety of change efforts taking place in many diverse contexts. The term has a wide range of meanings and uses. Gibbon, Labonte, & Laverack (2002) state community development is “a process that increases the assets and attributes which a community is able to draw upon in order to improve their lives” (p. 485). Gilchrist (2003) suggests community development is “the capacity of local populations to respond collectively to events and issues that affect them (p. 16). Finally, Wright (2004) offers community development is “working with people at a local level to promote active participation in identifying local needs and organizing to meet those needs” (p. 386). Defining community development is generally dependent upon the intended goals and approaches of a project. Although the specific objectives of community development projects may differ, most efforts seek to enhance collective problem-solving, capacity building, and empowerment (Brown & Hannis, 2012).

Community development helps build community competencies in order to address issues (e.g., social, economic, political, environmental, etc.) and take advantage of opportunities, find common ground, and balance competing interests (Frank & Smith, 1999). Community development initiatives often confront the attitudes of individuals and the practices of institutions which discriminate against disadvantaged people. The process of community development

analyzes the conditions and factors that influence communities and then takes action to address these issues. The outcome of community development is a change to the quality of life of its members and ultimately improved community wellbeing (Frank & Smith, 1999).

Theoretical Perspectives and Community Development

Major theoretical perspectives from sociology guide the ways that community development is practiced. Three theories are particularly influential, including functionalism, conflict theory, and symbolic interactionism (Brown & Hannis, 2012). Functionalism and conflict theory are both macro theories that focus on the impact of larger social institutions on personal welfare. Functionalism is about stability. From a functionalist perspective, problems occur when a function is not being fulfilled. Only then is action required to restore balance and community status quo. Change is often reactive, slow, and designed to restore functions to the "pre-problem" state (Brown & Hannis, 2012). Conversely, conflict theory is about more equitable sharing of resources. Action is required to force change and greater equity for more individuals. Conflict theorists view social change as ongoing and necessary in order to develop more inclusive communities (Brown & Hannis, 2012).

Unlike functionalism and conflict theory, symbolic interactionism is a micro theory. Symbolic interactionism examines how individuals influence society, especially how individuals and groups interpret and understand their social worlds by attaching meaning to symbols (Sage & Eitzen, 2012). Symbolic interactionists do not believe meanings are inherent, but that individuals continually construct and reinvent meaning through their shared interactions. These exchanges are important in collectively identifying community problems and strategies. Symbolic interactionists understand change to be a process that is positive, slow, and deliberate in nature (Sage & Eitzen, 2012). Change requires consensus in shared experiences.

These theoretical perspectives shape basic beliefs about the causes and solutions to community problems. These theories also influence the approaches pursued in community development. Stoecker (2001) characterizes community development efforts consisting of one of two approaches: program-based and power-based. Program-based community development is based on the premise of mutual interest. Program-based community development promotes stability of the current economic and political structures (Stoecker, 2001). Much of program-based community development depends on the transfer of financial and political capital from those who yield these resources to those who do not. Program-based approaches are characterized by their technical skills (e.g., acquiring and managing funds) and their training (e.g., education) (Stoecker, 2001). Two central objectives with the program-based approach to community development is to be maintain change through collaboration and voluntary resource redistribution.

Unlike program-based community development where cooperation is a guiding principle, the power-based approach to community development is about challenging the existing power structure (Stoecker, 2001). This approach seeks immediate change and usually through leadership at the grassroots level. The goal is to disrupt, demand, and then negotiate. These demands are generally rooted in scarce resources being more fairly distributed to all community members. This approach can receive resistance from some businesses and governments fearing the consequences of an empowered and energized community (Stoecker, 2001). Contrary to the program-based approach which emphasizes collaboration, the power-based approach is seeking major changes to the status quo. Those benefiting from the existing power structure may not always welcome change. As a result, sometimes this more confrontational approach to change is warranted.

Although program-based and power-based community development approaches have different theoretical influences and methods, both approaches seek to empower communities. Craig (2002) defines empowerment in the community development context as “the creation of sustainable structures, processes, and mechanisms, over which local communities have an increased degree of control, and from which they have a measurable impact on public and social policies affecting these communities” (p. 3). This definition includes important aspects of both community development approaches. The focus on community structures and processes is fundamental to program-based community development, while increasing the locality of control is intrinsic to the power-based approach to community development.

Several different community development initiatives exist in pursuit of greater equality and empowerment in the community. Jack Rothman's (1995) three models of community development intervention are some of the most referenced conceptualizations (Hardcastle, Powers, & Wenocur, 2011). Rothman’s (1995) models include: locality development, social planning, and social action. Rothman’s models each closely align with the larger objectives of the program-based or power-based community development approaches. Each model is rooted in community empowerment, but the principles for each present very different tactics for achieving this goal.

Locality Development

Locality development emphasizes cooperation, capacity building, education and development of local leadership, and the encouragement of a civic consciousness (Rothman, 1995). A condition of limited resources is implied in locality development, and efforts are concentrated on increasing and expanding these resources so more individuals can mutually benefit (Rothman, 1995). This model promotes consensus rather than conflict with those in

power (Rothman, 1995). Change occurs incrementally in this model, with communities working in collaboration with governments and bureaucracies (Rothman, 1995). Although more modest reform is attributed to this model, agencies founded on the locality development philosophy have had more enduring qualities than other more immediate change models (Brown & Hannis, 2012).

Due to the focus on capacity building, implementing locality development as a community empowerment strategy can contribute to reduction in feelings of worthiness, dependency, and alienation (Khinduka, 1979). According to Khrinduka (1979), locality development significantly improves the psychological wellbeing of individuals, especially in disadvantaged communities with negative social indicators such as high crime, unemployment, low standards of health, and above average rates of physical and mental illness. This focus on individual capacity building has a direct impact community wellbeing. Recently, locality development has also been credited for expanding local economic initiatives in the form of business cooperatives (Brown & Hannis, 2012). Cooperatives can be important vehicles for community development because they mobilize local resources, create jobs, and their structure allows them to be more community-oriented in philosophy (Fairbairn, Bold, Fulton, Ketilson, & Ish, 1991; Wilkinson & Quarter, 1996).

Even with the positive capacity building efforts associated with locality development, not all community activists are advocates for the model. Some view locality development as a soft strategy for social change (Khinduka, 1979). Khinduka (1979) promotes the benefits of locality development at the local level, but suggests these individual benefits have little impact on larger more complex issues like distribution of wealth, racial discrimination, and other forms of structural oppression. Khinduka (1979) argues that individuals may have greater self-confidence as a result of local capacity building but still experience significant challenges from economic

disadvantages. Focusing on individual capacity building rather than on structural barriers may promote self-respect and community identity, but do little to perpetuate fundamental social change at the structural level (Brown & Hannis, 2012).

The approach to community development and model used is dependent on the needs of the community, organizer's preference, and project objectives. Communities are diverse and require very different strategies. Understanding community dynamics is crucial to implementing the most applicable community development model. When evaluating structural issues and substantive social problems like mental health, housing, or crime, Rothman's (1995) social planning model is often employed. This model focuses more on improving community policy than developing individual competencies.

Social Planning

In Rothman's (1995) social planning model, change is very planned and deliberate. Social planning involves a technical process of problem solving for communities from external experts. These experts are believed to have the procedural skills and experience required to efficiently gather facts, analyze current conditions, communicate with large bureaucracies, and ultimately in facilitating complex change practices (Stockdale, 2014). Unlike locality development where community participation is highly valued, social planning generally involves minimal community input and instead allocates decision-making power to the appointed expert planners (Stockdale, 2014).

Social planning takes place in a variety of contexts. The central objective of social planning model is to deliver goods and services to those in need in the community. This differs from the more psychologically focused capacity building efforts inherent in the locality development model (Brown & Hannis, 2012). Social planning is frequently used in various

levels of government and public agencies. Social planners are tasked with identifying major social problems, translating these social problems into social goals, and then implementing programs to respond to the identified community needs (Stockdale, 2014).

The social planning model is frequently utilized by communities to address a variety of social, health, and economic concerns. Regardless of problem, the social planning model adheres to a six-step process: (1) preparation, (2) needs assessment, (3) policy development, (4) program development, (5) implementation, and (6) monitoring and evaluation (Brown & Hannis, 2012). This distinct practice allows the social planner to gradually evolve in the problem-solving process. Although this procedural approach to community development may be effective in addressing larger-scale social issues, it does not exist without criticism (Stockdale, 2014). Much of the dissatisfaction surrounding social planning can be attributed to the reliance on appointed experts rather than invested community members.

Brueggermann (2006) suggests social planning is “top-down” and “elitist”. Social planning inadvertently assumes that most social problems in communities are too complex for the average community member to comprehend. As a result, professionals with specialized expertise must be utilized to help facilitate social change (Brueggemann, 2006). Stockdale (2014) also warns that social planners can become disconnected from the actual needs of the community. The theoretical frameworks, methodologies, and methods researchers employ are technical, and the vocabulary may not always be commonly understood at the grassroots level. Communication challenges and disconnection between the researcher and community may result. This could negatively influence community *voice* in the decision-making process.

Representation and voice are important criticisms of social planning. Unlike locality development where collaboration is encouraged, social planning often excludes community

input. Although emphasis in social planning is placed on addressing community needs in rational ways, these initiatives are frequently conducted in the very politicized contexts of business, land-use development, and competing government departments (Brown & Hannis, 2012). Many critics of the social planning model have deep reservations for the influence and access the chief financers of projects may have over the appointed social planner9s). Delivered in this regard, social planning only serves to reinforce the ideologies and interests of the most powerful and elite (Brown & Hannis, 2012). When this is the case, Rothman's third model of community development, social action, may begin to take form.

Social Action

The major goal of social action is to challenge current conditions in order to bring about change and improved quality of life for a specific group of people (Cameron & Kearns, 1985). Social action employs a variety of pressure tactics to create basic change in major social institutions or community practices. The effectiveness of the model depends on creative planning and patient organization. Similar to the social planning model, the social action model has a five-step process for organizers to follow: (1) defining, (2) researching, (3) formulating action goal, (4) developing a method, and (5) evaluating the action (Cameron & Kearns, 1985). Social action organizers approach social problems as non-conformists. They seek innovative strategies and bring an entrepreneurial spirit to community development (Brown & Hannis, 2012).

Hessel (1972) describes social action as an inside-out model where a committed nucleus of people attempt to educate and motivate others to take action. Social change is believed to occur only when power, resources, and decision-making processes are more equally distributed in the community. This may mean working towards amending existing legislative mandates, policies, and practices of community institutions to better reflect the interests of all individuals

rather than the most privileged (Cameron & Kerans, 1985). Structural change can be difficult and time-consuming. Prioritizing issues and resiliency are key characteristics in this model (Hessel, 1972). Leaders must be committed to incremental progress over long periods of time.

Social action has enhanced communities with improved parks and transportation systems (Drover & Kearns, 1993). Social action has also positively impacted the life of disadvantaged groups. Similar to the capacity building efforts integral to locality development, social action has helped people learn new skills and provided additional community resources. Social action has also led to increased civic pride and social capital opportunities for individuals (Drover & Kearns, 1993). Historically, the social action model has helped create more inclusive and equitable communities (Horwitt, 1992). The social action model influences contemporary social movements today. Organizations like Black Lives Matter, Me Too, and many climate change advocacy groups have foundational principles rooted in the social action model.

Some of the key characteristics that make social action so effective also represent central criticisms. Some opponents suggest that social action can be overly aggressive and reactionary in nature (Brueggemann, 2006). In contrast to locality development where collaboration is necessary, or social planning where technical experts are appointed, social action represents a more combative “us against them” spirit (Brueggemann, 2006). Critics suggest this results in misdirected energy fighting unproductive battles. This is especially true when immediate and non-negotiable demands are presented by organizers. Brueggemann (2006) describes how many community agencies are dependent upon government funding. Alienating policy-makers who make community funding decisions may come at the expense of these local agencies.

Leadership is also an important consideration in the social action model. Effective leadership can be valuable in sustaining long and exhausting social action efforts, while poor

leadership can be extremely detrimental to community development efforts. Charismatic leaders are often the driving force behind social action community work. Similar to the concerns in social planning surrounding the appointed expert's ability to accurately represent community interests, opponents of social action suggest that the model can endorse the agendas of leaders, not actually those of the communities (Brown & Hannis, 2012). Ensuring that multiple voices are represented in all five steps of the social action process must be an important reflexive consideration of social action organizers.

Rothman's (1995) three models of community development are still widely utilized today. Many of the current frameworks for community development have origins in one of Rothman's three models. Some of these include: asset-based community development, empowerment and community development, and cooperatives as a community development strategy. Regardless of community development approach, improving quality of life is the primary concern. Community activists looking to improve quality of life, enhance social capital, and increase community wellbeing should look beyond the parameters of community development theory. Activists should instead look to sport, leisure, and recreation as an alternative medium to help "rebuild, redefine, and respirit" communities.

Sport, Leisure, and Recreation

Sport, leisure, and recreation can offer important community development opportunities through enjoyment, improved self-esteem, and valuable social connections (Barnes, Rodger, & Whyte, 1997). Susan Pinker studied the importance of social connections in her book *The Village Effect: How Face-to-Face Contact Can Make Us Healthier, Happier, and Smarter*. Pinker (2015) analyzed studies across several diverse fields, concluding, there is no substitution for in-person interactions. Her research describes how these social connections are proven to bolster

our immune systems, release positive hormones throughout our brains and bodies, and help us live longer. Pinker refers to the construction of these social relationships as “building your village”. Pinker (2015) goes on to say this construction is a “matter of life and death.” Several research studies indicate the participation in leisure services like sport can help individuals “build their village” and develop a sense of community (SOC) (Legg, Wells, Newland, & Tanner, 2017; Lin, Chalip, & Green, 2016; Warner & Leierer, 2015). This SOC can be fostered through coaches and leaders who create spaces for mutual connection, belonging, and identification (Fader, Legg, Ross, 2020). .

Research exploring leisure and psychological health have found group-based leisure activities directly impact wellbeing (Argyle, 1999; Compton, 2005; Waters & Moore, 2002). Driver (1990) provides a more detailed examination of the positive holistic benefits associated with leisure participation in Table 1:

Table 1: Specific Types and General Categories of Benefits that Have Been Attributed to Leisure by Research

I. Personal Benefits

A. Psychological

1. Better mental health and health maintenance
   - Holistic sense of wellness
   - Stress management (prevention, mediation, and restoration)
   - Catharsis
   - Prevention of and reduced depression, anxiety, and anger
   - Positive changes in mood and emotion

2. Personal development and growth
   - Self-confidence
   - Self-reliance
   - Self-competence
   - Self-assurance
   - Value clarification
   - Improved academic and cognitive performance
   - Independence and autonomy
   - Sense of control over one's life
   - Humility
   - Leadership
   - Aesthetic enhancement
   - Creativity enhancement
   - Spiritual growth
   - Adaptability
   - Cognitive efficiency
   - Problem solving
   - Nature learning
   - Cultural and historic awareness, learning, and appreciation
   - Environmental awareness and understanding
   - Tolerance
   - Balanced competitiveness
   - Balanced living
   - Prevention of problems to at-risk youth
   - Acceptance of one's responsibility

3. Personal appreciation and satisfaction
   - Sense of freedom
   - Self-actualization
   - Flow and absorption
   - Exhilaration
   - Stimulation
   - Sense of adventure
   - Challenge
   - Nostalgia
   - Quality of life and/or life satisfaction
   - Creative expression
   - Aesthetic appreciation
   - Nature appreciation
   - Spirituality
   - Positive change in mood or emotion

B. Psychophysiological Benefits

1. Cardiovascular benefits, including prevention of strokes
2. Reduced or prevented hypertension
3. Reduced serum cholesterol and triglycerides
4. Improved control and prevention of diabetes
5. Prevention of colon cancer
6. Reduced spinal problems
7. Decreased body fat and obesity and/over weight control
8. Improved neuropsychological functioning
9. Increased bone mass and strength in children
10. Increased muscle strength and better connective tissue
11. Respiratory benefits (increased lung capacity, benefits to people with asthma)
12. Reduced incidence of disease
13. Improved bladder control of the elderly
14. Increased life expectancy
15. Management of menstrual cycles
16. Management of arthritis
17. Improved functioning of the immune system
18. Reduced consumption of alcohol and use

II. Social and Cultural Benefits

A. Community satisfaction
B. Pride in community and nation (pride in place and patriotism)
C. Cultural and historical awareness and appreciation
D. Reduced social alienation
E. Community and political involvement
F. Ethnic identity
G. Social bonding, cohesion, and cooperation
H. Conflict resolution and harmony
I. Greater community involvement in environmental decision making
J. Social support
K. Support democratic ideal of freedom
L. Family bonding
M. Reciprocity and sharing
N. Social mobility
0. Community integration
P. Nurturance of others
Q. Understanding and tolerance of others
R. Environmental awareness, sensitivity
S. Enhanced world view
T. Socialization and acculturation
U. Cultural identity
V. Cultural continuity
X. Prevention of social problems by at-risk youth
Y. Developmental benefits of children

Table 1 Continued	
III. Economic Benefits A. Reduced health costs B. Increased productivity C. Less work absenteeism D. Reduced on-the-job accidents E. Decreased job turnover F. International balance of payments (from tourism) G. Local and regional economic growth H. Contributions to net national economic development	**IV. Environmental Benefits** A. Maintenance of physical facilities B. Stewardship and preservation of options C. Husbandry and improved relationships with natural world D. Understanding of human dependency on the natural world E. Environmental ethic F. Public involvement in environmental issues G. Environmental protection 1. Ecosystem sustainability 2. Species diversity 3. Maintenance of natural scientific laboratories 4. Preservation of particular natural sites and areas 5. Preservation of cultural, heritage, and historic sites and areas

SOURCE: Driver (1990)

Extensive evidence exists supporting the close correlation between leisure, community development, and wellbeing (individual and community). Driver's (1990) consolidated research outlines some of these potential leisure outcomes. For the purpose of this dissertation, leisure, sport, and recreation are argued to provide substantial psychophysiological, psychological, and social and cultural benefits to individuals and communities.

Psychophysiological Health

One of the previously mentioned CIW domains of particular of interest to this dissertation was *Healthy Populations*. This domain measures various health dimension like physical health conditions, life expectancy/mortality, mental health, and functional health (CIW, 2019). The data from the healthy populations domain assesses external factors that affect the health status of people and communities. Encouraging physical activity has long been a central objective for those individuals involved in designing and implementing healthcare policy (McKinney eta al., 2016). Contemporary research continues to confirm the inverse relationship between physical activity and rates of all-cause mortality and cardiovascular death (McKinney et al., 2016). Physical activity also prevents chronic diseases such as hypertension, diabetes, stroke, and cancer, while promoting healthy cognitive and psychosocial function (McKinney et al.,

2016). Table 2 provides additional health outcomes and conditions improved by physical activity. Table 3 provides information on how physical activity improves health outcomes through specifically proposed mechanisms.

Table 2: Health outcomes and conditions improved by physical activity	**Table 3: How physical activity improves health outcomes: Proposed mechanisms**
• All-cause mortality	• Improves fitness as measured by metabolic equivalent task values
• Cardiovascular disease mortality	• Decreases systemic vascular resistance
• Cancer incidence (convincing data for breast and colon cancer)	• Decreases sympathetic activity
• Cancer mortality	• Decreases plasma renin activity
• Type 2 diabetes	• Helps maintain body weight
• Hypertension (through primary prevention and by lowering blood pressure in patients with established hypertension)	• Decreases waist circumference
• Stroke	• Reduces percentage of body fat
• Osteoporosis	• Improves insulin resistance
• Sarcopenia	• Raises HDL cholesterol levels
• Depression	• Lowers LDL cholesterol levels
• Anxiety	• Reduces systemic inflammation
• Cognitive function	• Improves heart rate variability
• Fear of falling	• Improves endothelial function
	• Improves immune function
	• Protects against gray matter loss

Source: McKinney et al., 2016

Even with the vast health benefits associated with physical activity, in Canada nearly half the population (47.8%) is physically inactive and only one-quarter (25.1%) of Canadians are moderately active (Statistics Canada, 2015). The physical inactivity of Canadians not only impacts individual Canadian health outcomes, but significantly influences community wellbeing

and the country as a whole. Katzmarzyk and Janssen (2004) suggest the economic impact of physically inactive Canadians was $5.3 billion dollars in 2001. For Canadians, physical inactivity is the most prevalent modifiable risk factor to improving wellbeing. Participating in sport, leisure, and recreation can significantly contribute to greater physical activity levels for Canadians and ultimately improved physical health (See Table 2 and 3). Participation can also result in many positive psychological and psychosocial health benefits.

Psychological and Psychosocial Benefits

Driver (1990) provides a detailed list (see Table 1) of the personal benefits inherent in leisure. Many of the benefits are psychological and help improve mental health (e.g., holistic sense of wellness, stress management, prevention of and reduced depression, anxiety, and anger, and positive changes in mood and emotion) (Driver, 1990). Caspersen, Powell, & Christenson (1985) describe mental health as being related to the promotion of wellbeing, the prevention of mental disorders, and the treatment and rehabilitation of people affected by mental disorders. Increasingly, contemporary services and resources for people with mental health problems are concentrated on the principles of hope, empowerment, choice, and self-determination (Tondora et al., 2014). Sport, leisure, and recreation create an experiential space for these principles to be mobilized (Fentona et al., 2017).

Growing evidence suggests that spending time in community recreation programs and spaces significantly improves social connections and support (Hebblethwaite & Pedlar, 2005), increases the sense of belonging (Iwasaki et al., 2014) and social inclusion (Donnelly & Coakley, 2002). Researchers Gabriel, Valenti, Naragon-Gainey, and Young (2017) refer to these spaces of social connection as *collective assembly*. They developed an instrument to measure how experiences of collective assembly affect us (Gabriel et al., 2017). Their research revealed that

collective assembly experiences contribute to "a sense of meaning, increased positive affect, an increased sense of social connection, and decreased sense of loneliness" (Gabriel et al., 2017). Sport, leisure, and recreation offers a platform for collective assembly. Table 4 provides a more detailed examination of the psychosocial health aspects associated with sport participation.

Table 4: Summary of the psychosocial health aspects associated with sport participation for children and/or adolescents

Category	Specific health aspect	Study
Psychological	Assertive	Findlay, 2008
Psychological	Caring	Zarrett, et al., 2009
Psychological	Character	Zarrett, et al., 2009
Psychological	Competence	Zarrett, et al., 2009; Donaldson, et al., 2006; Bowker, 2006
Psychological	Confidence	Zarrett, et al., 2009; Holt et al., 2011; Wiersma et al., 2008
Psychological	Emotional control, exploration,	Holt et al., 2011
Psychological	Emotional regulation	Hansen et al., 2003
Psychological	Emotional self-efficacy	Valois et al., 2008
Psychological	Emotional wellbeing	Donaldson, et al., 2006; Steptoe et al., 1996
Psychological	Fewer depressive symptoms	Boone et al., 2006; Gore et al., 2002; Sanders et al., 2000; Ferron et al., 1999
Psychological	General health perceptions	Snyder et al., 2010
Psychological	Less emotional distress	Harrison et al., 2003
Psychological	Less hopelessness	Talliaferro, 2008
Psychological	Less suicidality	Taliaferro et al., 2011; Talliaferro, 2008; Harrison, et al., 2003; Ferron et al., 1999
Psychological	Life satisfaction	Michaed et al., 2006; Valois et al., 2004
Psychological	Mental health	Snyder et al., 2010; Pyle, et al., 2003
Psychological	Positive affect	Findlay, 2008
Psychological	Psychological resilience	Bartko et al., 2003
Psychological	Self control	Findlay, 2008

Table 4 Continued

Psychological	Self-concept	Donaldson, et al., 2006;
Psychological	Self-esteem	Pedersen, et al., 2004; Erkut et al., 2002; Brettschneider, 2001; Wiersma et al., 2008 Findlay, 2008; Bowker, 2006
Psychological	Self-knowledge	Hansen et al., 2003
Psychological	Try to resolve conflicts	Howie et al., 2010
Psychological	Wellbeing	Findlay, 2008, Ferron et al., 1999
Psychosocial	Behavioural wellbeing	Donaldson et al., 2006
Psychosocial	Connectedness	Linver et al., 2009; Zarrett, et al., 2009
Psychosocial	Perceived health	Michaud et al., 2006
Psychosocial	Reduced social anxiety	Dimech et al., 2011
Psychosocial	Youth development	Linver et al., 2009
Social	Cooperation	Findlay, 2008
Social	Relationships with coaches and friends	Holt et al., 2011
Social	Show respect for teachers and neighbours	Howie et al., 2010
Social	Social functioning	Snyder et al., 2010
Social Social	Social interaction/integration; Social skills	Hansen, et al., 2003; Brettschneider, 2001; Wiersma et al., 2008; Howie et al., 2010 Holt et al., 2011
Social	Social self-concept	Marsh, 1993
Social	Social well-being	Linver et al., 2009
Social	Sportsmanship	Wiersma et al., 2008
Social	Teamwork	Wiersma et al., 2008

Source: Eime, Young, Harvey, Charity, & Payne (2013)

The social benefits that sport, leisure, and recreation facilitate directly relate to the CIW's *Community Vitality* domain. This domain examines quality of life within communities. The data helps provide information about what is happening in neighborhoods, how safe people feel, and

the engagement level in community activities (CIW, 2019). Fundamentally, community vitality measures the social norms, values, and relationships existing in communities (CIW, 2019). Social capital is often a term applied to this CIW domain. Cocklin and Alston (2003) recognize that social capital is challenging to define in an objective sense, but argue the subjective value of social capital is an essential resource for enhancing community vitality measurements. Sport, leisure, and recreation can serve as an especially effective vehicle for helping individuals engage in community activities and developing social relationships.

Social Capital Opportunities through Sport, Leisure, and Recreation

Strong social relationships and are essential to high levels of social capital in communities. Pierre Bourdieu, Ronald Burt, and James Coleman are often credited with providing some of the original systemic reviews of social capital (Smith, 2000). Bourdieu describes social capital as the resources or privileges which people have access to as a result of their group memberships (e.g., families, parties, or associations). According to Bourdieu (1985), these profits can be economic, cultural, or symbolic. In this way, social capital can be exclusive and perpetuate existing power relations.

Differential access to opportunities is dependent upon social connections (Loury, 1977). Smith (2000) suggests "the marketplace, where individuals with similar financial and human capital endowments compete for finite opportunities," (p. 511) is especially advantageous for those individuals who can summon contacts and resources. Minority groups are especially impacted by this disproportional access to information, networks, and resources (Smith, 2000). According to Burt (1992):

> Because information does not flow equally to everyone, individuals in a position to capitalize on opportunities are those who have access to personal contacts who

> can provide valuable information before the average person receives it. This allows connected individuals to exploit opportunities before they become widely known, thereby reducing the pool of likely competitors. Personal contacts may also act as referees, disseminating information about connected individuals in such a way that opportunities become available without any real effort by the connected individual. (p. 9)

Expanding social networks is vital to expanding opportunities for more individuals. Sport, leisure, and recreation presents an ideal environment for individuals to connect and network in their communities.

Marsden and Campbell (1984) discuss expanding community networks in terms of "ties": weak and strong. Marsden and Campbell (1984) define weak ties as socially, emotionally, and often physically distant. They describe weak ties as "acquaintances, friends of friends, people with whom our social lives infrequently overlap. Most importantly, they are bridges to new opportunities and resources, because they provide information that individuals could not obtain through strong ties, such as relatives and close friends" (Marsden and Campbell, 1984, p. 513). Strong ties tend to link individuals with similar attributes (e.g., race, class, ability, etc.), whereas weak ties are more apt to function as bridges between dissimilar groups offering new and different information and opportunities for mobility (Laumann 1973; Granovetter 1983).

Bridging can be challenging, as research shows people often associate with others who are similar to themselves (McPherson, Smith-Livin, & Cook, 2001). However, sport, leisure, and recreation can help facilitate opportunities to unite people who otherwise would not connect. According to Turner (1973), "leisure's temporary state of being – releases its participants from day-to-day structural necessities and oligatoriness" (p. 217) by allowing them to live in the

moment, embrace the shared experience, and disregard previously regarded social assumptions. In this way, Glover (2014) suggests leisure can be a focal point bridging racial and ethnic groups (Shinew, Glover, & Parry, 2014), culture (Moscardo, 2012), and able and non-able bodied individuals (Devine & Parr, 2008), among other groups. Leisure's "temporary state of being" can encourage acceptance rather than resistance to ways of being and living that may be different from our own personal experiences.

Sport, leisure, and recreation can also connect individuals vertically. Szreter and Woolcock (2004) define linking social capital as "norms of respect and networks of trusting relationships between people who are interacting across explicit, formal and institutionalized power or authority gradients in society" (p. 655). Arcodia and Whitford (2007) found festival administrators working directly with local businesses and the public in preparation for festivals, raised their awareness for community needs and assets, created social links between previously unrelated groups, and encouraged better and more consistent interaction between community organizations. These vertical connections can be especially valuable in strengthening social capital, especially for people who would not normally have access to certain institutional resources.

The social capital opportunities associated with sport, leisure, and recreation contribute to a variety of factors influencing higher community vitality. The voluntary sector and the public sector used to be the main providers of these sport, leisure, and recreation opportunities. However, in the last several years the relevance of the public and voluntary sport sectors has declined (Laine, 2017). The number of services offered in the public sector has been reduced, and the nature of volunteering has evolved to represent more market-based features (Laine, 2017). Budget restrictions and bureaucratic red tape have severely limited the implementation of

public sport, leisure, and recreation programs in communities (Taylor, 1996). In order to empower individuals and communities through sport, leisure, and recreation, we must now look to the private sport sector.

Private Sport Sector

Contemporary sport is organized and implemented around the aforementioned public, voluntary, and private sectors (Laine & Vehmas, 2017). Most research exists around public and voluntary sport sectors, where sport has traditionally been offered through government involvement or non-profit clubs (Laine & Vehmas, 2017). The private sport sector has not been explored in the same degree as the public and voluntary sectors. Much of this can be attributed to the difficulty in defining such a multidimensional and complex field (Laine & Vehmasa, 2017). Laine and Vehams (2017) describe the private sport sector as comprising "all profit making, commercial companies and other organizations and events that produce and sell sport goods and services with the aim of making monetary profit" (p. 1). The sale of sporting goods makes up a large proportion of private sector sports (Laine & Vehmasb, 2017). Other noteworthy business fields include professional sporting teams operating as companies, sport facilities, and fitness facilities. Sport and recreation education and sport related tourism (e.g., golf and ski resorts) also comprise important aspects of the profit-making sports sector (Laine & Vehmasb, 2017).

Sport-related products and services have been steadily increasing for many years. This increase in demand has been met by the steady decrease of public and voluntary sector sport service supply. The private sport sector represents a growing percentage of national economies and will be an important resource for communities as the private sport sector's influence and value continues to expand. The private sport sector can be a valuable vehicle in promoting

community wellbeing through the distributive/symbolic power inherent in sport and the ability of companies to leverage financial resources (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007).

The private sport sector can offer a range of community needs without subsidizing public facilities and services, thus offsetting the overburdened public and voluntary sport sectors (Theeboom, Haudenhuyse, De Knop, 2010). This investment in community welfare can be advantageous to private sport businesses as well. Research shows consumers are increasingly interested in the values and ethics of businesses. Private sport companies invested in social justice, ecologically responsible business practices, fair pay policies, etc. have stronger consumer evaluations. These positive consumer appraisals result in better brand reputations and patronage for companies and/or organizations (Walker & Kent, 2009). In order to achieve this momentum of desirability for both communities and private sport companies alike, a stakeholder perspective must be employed by businesses.

Stakeholder Theory Perspective

The last 30 years has seen a growing interest from researchers and practitioners in studying the complexities of modern business theories and models (Parmar et al., 2010). As a result, stakeholder theory has emerged as a new theoretical framework seeking to improve business ethics and reduce managerial problems (Parmar et al., 2010). Augmenting attention to business ethics can be attributed to two major events which have drastically contributed to the public's deteriorating trust in business as an institution. First, early twenty-first century scandals like Enron, WorldCom, and Tyco reinforced the belief that companies and corporate executives care little for integrity in their quest of maximum profit (Parmar et al., 2010). Second, the global financial crisis that occurred in 2008 resulted in the convergence of negative factors influencing the housing market and secondary financial markets. The "corporate welfare" allocated by

governments again reinforced the separation of Main Street from Wall Street (Parmar et al., 2010).

Although these two crises of corporate conviction are different, they do also reveal two strong commonalities. Both crises illustrate that managerial actions have the potential to affect a broad range of people all over the world (Clement, 2005). Additionally, they emphasize that the pursuit of corporate objectives can be disrupted by the actions of unexpected groups and individuals (Parmar et al., 2010). These challenges, motivated by social change and interconnectedness, helped stakeholder theory evolve. Stakeholder theory presents a framework for academics and practitioners to "rebuild, redefine, and respirit" the traditional ways of conceptualizing the responsibilities of the firm (Parmar et al., 2010).

Stakeholder theory challenges previous held beliefs about firm responsibilities and places greater importance on managerial values and decision-making (Freeman, 2001). The word "stakeholder" first appeared in an internal memorandum at the Stanford Research Institute in 1963 (Freeman, 2010). The term was intended to challenge the notion that stockholders are the only group to whom management owes consideration (Freeman et al., 2010). Stakeholder theory replaces the notion that managers are only responsive to stockholders with the belief that managers bear a fiduciary responsibility to all stakeholders (Freeman, 2001). In this theory, stakeholders are those groups who have a stake or claim in the firm. Edward Freeman (2001) proposes stakeholders include suppliers, customers, employees, stockholders, the local community, and management in its role as agent for these groups. Freeman's (2001) Stakeholder Model of Corporation is depicted in Figure 3:

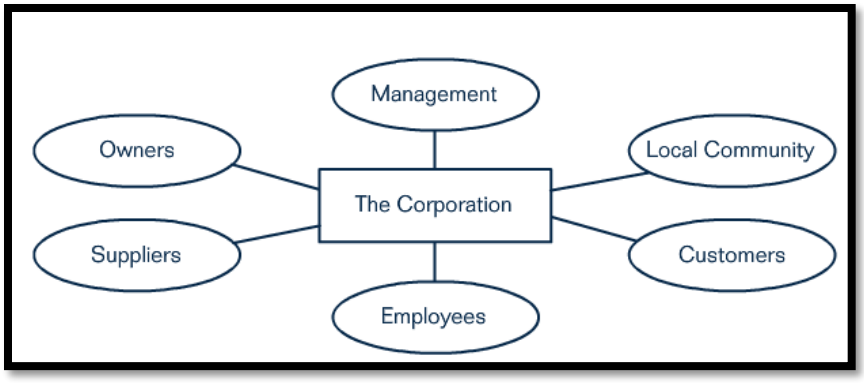


Figure 3

Jones and Wicks (1999) provide four principles for stakeholder theory: "(a) A focal organization has relationships with many stakeholders; (b) stakeholder theory concerns itself with the nature (process and outcome) of the relationship between the focal organization and its stakeholders; (c) the interests of *all* stakeholders have intrinsic value, and no set of interests is assumed to dominate the others; and (d) the focus of the theory is on managerial decision making" (p. 207). Through these guiding principles, a more conscious capitalism can be pursued.

Prior to stakeholder theory, much of the management vocabulary had been previously developed under the influence of Max Weber's writing on bureaucracies. Weberian bureaucratic theory assumes organizations are relatively stable environments and should be governed with rational authority (Parmar et al., 2010). Moreover, little attention since Barnard (1938) had been given to investigating the ethical aspects of business or management. Not until the 1980s and 1990s did scholars introduce new vocabulary and pursue management theories that presented more certainty, prediction, and behavioral control (Freeman et al., 2010). Since this time, stakeholder theory has been widely applied in a variety of fields, including law, healthcare, public administration, environmental policy, and ethics (Freeman et al., 2010).

Regardless of discipline, stakeholder theorists study the multifaceted relationships between a focal organization and its many stakeholders. Research in stakeholder theory can

focus on three different parts of the organization – stakeholder relationship: (1) the focal organization itself, (2) the stakeholders, and (3) the relationship between the focal organization and its stakeholders (Parent, 2008). According to Donaldson and Preston (1995), stakeholder theorists have primarily used three approaches in their research: a descriptive/empirical approach, an instrumental approach, and a normative approach. The descriptive/empirical approach is adopted when describing the organization's nature and of board members' thinking related to stakeholder interests (Parent, 2008). The instrumental approach is used when researchers attempt to identify connections (or lack thereof) between stakeholder management and the focal organization's desired purposes (traditional financial in nature). Lastly, the normative approach is taken when researchers seek to uncover the moral/philosophical guidelines for organizational operations and management (Parent, 2008).

Freeman (1984) suggests stakeholder theorists evaluate three central and interconnected problems relating to business. These problems are more substantially detailed in Figure 4:

The problem of value creation and trade:	In a rapidly changing and global business context, how is value created and traded?
The problem of the ethics of capitalism:	What are the connections between capitalism and ethics?
The problem of managerial mindset:	How should managers think about management to: (1) Better create value, and (2) Explicitly connect business and ethics?

Figure 4

Freeman (1984) proposes that by evaluating the relationships between a business and the groups and individuals who can affect or are affected by it as a unit of analysis, then businesses will be able to more effectively address these three problems. To understand a business is to know how

stakeholder relationships work and change over time (Freeman, 1984). It is about how customers, suppliers, employees, financiers (e.g., stockholders, bondholders, banks, etc.), communities, and managers interact to jointly create and trade value (Freeman, 1984). It is the responsibility of the executive team to manage these collaborative relationships in order to create as much value as possible for all stakeholders (Harrison, Bosse, & Phillips, 2010). Amponsah-Tawiah & Mensa (2015) present some of diverse interests for stakeholders in Figure 5.

Stakeholder	Examples of interests
Shareholders	Profit and performance
Governments	Taxes and legislation
Senior Management Staff	Performance targets
Non-Managerial Staff	Rates of pay, job security,
Trade Unions	Working condition and minimum wage
Customers	Value, quality and customer care
Creditors	Credit score, liquidity and business ethics
Suppliers/Contractors	Liquidity and credit score
Local Community	Employment, involvement, health and environment issues
Non-Governmental Organisations	Human rights and environment issues

Figure 5

When stakeholder interests do conflict, executives must reframe problems with solutions that address the needs of the various stakeholders. If tradeoffs have to be made, then executives must determine what method will produce the most equitable outcomes for the most stakeholders (Freeman, Harrison, & Wicks, 2007).

Rebuilding, Redefining, and Respiriting the Role of the Firm

Effective stakeholder management is a moral and monetary endeavor for businesses. It concerns questions of values, choice, and potential harms and benefits for large groups and individuals (Phillips, 2003). Human connection and relationship building are central pillars in stakeholder theory. Business leaders who focus their attention on the creation and preservation of stakeholder relationships will be better equipped to create value and avoid moral failures (Post,

Preston, & Sachs, 2002). Increasingly, consumers are concerned with the values and ethics of businesses (Walker & Kent, 2009). To prosper in the modern capitalist system, companies will need to reevaluate their business principles. Several companies have joined forces to reflect upon their purpose, privilege, and responsibilities. Certified B Corporations are transforming the business landscape and prioritizing community wellbeing.

Certified B Corporations (B Corps) are "businesses that meet the highest standards of verified social and environmental performance, public transparency, and legal accountability to balance profit and purpose. B Corps are accelerating a global culture shift to redefine success in business and build a more inclusive and sustainable economy" (Certified B Corporation [B Coprs], 2020). The majority of the 2,500 plus B Corps are small businesses. However, many multinational corporations are gradually understanding their potential global impact (B Corps, 2020). As a collective, B Corps (2020) believe:

> Society's most challenging problems cannot be solved by government and nonprofits alone. The B Corp community works toward reduced inequality, lower levels of poverty, a healthier environment, stronger communities, and the creation of more high quality jobs with dignity and purpose. By harnessing the power of business, B Corps use profits and growth as a means to a greater end: positive impact for their employees, communities, and the environment.

More now than ever, companies are embracing this stakeholder perspective in business. Companies are beginning to understand that their financial privilege and social platform can and must make them a catalyst for good in communities.

Nearly 200 of the chief executives in the United States tried to redefine the role of business in society this past year and better understand how their companies are perceived by an

increasingly skeptical public (Gelles & Yaffe-Bellany, 2019). The Business Roundtable (2019) issued a statement on the purpose of a corporation:

> Companies should no longer advance only the interests of shareholders. Instead, they must also invest in their employees, protect the environment and deal fairly and ethically with their suppliers. While each of our individual companies serves its own corporate purpose, we share a fundamental commitment to all of our stakeholders. We commit to deliver value to all of them, for the future success of our companies, our communities and our country.

Although the roundtable did provide great soundbites, they did not offer a framework to enact these proposals. Business models operating through a stakeholder perspective would allow companies to actively work to solve problems rather than simply speak to them.

Critiques of stakeholder theory

Critics argue stakeholder theory really is not a "theory" because theories are connected sets of testable propositions. Others suggest too much ambiguity exists in the definition of the central term to ever warrant the status of theory. While some surmise that stakeholder theory exists simply as an alternative "theory of the firm" to the shareholder theory of the firm (Parmar et al., 2010). Stakeholder theory is also often criticized for creating an environment for managerial opportunism, unrealistic resource distribution, requiring the modification of existing legalities, being intertwined with socialism, and serving as an incomplete moral doctrine (Parmar et al., 2010).

These criticisms of stakeholder theory also serve as strengths. The ambiguity inherent in stakeholder theory offers a theoretical platform that encourages collaborative ideas and theories to mutually coexist (Parmar et al., 2010). At its core, stakeholder theory is about companies

embodying an entrepreneurial spirit. Smith (2013) defines this entrepreneurial spirit as "an attitude and approach to thinking that actively seeks out change, rather than waiting to adapt to change. It's a mindset that embraces critical questioning, innovation, service and continuous improvement." Stakeholder theory allows companies to be inventive, progressive, and more inclusive. It demands managers be creative, optimistic, and empower all stakeholders. Most importantly, stakeholder theory requires service. Companies serve various stakeholders, and in doing so, must care as much about people as they do about profit. In this way, stakeholder theory helps businesses embrace capitalism as a powerful catalyst for good in society. This is exactly the type of thinking we need to be doing and practicing to meaningfully transform our communities.

Research Context

The data for this dissertation was collected in the Glebe. The Glebe is a community in Ottawa, Ontario, Canada. It is located just south of Ottawa's downtown area in the Capital Ward (Glebe Community Association, 2016). The southeast end of the Glebe is adjacent to the Rideau Canal. As of 2016, the area's population was 11,559 (Glebe Community Association, 2016). The Glebe is mostly populated by families, and accordingly its social services are oriented towards family needs (Glebe Community Association, 2016). In Ottawa, the Glebe is well-known for being a dynamic community with many locally-owned businesses. The Glebe is frequently recognized for their strong community association invested in various social issues. The Glebe community centre serves as a central hub for much of the Glebe's collective activism (Glebe Community Association, 2016).

The Glebe is home to Lansdowne Park. Lansdowne served as the focal point for this dissertation. Lansdowne has been a principal sports, leisure, and recreation venue in Ottawa for

several years. In 1875, the first official fair occurred on the grounds when the City of Ottawa hosted the *thirteenth annual exhibition* of the Provincial Agriculture and Arts Association (Hofley, 2014). The early 1900s marked the beginning of sport at Lansdowne when the Ottawa Football Club first leased the land. Lansdowne even served as a training ground for Canadian troops being deployed overseas during the First World War (Hofley, 2014).

Lansdowne offered a space for the community to congregate throughout the 1950s and 1960s. The venue hosted major sporting events and political conventions for the City of Ottawa (Hofley, 2014). Lansdowne's ability to host large-scale sporting events continued throughout the early 2000s. Lansdowne served as a home for Canadian professional football, while also hosting Canadian and world championships in curling, figure skating, and ice hockey. Many of these activities took place in the then Frank Clair Stadium and Ottawa Civic Centre. In September 2007, the City of Ottawa discovered significant damage to Frank Clair Stadium. As a result, the City of Ottawa decided to embark upon a review of the entirety of Lansdowne Park (CBC Sports, 2010).

During this same time period, a group of Ottawa businesses, the Ottawa Sports and Entertainment Group (OSEG), was awarded a new Canadian Football League (CFL) franchise, pending a viable stadium to play games (CBC Sports, 2010). OSEG proposed a public-private partnership (PPP) with the City of Ottawa to renovate Frank Clair Stadium and redevelop all of Lansdowne Park. In the proposal, the revamped Lansdowne would be include residential and commercial uses to fund the rebuild and contribute to the continued annual maintenance (Stevenson, 2008). Ultimately, the Ottawa City Council decided to terminate its initial review of Lansdowne and enter into an agreement with the OSEG group (Rupert, 2009).

This decision was met with great reservations from Glebe community residents. Much of this displeasure was around the process, not necessarily the plan to redevelop the land (Mueller, 2010). Two major legal challenges were made with the Ontario Municipal Board (Reevely & Cockburn, 2011) and Ontario Superior Court (Friends of Lansdowne Inc. v. Ottawa (City), 2012). In both cases, the oppositional arguments were rejected. As a result, Lansdowne exists today as a 40-acre urban park with exhibition and entertainment facilities (Aberdeen Pavilion and the Horticulture Building to note), basketball courts, a skate park, and water features (Lansdowne Park Redevelopment, 2010). Lansdowne encompasses TD Place Stadium and Arena, where Ottawa's CFL football team, the Ottawa Redblacks, and Ontario Hockey League (OHL) team, the Ottawa 67's, each play their home games (Lansdowne Park Redevelopment, 2010). Lansdowne also offers some chain retail and restaurants.

It is also important to note that Lansdowne Park is located on Indigenous land. The city of Ottawa is on unceded Algonquin territory (Tomiak, 2016). As Tomak (2016) suggests, "To ignore the historical production and contemporary contestations related to "Ottawa" is to entrench settler colonial power and existing injustices in and of the city—and it forecloses possibilities for different, decolonizing politics" (p. 11). To truly examine Lansdowne and community wellbeing, these larger community truths must first be recognized.

Theoretical Framework

Stakeholder theory and locality development provided the most relevant theoretical frameworks to assess the relationship between community wellbeing and the private sport sector. As previously mentioned, stakeholder theory is often employed in collaboration with other theoretical frameworks (Parmar et al., 2010). Thus, combining stakeholder theory and locality

development was appropriate. Significant evidence exists for the application of stakeholder theory in business management and the coinciding development of communities (Stoney & Winstanley, 2001; Johnson & Scholes, 1999; Clarkson, 1995; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984). Further, locality development's emphasis on collaborative relationships between communities and governments, bureaucracies, businesses, etc. (Rothman, 1995) is relevant to the joint ventures and interests promoted in stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984). Although originating in different fields (stakeholder theory in business and locality development in community development), the overarching principles of these two theoretical frameworks created the most applicable comprehensive approach for this study.

Stakeholder Theory

Stakeholder theory enabled the consideration of an alternative vehicle for community development through the private sport sector. When properly instituted, stakeholder theory is community driven and participatory (Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2018). Stakeholder theory requires the rights and privileges of every stakeholder (See Figure 3) are acknowledged and valued, regardless of the level of power or authority (Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2018). The multidimensional perspectives inherent in stakeholder theory allowed for the exploration of community perceptions of Lansdowne Park. Specifically, to evaluate the degree to which community members believed they were regarded as valued stakeholders of Lansdowne, as well as community perceptions surrounding Lansdowne's fiduciary responsibility to community wellbeing.

This accountability to community is unique to stakeholder theory. Friedman (1970) argues that decision-making should only involve shareholders, and that the primary social responsibility of corporations is to increase its profit margins for its shareholders (Friedman,

1970). Freeman's (1984) work in the 1980s with stakeholder theory challenged this notion of businesses being solely responsible to shareholder interests. Stakeholder theory values responsibility over profitability. Consequentially, the development of communities is considered an important aspect of decision-making (Freeman, 1984). Table 5 provides a more detailed examination of the differences between stakeholder responsibility and shareholder profitability.

TABLE 5: Difference between responsibility (stakeholder) and profitability (shareholder)

Indicators	***Stakeholder value perspective***	***Shareholder values perspective***
Emphasis on	Responsibility over profitability	Profitability over responsibility
Organisational purpose	To serve all parties involved	To serve owners
Measure of success	Satisfaction among stakeholders	Share price and dividends (shareholder value)
Organisations seen as	Joint ventures	Instruments
Major difficulty	Balancing interests of various stakeholders	Getting agent to pursue principal's interest
Stakeholder management	Ends and means	Means
Corporate governance through	Stakeholder representation	Independent outsiders directors with shares
Society best served by	Pursuing joint-interest (economic symbiosis)	Pursuing self-interest (economic efficiency)
Social responsibility	Both individual and organisational	Individual and not organisational driven

Source: Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2018

Values, ethics, and social responsibility are important aspects of stakeholder theory, and help businesses maintain important momentum in the twenty-first century business landscape (Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2018). Stakeholder theory supports value creation in businesses through their engagement and development of strong relationships with a wide variety of stakeholders (Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2018). Most pertinent to this study was the relationship businesses have with communities. While shareholders exclude community interests and focus solely on profit, stakeholder theorists suggest strong community relationships are essential to sustained success and profitability (Freeman, 1984). Success in stakeholder theory is measured by the satisfaction

among stakeholders, not simply shareholder value (Freeman, 1984). Determining to what extent community members feel their needs, desires, and interests are considered by Lansdowne was an important focus of this study.

Stakeholder theory also encourages corporate governance through stakeholder representation. Evaluating community perceptions concerning their stakeholder voice and representation in Lansdowne decision-making were central concentrations of this dissertation. This pursuit of representation, collaboration, and joint-interests are key tenets in stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984). These cooperative principles are also key components of locality development. While stakeholder theory presented a theoretical framework to examine the private sport sector, locality development provided a theoretical framework to explore community wellbeing.

Locality Development

Locality development is a process-oriented model that engages a wide range of individuals and groups from all areas of the community (Rothman & Tropman, 1987). Community members are seen as having a wealth of knowledge about their community and are considered valuable participants in the community development process (Rothman & Tropman, 1987). Locality development incorporates community settings such as civic engagement groups (e.g., neighborhood associations, leisure clubs, coalitions, etc.) and social action organizations (Maton, 2008). Maton (2008) asserts community associations and clubs have the potential to empower local residents and facilitate change by focusing on capacity building. Cultivating individual competencies is an integral component of locality development and a significant influencing factor in community wellbeing.

This dissertation examines how participating in sport, leisure, and recreation can positively impact individual and community wellbeing. According to Lawson (2005), community participation is an important influencing factor in individual and community wellbeing. Lawson (2005) states community participation can help individuals and groups "(1) gain a critical understanding of themselves and their environments, (2) develop collective identities and social solidarity, (3) gain resources and power, enabling them to achieve individual and collective goals, (4) achieve greater equity, and (5) enhance individual and collective capacities to sustain their achievements" (p. 147). Engaging local participation in community affairs is a primary objective of locality development (Rothman & Tropman, 1987). Locality development presented a framework to evaluate how sport, leisure, and recreation can serve as a vehicle to increase capacity, community participation and integration, and mutual-aid (Rothman & Tropman, 1987).

The broad participation encouraged in locality development contributes to change strategies being rooted in consensus and communication. Change occurs with the involvement of all community members (Rothman & Tropman, 1987). Opportunities for equal participation should be made for marginalized populations so their needs and concerns are considered in the decision-making process. Similar to stakeholder theory, inclusivity and partnerships are important focal points of locality development.

Decisions should involve community leaders and organizations, interagency members, politicians, and other professionals in the community (Rothman & Tropman, 1987). This joint decision-making venture can be used to strengthen various stakeholder relationships. Nurturing strong relationships among various community stakeholders is crucial. A condition of limited resources is implied in locality development, and effort is focused on increasing and expanding

these resources for a more mutually collective benefit (Rothman, 1995). Encouraging key stakeholders with substantial power and prestige to voluntarily reallocate limited resources is a principal objective of locality development (Rothman, 1995). Cultivating and sustaining strong stakeholder relationships is vital to this exchange. This particular aspect of locality development is especially applicable this study. Examining community perceptions of Lansdowne's resource distribution and how this sharing (or lack thereof) influences community wellbeing was a central research goal.

Wilkinson and Quarter (1995) suggest that effective community development is comprised of three key characteristics: (1) community consciousness, (2) strategies of empowerment, and (3) the establishment of supportive structures. Locality development and stakeholder theory combined to produce a comprehensive theoretical framework addressing each of these essential community development components. Increasing community consciousness is a fundamental principle of locality development, establishing supportive structures is intrinsic to stakeholder theory, and finally strategies for empowerment is integral to both frameworks. The nexus of locality development and stakeholder theory provided the philosophical bedrocks for this dissertation.

Chapter 3: Methodology

In this chapter the qualitative methodology employed in this study, interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) will be presented. Specifically, this chapter presents an overview of the qualitative research, participants, data collection, construction of the semi-structured interview guide, and data analysis. This chapter concludes with a brief discussion of the evaluative criteria and ethical considerations relevant to this dissertation.

Qualitative Methodology

Creswell (1998) describes qualitative research as having an interest in meaning and how people make sense of and experience the world. Employing a qualitative design was most applicable to answering this study's research questions related to community perceptions of the private sport sector's impact upon community wellbeing. Willig (2001) differentiates qualitative research and inquiry through "Big Q" or "little q" qualitative methods, a distinction first proposed by Kidder and Fine (1987). According to Willig (2001), Big Q methods are "concerned with the exploration of lived experience and participant-defined meanings" (p. 11). Conversely, Willig (2001) asserts little q methods begins with predetermined categories for coding and the analysis of data. Little q methods tend to concentrate on cause-effect relationships, rather than the more fluid and inductive nature of Big Q methods (Willig, 2001).

Within the qualitative research community, opinions vary whether or not little q methods can truly be considered qualitative research. Willig (2001) herself states that little q "is not compatible with the spirit of qualitative methodology" (p. 11). Ultimately, both the worldview of the researcher and objectives of the study aligned closer with Big Q methods. Employing Big Q methods allowed this study to focus on acquiring a deeper understanding of the experiences of participants, rather than the commonly associated prediction and control aspects of little q

methods. Big Q methods also closely relate to the foundational elements of this study's methodology, interpretive phenomenological analysis (IPA).

Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis

Jonathan Smith's (1996) interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) is a contemporary form of phenomenology. Since its inception, IPA has produced hundreds of studies across various fields, especially psychology (Smith, 2010). Researchers employing IPA investigate how individuals make sense of their personal and social world, while also exploring the meanings certain experiences or events hold for participants (Smith & Osborn, 2003). Exploring subjective meanings and experiences were key aspects of this study. A primary research objective was to evaluate community perceptions of the private sport sector's impact upon community wellbeing. Unravelling participants' meanings for wellbeing (individual and community) and lived experiences at Lansdowne was best supported by IPA. Using IPA in the field of community development is not uncommon. Community psychologists have frequently employed IPA to assess how various groups construct identity, what meaning they attribute to various social roles in the community, and how they perceive phenomena (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014).

Pietkiewicz and Smith (2014) suggest IPA is rooted in the work of Edmund Husserl's transcendental phenomenology and Martin Heidegger's hermeneutic phenomenology. The integration of the two traditional phenomenological research classifications results in a "method which is descriptive because it is concerned with how things appear and letting things speak for themselves, and interpretative because it recognizes there is no such thing as an uninterpreted phenomenon" (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014, p. 8). Gill (2014) offers an aggregate summary of IPA and traditional phenomenological approaches with the subsequent Table 6:

Table 6: A Typology of Phenomenological Methodologies

	Phenomenology				
	Descriptive phenomenology (Husserlian)			Interpretive phenomenology (Heideggerian)	
	Sanders's phenomenology	**Giorgi's descriptive phenomenological method**	**van Manen's hermeneutic phenomenology**	**Benner's interpretive phenomenology**	**Smith's interpretative phenomenological analysis**
Disciplinary origin	Organization studies	Psychology	Pedagogy	Nursing	Psychology
Methodology as	Technique	Scientific method	Poetry	Practice	Craft
Aims	To make explicit the implicit structure (or essences) and meaning of human experiences	To establish the essence of a particular phenomenon	To transform lived experience into a textual expression of its essence	To articulate practical, everyday understandings and knowledge	To explore in detail how participants are making sense of their personal and social world
Participants (sampling)	3-6	At least 3	*Unspecified*	Until new informants reveal no new findings	1 or more
Key concepts	• Bracketing (*epoché*) • Eidetic reduction • Nomematic/noetic correlates	• Bracketing (*epoché*) • Eidetic reduction • Imaginative variation • Meaning units	• Depthful writing • Orientation • Thoughtfulness	• The background • Exemplars • Interpretive teams • Paradigm cases	• Double hermeneutic • Idiographic • Inductive
Applications in organization studies	Kram and Isabella (1985)	McClure and Brown (2008)	Gibson (2004)	Yakhlef and Essén (2012)	Murtagh, Lopes, and Lyons (2011)

Source: Gill (2014)

IPA is frequently defined as double hermeneutic or dual interpretation (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014). In this double hermeneutic process researchers first try to understand what an experience is like from the participant's perspective, and then attempt to decode that meaning to make sense of the participant's meaning making (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014). Thus, IPA studies incorporate two types of interpretation. This separates IPA from other traditional phenomenological approaches.

Another important distinction between IPA and other traditional phenomenological approaches is its idiographic nature (Gill, 2014). Idiography focuses the researcher's attention on the specific rather than the universal (Smith, Harré, & Van Langenhove, 1995). Pietkiewicz and Smith (2014) refer to idiography as "an in-depth analysis of single cases and examining individual perspectives of study participants in their unique contexts" (p. 8). Fundamental to the idiographic approach is the thorough evaluation of every single case prior to the construction of any general statements (Pietkiewicz and Smith, 2014). This differs from traditional phenomenological approaches where concurrent analysis of the phenomena occurs (Finlay,

2011). This study was concerned with giving value to each participant's account. According to Miller and Milton (2016), participants may experience components of the phenomenon of interest similarly, but with drastically divergent interpretations the phenomena. Generally, participants experienced Lansdowne in similar ways. However, the interpretations of these lived experiences were widely diverse. Adopting a case-by-case analysis was essential to honoring the individual voices of participants (Miller & Bario-Milton, 2016).

Idiography not only differentiates IPA from other traditional phenomenological approaches, but also serves as a distinguishing factor between Smith's (1996) "interpretive" phenomenological analysis and Benner's (1985) "interpretive" phenomenology (See Table 6). Although both phenomenologies have evolved from Heidegger's hermeneutic phenomenology, Smith's (1996) idiographic emphasis is an important point of a distinction (Gill, 2014). Smith (1996) and Benner (1985) further diverge in regards to data collection and analysis. Unlike the small numbers of participants typically encouraged in phenomenological methodologies, Benner (1994) sometimes employs "interpretative teams" to collect data from up to 100 participants. This is often achieved through focus groups to create ''a natural conversational setting for storytelling" (Tanner, Benner, Chesla, & Gordon, 1993, p. 274). Benner (1994) suggests that an adequate sample size is achieved when interpretations are clear and no new findings are revealed.

Smith's (1996) IPA exists in stark contrast to the qualitative methods utilized in Benner's (1985) interpretive phenomenology. IPA studies have been published with participants ranging from one to fifteen participants. Larger sample sizes are possible but far less common (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014). IPA research focuses on depth over breath. Small samples allow for a detailed and comprehensive analysis. The smaller sample size allows the researcher to

consider connections between different aspects of the participant's account, while also examining similarities and differences between all participants (Smith, 2004). This study followed the recommended smaller sample size in IPA. The smaller sample size allowed rich and meaningful data to be produced.

Smith (1996) also differs from Benner (1985) in his preference for semi-structured interviews (Gill, 2014). According to Pietkiewicz and Smith (2014), semi-structured interviews produce rich data from the in-depth conversations with participants, while also fulfilling the fundamental idiographic commitments of IPA. In order to remain consistent with idiographic principles, this dissertation employed semi-structured interviews. The data from these interviews was then examined through first-order and second-order IPA analysis. This double hermeneutic process allowed this study to prioritize participant meanings and experiences, while also considering the historical, contextual, and political forces that impact their realities (Smith, Flowers, and Larkin, 2009).

Participants. Participants included fifteen people living in Ottawa, Ontario, fourteen of which resided in the Glebe community. As aforementioned, there is no "correct" or "required" number of participants in IPA research because emphasis is placed on detailed exploration and analysis for each case. However, fifteen participants is compatible with IPA norms (Pietkiewicz and Smith, 2014). Moreover, Guest et al. (2006) suggest when the "aim is to understand common perceptions and experiences among a group of relatively homogeneous individuals, twelve interviews should suffice" (p. 79). Guest et al. (2006) argue that at this point saturation generally occurs. The research of Guest at al. (2006) surrounding data saturation and variability found that after the analysis of twelve interviews new themes emerged infrequently and variability of code frequency appears to be relatively stable by the twelfth interview as well. This dissertation

supports the research of Guest at al. (2006). Rich and detailed qualitative data was collected from the fifteen participants. At this point, saturation of data occurred through redundant themes and no new information being discovered.

The fifteen participants were comprised of nine women and six men. Eleven participants were raised in Ottawa, while four participants were transplants from other Canadian cities (e.g., Toronto and Kingston). All of the participants were employed or retired. Many participants worked (or previously worked) for the federal government. Other participants worked for Canada Post, in financial consulting, as an optometrist, a curator, and one participant was a yoga instructor. All of the participants regarded themselves as economically stable. Participant ages ranged from late 30s to early 70s. Most participants were married with children. Most participants did not specifically disclose their sexuality. All but one participant was white. All participants were able-bodied. Some of the participants were bilingual but most were Anglophone. All participants described themselves as being physically active and invested in community wellbeing. The participant group was largely homogenous, which is common in IPA research (Pietkiewicz and Smith, 2014). Despite its relevance in IPA research, the homogenous sample was certainly a limitation to the study and will be subsequently discussed in Chapter 5.

Participants were recruited from the Glebe Community Centre and Glebe Report (Glebe community newspaper). A recruitment poster (See Appendix C) was displayed in the Glebe Community Centre. A recruitment text seeking participation in an hour-long interview was also published in the Glebe Report (See Appendix D for this recruitment notice). This tentative 60-minute timeframe coincides with the duration of most IPA interviews (Pietkiewicz and Smith, 2014). Participants could call or email to schedule a time and place for the interview. Following

the initial contact, participants were emailed some additional interview information to ensure they felt comfortable with the interview topic and process.

Data Collection. Each participant was interviewed once in a long interview format (McCracken, 1988). The long interview format allowed for an in-depth exploration of participants' feelings, meanings, and experiences. It also required an important review of the researcher's own values, perceptions, and potential biases (McCracken, 1988). This necessary exercise of reflexivity will be further detailed when discussing the evaluative criteria and ethical considerations for this study.

The interviews occurred at an Ottawa Public Library or at a coffee shop in the Glebe community. Interviews ranged from 45 minutes at the shortest to 90 minutes at the longest. The semi-structured interview associated with IPA (Pietkiewicz and Smith, 2014) allowed flexibility in questioning and the inductive evaluation of participants. In this way, the interview questions (See Appendix A) served as more of an exploratory guide than prescriptive checklist. The questions helped direct the interview and give flow to the conversation. At the onset of the interview participants were asked to provide some biographical context. Participants were then provided with a verbal outline of major discussion topics so they were aware of the general evolution of the interview.

All participants consented to the interview being recorded with a digital voice recorder. The recordings were then uploaded to the associated software called Sound Organizer. This software was located on a password protected computer. The recordings were easily reviewed with the Sound Organizer software. Interviews were transcribed verbatim. Due to the length of interviews and number of participants, the transcribing was outsourced to a company

specializing in transcription called Rev. Although this may be perceived as a limitation to the study, it actually presented more time for the inductive analysis.

Construction of Interview Guide. In accordance with IPA framework, the selected research questions were open, exploratory, and directed primarily at how participants make sense of particular experiences (Larkin & Thompson, 2011). IPA questions frequently focus on examining sensory perceptions, mental phenomena (thoughts, memories, relations, etc.), and individual interpretations (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014). After introductions and a short time allocated to rapport building, the interview shifted to a focused discussion on individual interpretations of wellbeing (individual and community), community development, and the private sport sector, particularly Lansdowne Park. Some of these questions included: How does sport, leisure, and recreation impact your wellbeing – quality of life? What does community wellbeing mean to you? What do you think are some of the most important needs of the community? In what ways do you believe the private sport sector can serve as a vehicle for community development? Do you feel like a valued stakeholder in Lansdowne Park? These open and expansive questions allowed the participants to speak at length about each topic.

Interview questions were generated after an extensive review of literature. This examination included a review of existing questionnaires within community wellbeing research. A pilot test helped to determine whether the intended questions would be comprehensible to participants and resulted in the kinds of responses desired in this study. One female in her late 20s was recruited for the pilot test. Although the woman was not a resident of the Glebe, she was familiar with the area and provided the best pilot participant at the time. This pilot test helped to determine the necessary revisions of research questions. Although most questions were understood, the pilot study helped identify a few questions that did require rephrasing for

additional clarity. After this editing process, the interview questions were finalized and the exploratory guide complete.

Data Analysis. As is expected in IPA, the data was analyzed in two phases (Findlay, 2011). The initial phase of IPA analysis, referred to as first-order analysis, is to develop a descriptive account of the phenomena from the perspective of the participants (Larkin, Watts, & Clifton, 2006). This phase concentrates on understanding what matters to the participants (Larkin & Thompson, 2011). In second-order analysis, researchers progress from description toward interpretation, exploring the meaning participants give to aspects of their commentary (Larkin & Thompson, 2011). In this second phase, researchers consider the initial description within societal, cultural, and theoretical frameworks (Miller & Bario-Minton, 2014). It is in this stage of IPA analysis that researchers conduct the double hermeneutic process, attempting to interpret the participants' meanings and experiences (Smith et al., 2009).

A database was created on the computer-based qualitative analysis program NVivo to organize and document the qualitative data collected (Yin, 2009). The data analysis followed Smith and Osborn's (2003) step-by-step IPA process. This systematic method helped organize the analysis of several lengthy transcripts. Smith and Osborn's (2003) IPA framework provided five general steps that were easily applied. The below flowchart depicts the five steps outlined by Smith and Osborn (2003) for IPA data analysis.

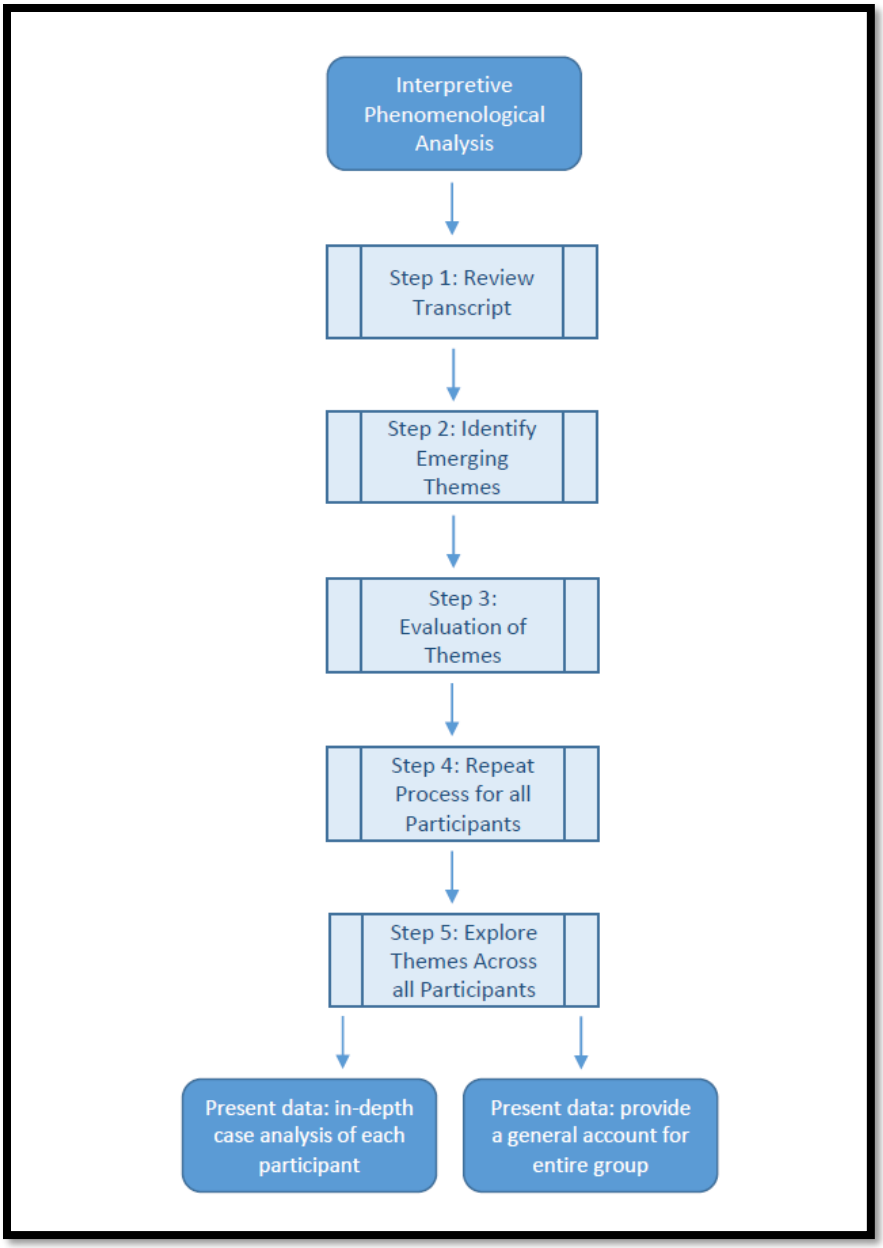


Figure 6

First, the transcripts were closely reviewed. Transcripts were highlighted and marked with notes which summarized, paraphrased, and attempted to formulate some early synthesis in the text. After this initial review was completed, step two required the identification of emerging themes from the notes. Many broad themes were documented in the second step. After themes had been identified in step two, the analysis progressed to step three of the process where relevant

connections between the identified themes was assessed. From this integrated evaluation of themes superordinate themes were created. The transcript was then reexamined to determine if the participant's words were represented in these sub-themes. Step four requires the entire process to be repeated for all of the participants in the study. In step four of this process, Smith and Osborn (2003) encourage the researcher to decide if themes from the first transcript will orientate the remainder of the analysis, or an entirely new set of themes will be established from the other transcripts. This study utilized the themes identified in the first transcript to analyze the remaining transcripts. However, significant consideration was allocated to new and emerging themes. When new themes did originate, this prompted a reevaluation of previous transcripts.

In total, fifteen transcripts were analyzed through this four step process. Finally, step five of Smith and Osborn's (2003) IPA analysis resulted in an exploration of themes across participants. As a result, some themes were consolidated, while others remained independent themes. IPA allows researchers to present data in a comprehensive and in-depth case analysis about a particular participant's experience or offer a more general account for the entire group (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014). This study elected to pursue the second option and produced a general account for all participants. It should be noted that the analysis was not reviewed by others and represents only a singular interpretation of the data. See Appendix G for visual summary of data.

Evaluative criteria and ethical considerations. Critics of IPA assert research can be problematic when researchers interpret participants' commentary as "empirical truths" without considering that participants' words have been delivered in a specific way for the interview. Parker (2005) suggests interviews create contrived settings where certain cultural capital is required. Research interviews are also generally designed with a symbolic purpose and for the

benefit of a particular audience (Parker, 2005). Researchers must be aware of these possibilities when conducting interviews. Additionally, researchers must be cognizant that they may make inaccurate inferences about participants' words, particularly in the unearthing of underlying mental processes or perspectives that do not exist (Parker, 2005).

These potential IPA shortcomings were considered throughout the duration of the study. Significant attention was allocated to the evaluative criteria applied in this study. Particularly, the trustworthiness, credibility, and reflexivity of this dissertation. Trustworthiness can be assessed through the descriptive, interpretive, and theoretical frameworks of research. A thorough literature review allowed the evaluative criteria to be met. Further, Smith and Osborn's (2003) systemic step-by-step method required a full immersion and cyclical review of the data. In doing so, a comprehensive data analysis was completed resulting in the credible production of findings. Lastly, reflexivity was the primary means of ensuring the quality of this study. Parker's (2005) guiding principles for quality research were used to ensure evaluative clarity. These included (1) grounding the study in previous research, (2) providing study coherence and rationale, and (3) assuring accessibility of the cumulative work. This study completed the first two requirements of Parker's (2005) quality research guidelines. The third necessity is intended to be achieved when this dissertation is distributed in both the academic and non-academic community.

Finally, some ethical considerations for this study. The identities of all participants were protected with the use of pseudonyms. Although IPA studies are frequently concerned with personal existential issues (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014), this study did not incorporate a line of questioning that would generally be characterized as threating or requiring significant vulnerability. No participants reported feeling uncomfortable during or after the conclusion of

the interviews. To confirm wellbeing, participants received a signed copy of the consent form (See Appendix B) with all relevant contact information, including the Office of Research Ethics and Integrity for the University of Ottawa. A thank you note was distributed to every participant as a final gesture of gratitude and appreciation for their time and investment in community wellbeing research.

Chapter 4: Results

As detailed in Chapter 1 and in several other sections throughout this dissertation, the aim of this study was to examine the relationship between community wellbeing and the private sport sector. Specifically, to gain an understanding of community perceptions of and expectations for the private sport sector. In order to gain this understanding, IPA was utilized to answer the following research questions:

1. How does sport, leisure, and recreation impact your personal wellbeing – quality of life?
2. What does community wellbeing mean to you?
3. Do you feel the private sport sector can serve as a vehicle for community development?
4. In what ways do you believe Lansdowne Park has a fiduciary responsibility to community wellbeing? Do you feel like a valued stakeholder?

These questions, as well as an extensive literature review, helped facilitate interviews and were continually referenced in the analytic process. The IPA guidelines outlined by Smith and Osborn (2003) directed the analysis that resulted in the discovery of superordinate themes throughout the data. Themes were identified within individual transcripts and then marked for convergences and divergences across cases.

The remainder of this chapter will present the superordinate themes identified in the data. These superordinate themes include: (1) *the reciprocal relationship between individual and community wellbeing,* (2) *experiences at Lansdowne,* (3) *stakeholder accountability,* and (4) *redefining, rebuilding, and respiriting Lansdowne.* Each superordinate theme is comprised of multiple subthemes that offer more substantial detail to support the analysis. These subthemes concentrated on participants' unique experiences, while also demonstrating how belonging,

participation, accountability, and creativity represented common collective perceptions. Outliers are also acknowledged and raise questions as to what these outliers might mean in the larger context of community wellbeing and the private sport sector. Figure 7 below presents a visual representation of the superordinate themes. The white boxes at the top of Figure 7 represent the four broad research themes discovered. The grey boxes present subthemes detailing more specific information for each of the four overarching general themes.

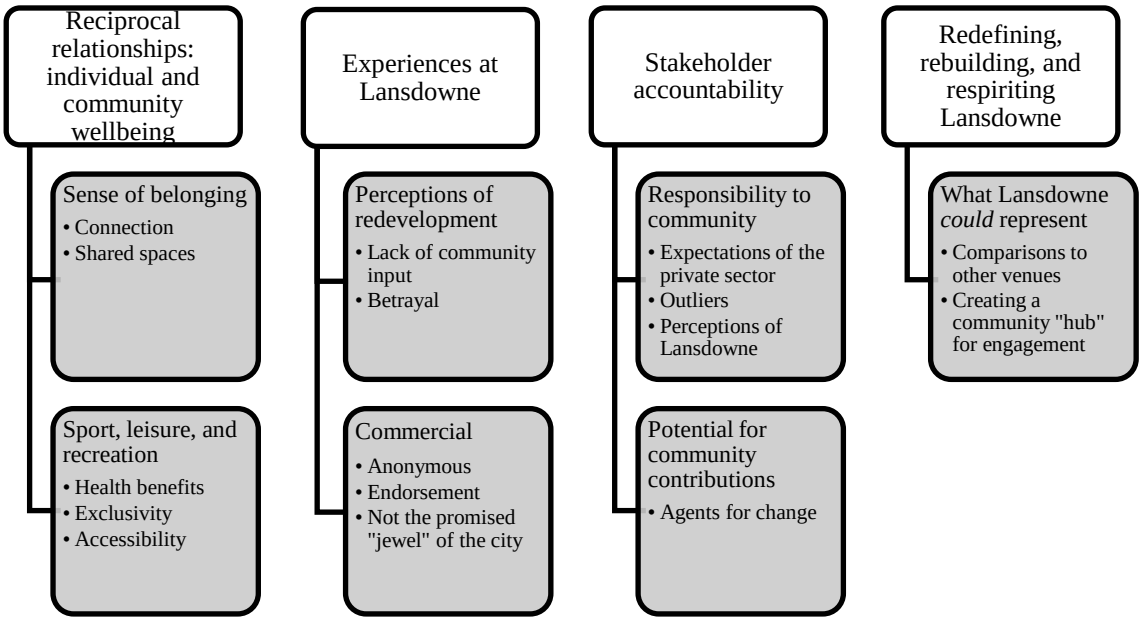


Figure 7: Visual Representation of the IPA

Reciprocal Relationships: Individual and Community Wellbeing

When asked to describe individual and community wellbeing, participants were unable to discuss one without including considerations for the other. This reciprocal relationship was the first major theme to emerge from the data. Overwhelmingly, participants said that individual wellbeing was influenced by one's community, and community wellbeing impacted by each individual's own personal wellbeing. Participants interpreted this reciprocal relationship existing in a positive light, and largely focused conversations on the psychosocial aspects of individual

and community wellbeing. Throughout the interviews it became clear that regardless of scale, individual or community, feeling a sense of belonging was essential to participants understanding of wellbeing. With an exception of one participant, all other participants viewed sport, leisure, and recreation as the central vehicle in their lives for achieving this coveted sense of belonging.

Sense of Belonging

When discussing both individual and community wellbeing, participants prioritized feeling like they belonged to something bigger than themselves. They used descriptors like "security", "stability", "familiarity", and "support" when explaining their perceptions of belonging. Two common subthemes emerged from participants' understanding of belonging: connection and shared spaces. Participants described these two subthemes as being closely integrated and necessary in the fulfillment of their desired sense of belonging.

Connection. Participants frequently described wellbeing as feeling connected. "Wellbeing first of all, is health. It is connection with people. It is meaningful involvement in your environment, meaningful involvement in the community. A sense of connectedness and being generally informed" (Participant 7). Participation in the community and feeling connected with others were important factors in participants' sense of belonging. Participants also discussed how feelings of belonging were not only meaningful in their own wellbeing, but also positively influenced community wellbeing as well. Participants demonstrated a clear understanding for the reciprocal benefits (individual and community) attributed to feelings of belonging:

> If you have a lot of people that feel like they belong and like they have ownership over the area around them that they live in, that will inevitably lead to community wellbeing.

> So, it's not such a physical asset as a feeling people have about their neighbors and about their sense of place where they live in a city or a community. (Participant 10)

This participant described a kind of agency and accountability that results from feeling connected to his neighbors and place of residence. These connections contributing to some sense of community responsibility. These comments also reflected participants' perceptions of community wellbeing existing not as a tangible measurement but more transcendental in nature.

When discussing community wellbeing, participants credited shared bonds and collective experiences for their feelings of support and connection. "We share a lot of history of the years, therefore nobody is a familiar stranger, they're all familiar. You know their story, they know your story, and that's community building. A certain safety in it" (Participant 14). Participants appreciated knowing community members more intimately than a recognizable face. They attributed this familiarity and their collective community stories to their own feelings of safety, belonging, and wellbeing. "It's absolutely huge. The feeling of belonging, and the feeling of support that I get every day. Every day that I'm on the street I see people I know" (Participant 15). Participants fully recognized the mental and emotional advantages associated with feelings of belonging. They were also keenly aware of the intentionality required to cultivate these feelings of belonging and connection.

Shared spaces. Having a space to congregate was a central theme identified by participants. They perceived meaningful opportunities to collectively assemble as an important aspect of community wellbeing:

> Spaces and places allow people to gather, allow people to socialize, allow people to have leisure together, allow people to have casual engagement with each other. Community

> health really, really rides on design for relaxation together, design for casual interaction. (Participant 6)

Participants recognized the significance in designing spaces where people can connect and collaborate. These spaces offer opportunities to nurture feelings of belonging. Participants also acknowledged connections do not occur organically. Creating a sense of belonging requires purposeful engagement:

> I think that the physical spaces are extremely important, that's a big part of it, but then you need an active group of residents that are going to be there pushing and promoting and creating events and going door to door or soliciting their neighbors to get involved. That's very important as well. (Participant 1)

Participants understood that time and energy commitments facilitated their desired community outcomes (e.g., connection, sense of belonging, community wellbeing), and perceived these efforts are worthwhile.

Participants described feeling like an investment in their community was also an investment in themselves. One particular participant perfectly summed up the reciprocal benefits associated with community connection and shared spaces with his personal narrative:

> It's connections, and connectivity, connectedness. I don't know what you call it, where you know the people, you know the people not only on your street, but in the stores. An example was when a woman I knew called me and said, "Just to let you know, your son is in the park with some friends, and they're trying to set fire to a picnic table." I said, "Thank you." So, he came home. "Busted, you're so busted." He said, "Well, what she ... It's none of her business, and what she blah, blah, blah." I said, "Well, no. It is her business actually. It's all of our business to look out for all of you kids. Similarly, if

> somebody was walking with you and you looked like you weren't very happy to be going with that person, somebody would do something. (Participant 15)

It takes time to cultivate meaningful community relationships, but participants perceived these connections as extensions of support, safety, and belonging. This personal account from the participant demonstrated the emphasis participants placed on neighbor familiarity and shared community space. Many of these shared community spaces were described in the context of sport, leisure, and recreation. Overwhelmingly, participants identified sport, leisure, and recreation as a fundamental source for developing feelings of belonging.

Sport, Leisure, and Recreation

Participants perceived sport, leisure, and recreation as an integral component in their individual and community wellbeing. Sport, leisure, and recreation was interpreted by participants as a holistic practice which positively influenced all aspects of their lives. A recurrent description from participants when engaging in sport, leisure, or recreation was a "mind, body, and spirit" experience. Participants placed substantial value in their personal wellbeing and their ability to take part in sport, leisure, and recreation. "Oh, it's everything. I don't know how I'd survive. For me it's survival" (Participant 3). Sport, leisure, and recreation represented a sustaining element their lives. Participants mostly focused on physical activity in their descriptions, especially the psychosocial health benefits associated with this participation. This was a major emerging subtheme in the data. A second subtheme was one participant's important critique of sport, which diverged from the data of other participants. Finally, a third subtheme to develop was accessibility to recreational space.

Health benefits. Unsurprisingly, participants perceived sport, leisure, and recreation as a means to achieving physical wellbeing:

> And a lot of people, I'm amazed they survive so long with no exercise because their bodies are breaking down in their 40s and 50s and they go, "Oh, my back hurts," I'm thinking, my back always hurts when I don't do something. (Participant 11)

However, participants spent far more time speaking about the psychosocial health benefits associated with physical activity than the physical outcomes:

> Wellbeing is first of all health. Health is so important. If you're involved in any type of health meaning exercise. I belong to the YMCA so that helps; both my wife and I do. To me, wellbeing is healthy exercise, stability, meaning feeling good about yourself. I think, for me, wellbeing is if I'm connected to sports of some sort, exercising of some sort, I feel better. (Participant 7)

Participants also regularly equated exercise with wellbeing. Being connected to sports and exercise directly related to how participants felt about themselves. This participant also makes a subtle reference to connection by including his wife in his comments. Going to the YMCA is a joint pursuit. Something they can do together, something to help them feel good. One participant spoke to his correlating understanding of exercise and quality of life, “I think when you're participating in any form of exercise, your quality of life is going to get better” (Participant 8). All participants shared these sentiments for physical activity. However, one participant perceived sport to be more harmful than helpful in her own understanding of wellbeing.

Exclusivity. Although this participant commented on the benefits of her participation in physical activity, she felt that sports were exclusionary and self-serving:

> Sports to me is entertainment and distraction. Sports is a rich man's game. It ties up a lot of resources. And it actually segregates people who can't afford it. Or, if you're not good enough to fit in. So it's like a groupie thing. (Participant 11)

This participant's experience in sport had made her feel like an outsider. She felt participation in sport required a certain amount of wealth to play. As a result, she believed this made organized sport an exclusive experience where she felt no sense of belonging. This participant also discussed sport existing for "entertainment and distraction". In this way, this participant perceived sport diverting potential focus from community to competition. This participant's critique of sport raised important concerns for community wellbeing, especially in regard to inclusivity and accessibility.

Accessibility. A significant emerging theme throughout the data analysis was accessibility. Participants believed having access to shared spaces for sport, leisure, and recreation was critical to individual and community wellbeing.

> I am a runner as well, so I love that I'm a block from the canal. So that's very easy. For me it's important that you have easy access to outdoor space where you can do things to help you be active. I think if it's easier then you're more likely to do it. (Participant 9)

Participants believed that having easy access to outdoor spaces helped them commit to regular physical activity. Similarly, one participant stated, "That's one of, I think, the best features of Ottawa is the canal running through just kind of encourages activity and motion and all of those things that help us" (Participant 8). Again, the participants recognized design and accessibility of the space encourages movement and ultimately contributes to wellbeing.

This was especially true for designated green space. "So very important for kids as well. We live across the street from the park. They can go outside and play. It's easy" (Participant 6). Again, the convenience and ease of access to the green space enabled the participant's children to be physically active. Participants frequently referenced outdoor spaces to play and socialize as

key features for individual and community wellbeing. One participant discussed the importance of outdoor exercise in her life and offered praise for the city of Ottawa:

> Outdoor exercise is a huge, huge thing in my life. Ottawa has done very well in terms of green space. There are roads set aside for walking on Sundays and for rollerblading. There are a lot of things that Ottawa has done well (Participant 13).

Again, this participant appreciated the Rideau Canal serving as an outlet for physical movement and wellbeing in her own life. Outdoor spaces for physical activity, green spaces, and accessibility to these spaces were commonly referenced in relation to Lansdowne as well.

Experiences at Lansdowne

Participants offered both endorsements and criticisms for Lansdowne. Most participants, eleven of the fifteen, felt that Lansdowne does not currently fulfill its potential. The process of redevelopment frustrated these participants. They felt that their input was not considered, betrayed, and disappointed by the present opportunities Lansdowne offers. It should be noted, however, that four participants did feel mostly satisfied with the redevelopment project. Generally though, participants perceived Lansdowne to be "overly commercial" and anonymous, and definitely not the "jewel" of the city.

Perceptions of Redevelopment

Participants were frustrated by the redevelopment process. Even participants that approved the current existence of Lansdowne commented about the absence of collaboration and community involvement in project plans. Participants perceived the redevelopment of Lansdowne to proceed without appropriate community consideration. Lack of community input and feelings of betrayal represent important emerging subthemes in the data. Although these

feelings date back to the early stages of redevelopment process, these feelings of disappointment continue to influence participants present perceptions and experiences at Lansdowne.

Lack of community input. Participants were extremely frustrated by their lack of community input in the redevelopment of Lansdowne. They perceived key stakeholders neglecting their community interests in the planning process. Participants explained "feeling that they had selected the bid before there was any kind of process" (Participant 6). The resounding feeling from participants was not of resistance towards the redevelopment of Lansdowne, but of resentment for the lack of community consultation. "We wanted it developed. We wanted it developed in a better way with multiple ideas and choose the best, and understanding community needs" (Participant 1). Participants were open to revamping Lansdowne, but they wanted a collaborative process where various plans and perspectives could be evaluated. "If that (redevelopment) would have been done in an ethical way, and maybe not a rushed way, and with some back and forth contemplation, then we could have had the facility that all parties were happy with" (Participant 1). Participants wanted a more patient and inclusive approach to the redevelopment. Ultimately, they wanted a more democratic process where their voices could be heard. The desire to participate in the redevelopment process came up again and again in the data analysis. "The lack of democracy in the process, just not having the choice" (Participant 6) was a recurring comment.

Participants described "just feeling like they're not listening" (Participant 1) when discussing the redevelopment of Lansdowne. "The lack of consultation I'll say is just horrendous. Even they did these town halls and we come and we say our thing, and we don't see any of our feedback being reflected" (Participant 6). Participants acknowledged that town halls were organized for the community, but they perceived these to be more ceremonial with their concerns

and desires not being seriously considered. One participant had an especially poignant comment regarding community input in the decision-making process. She was told “we need more research." Clearly frustrated in her recounting of this exchange, the participant went on to rebut, “It's like, excuse me, we've just handed you a huge chunk of research. We've got these lived experiences to talk to you about" (Participant 14). This comment represents a collective perception held by most participants. Participants believed they could offer valuable ideas for the redevelopment of Lansdowne. After all, they were the “people who actually lived in the community” (Participant 15) and could authentically offer community insights. They perceived these lived experiences to be equally as valuable to redevelopment plans as any abstract fact, figure, or statistic. In this way, participants perceived numbers to be the central catalyst in redevelopment, not the sentiments offered by people. This lack of community consultation resulted in strong feelings of betrayal.

Betrayal. Repeatedly, participants would describe feeling betrayed by the redevelopment of Lansdowne:

> But where, I would say, the city broke faith with the community was by starting an open process, canceling it, and then starting arrangements with OSEG. And so, after that, it just was one bad thing after the other. But certainly the loss of faith and the betrayal was a lot over the process. (Participant 1)

These comments again highlight process frustrations from participants. However, these comments also reveal how participants directed their feelings of betrayal and blame towards the public domain (City of Ottawa), not the private sport sector (OSEG).

Participants reported feeling like their elected officials had failed them, as it was their responsibility to advocate community interests in the redevelopment negotiations. “I think it's the

city (to blame) because these are our elected officials, and we've trusted them to look after our best interests. And I feel like they've sold us out" (Participant 5). These comments illustrated how participants perceived their elected officials as disloyal and inadequate in their representation:

> But the big thing that happened, and where everybody, I felt betrayed, I guess, was with never even publishing the results of the public consultation, the city cancelled…Called it the Jewel, the most important piece of public land in Ottawa (Participant 1).

This participant is again speaking to feelings of betrayal originating from the lack of transparency. The comments also reflect a collective bewilderment from participants in the absence of meaningful collaboration with the community in the "most important piece of public land in Ottawa".

It was not simply betrayal in process that participants described, but also the financial implications for the redevelopment of Lansdowne. As one participant explained, "Financially the deal was a difficult one. It has not been returning anything for the city of Ottawa, it's been a net loss" (Participant 12). Participants frequently recounted feeling betrayed by the financial aspects of the redevelopment agreement between the public and private sector. Participants described feeling like the redevelopment agreement was an "under the table deal" between local politicians and "self-serving investors". Participants perceived this "under the table deal" as the "the privatization of public land. And taking it out of the public realm." Ultimately, eliminating any consideration for community wellbeing by transferring the land rights of Lansdowne to a private entity.

Commercial

Most participants perceived Lansdowne as generic and "more and more of the same corporate chains" (Participant 5). They described their experiences at Lansdowne as being distant and without the neighborhood familiarity they appreciated. "I don't think they care if we come back, I really don't, so it's that. I don't know. Maybe, it's that feeling of belonging that I don't get there" (Participant 14). This feeling of belonging was an important facet of participants' perceptions of community wellbeing. Participants described feeling like a number, part of the bottom-line, rather than as a valued Lansdowne stakeholder. Most participants believed the commercial nature of Lansdowne made it an anonymous space and described Lansdowne as not fulfilling the promised "jewel" of the city label.

Anonymous. Participants routinely described Lansdowne as lacking "character", "identity", and "authenticity". They did not perceive Lansdowne as an integral shared space to connect or foster feelings of belongings. "To me, Lansdowne feels anonymous. You can't just create a village and plop it down" (Participant 15). This was a common sentiment reported by participants. They described Lansdowne as a location, not a space for connection and community building. Participants perceived their experiences at Lansdowne to be missing the uniqueness, charm, and electricity they desired in their community spaces. They attributed much of this impersonal anonymity to the commercial nature of Lansdowne. "So I think the corporate nature of all the companies that are at Lansdowne works against any kind of impotence to engage with community" (Participant 15). Participants recounted feeling like Lansdowne's corporate landscape made collaboration with the community mostly impossible. When asked about the prospect of providing feedback to improve the commercial atmosphere of Lansdowne one participant responded, "Oh hell no. First of all, who would I send it too" (Participant 14)?

Participants described feeling frustrated not only by the anonymous space that they perceived Lansdowne to be, but also in their inability to directly communicate with Lansdowne leadership. Participants were aware of the names of chief Lansdowne decision-makers, but reported feeling like they were unable to connect with these "distant" figures.

These anonymous perceptions of Lansdowne existed in stark contrast to the feelings participants described for local merchants:

> One of the wonderful things about any main street like this, unlike a few other main streets in this city, is that you get local merchants and they're connected with the community. We have some really sterling examples of local merchants on this street, who are really connected with the community and do a lot for the community. I suspect they're suffering in part because of Lansdowne. (Participant 5)

Participants perceived local merchants to be connected and invested in the community. They believed local businesses positively contributed to community wellbeing. Participants also recognized that this integration of community and local business was not universal throughout the city. Participants valued these unique connections and sadly commented that local businesses were likely negatively influenced by Lansdowne. Participants were concerned what the consequences would be for these local businesses and for their community. These feelings, however, were not absolute. Some participants perceived Lansdowne as representing a positive addition to the community.

Endorsement. Four participants endorsed the redevelopment of Lansdowne. All of these participants described feeling like Lansdowne was "better than it was before" the redevelopment. "I think the Glebe community is better off having Lansdowne the way it is. I think we benefited from it" (Participant 4). These participants perceived Lansdowne as a net gain, even if it wasn't

necessarily what they had wanted. Participants credited additional sport, leisure, and recreational opportunities for these perceived community benefits:

> As far as I'm concerned though, it's come a long way in this community from where it was til now. Good or bad, Lansdowne is vibrant because kids participating in skateboarding, basketballing out there. They're holding concerts now in the field. They put a new turf in. They've got restaurants there now. It's come a long way. It's vibrant. (Participant 7)

The remarks from this participant reveal an appreciation for a revamped collective community space. A liveliness in the area due to various opportunities Lansdowne provided to congregate and socialize. Another participant reported a similar endorsement for the improved utilization of space:

> So in terms of that specific development, I think there has been some positive that's come out of it, in terms of it having not been developed previously, not being utilized as well as it could have been previously, that that has been a positive, certainly. It has brought some sports back to Ottawa that was lacking in the past around the football team, the soccer team and the hockey team that existed there before, but wasn't as well, I guess, represented at the time. So, there's been some net positive in terms of recreational activities for people (Participant 2).

This participant described the redeveloped Lansdowne as a better community recreational outlet. The participant also commented on how the return of some professional sports to Ottawa was made possible by the redevelopment. These participants believed professional sports positively contributed to community wellbeing through “civic pride” and “corporate donations”. Professional sports represented a major motive for participants reporting positive experiences

and endorsements of Lansdowne. Despite the general approval of Lansdowne by these four participants, they like the other eleven participants, did not believe Lansdowne symbolized the "jewel" of the city.

Not the promised "jewel" of the city. Participants routinely referenced how the redevelopment plans promised to make Lansdowne the "jewel" of the city. Participants did not feel that the redevelopment of Lansdowne fulfilled this presupposed label:

> I applaud in some ways OSEG for stepping up and trying to develop it. Good or bad, it's developed. It has brought some life to the Glebe and the community and it has brought life to the city, but it's not the jewel. I don't call it the jewel of the city anymore. It used to be, but I don't call it that. (Participant 7)

Even the four participants that endorsed the redevelopment of Lansdowne didn't perceive Lansdowne to be worthy of this idealized symbol of prestige. In fact, the comments from this participant revealed a feeling of diminished stature indicating he no longer calls it (Lansdowne) the jewel of the city. He did, but not now. Participants attributed the corporate nature of Lansdowne for its loss in distinction.

When discussing Lansdowne's inability to fulfill the promised "jewel" of the city label, previous process frustrations surfaced. Many participants recounted feeling disappointed and deceived by the renovated Lansdowne:

> My desire was much more of a public space like something ... I feel like they've created sort of a bit of a playground for people who have money and can spend it. I understand that there is advantages to the city for that, but it's not really ... I don't see that as ... For community it's like something that everybody can participate in. So the green space is great, and we do go to the playground, and we use the big green field, and we use the hill,

> and we sled. We go sledding on that, and that's fun. Mainly it's that park space. I use it for running and stuff like that. We will occasionally go the restaurants because they're there for sure. But our preference was the smaller scale, which had been originally proposed. That was what was really disappointing is that they had come up with this wonderful concept, and it looks nothing like that. (Participant 6)

The commercial aspect of Lansdowne was clearly presented through this participant's comments. Lansdowne requires a certain socioeconomic status to enjoy the available opportunities. The participant recognized the potential for positive outcomes for some stakeholders, but not necessarily for the community as a whole. This participant appreciated the green space for sport, leisure, and recreation, but wanted a public space that was smaller and more intimate. Participants found the grand and anonymous existence of Lansdowne to be particularly challenging to accept, especially because they perceived the present Lansdowne to not accurately resemble the original "jewel" in the redevelopment proposal. Ultimately, participants did not feel like the community was considered as a valued stakeholder by Lansdowne.

Stakeholder Accountability

Most participants perceived the community as an important stakeholder to businesses and should be considered in the decision-making process. However, this was not the perception of all participants. Some participants reported feelings more aligned with a shareholder model where businesses are only responsible to shareholders. Participants' perceptions of Lansdowne were closely associated with their more general expectations for the private sport sector.

Responsibility to Community

Generally, participants believed the private sport sector should be accountable to some degree to community wellbeing. The comments of this participant reflected the feelings held by

many participants, “I believe that any business that's located in any community has a responsibility” (Participant 5). Participants did not perceive businesses existing as independent and autonomous entities. Participants described businesses as being interconnected with communities, and therefore expected to be measured stakeholders. However, there were a few outliers to these perceptions. Some participants discussed the most basic tenet of capitalism where profit, not people, is the priority. These expectations of the private sport sector and perceptions of Lansdowne were two emerging subthemes in the data.

Expectations of the private sport sector. Most participants expected some level of community accountability from private businesses. “I think that ideally you would have corporations who see the community as value and work with the community to come up with developments that meet the needs of both parties. And I feel like that is possible” (Participant 15). Participants perceived communities to be of value to corporations and believed collaboration was feasible. “Whether through a foundation or donations or contributions, you would want that. You would want all sectors in your city to be participating in broader civic life” (Participant 9). Participants frequently described the importance in all sectors contributing to community wellbeing. Unfortunately, many participants did not feel like businesses were operating from this stakeholder perspective:

> I think there are some good folks out there that have legitimate concerns about neighborhoods and want to help them and will do it from the goodness of their heart too, but I think those are usually the more minor examples. The majority, I think, the motive behind it is usually one of a bottom-line. (Participant 11)

Although participants commented about corporate intentions, they mostly described feeling like community wellbeing was an afterthought to corporate wellbeing.

Participants placed significant onus on private businesses to contribute more in communities. “With that level of attention and awareness comes a certain level of responsibility and accountability. A, to oneself as a person, and B, to your company that you're working for, but more importantly to the community” (Participant 13). Participants described businesses as having an obligation to multiple parties, and community represented one of these key interests. One participant eloquently detailed the dire need for this multiple stakeholder perspective:

> We're being driven to a place where humanity cannot survive by an economic bottom line that does not recognize health and wellbeing. And health and wellbeing needs to be the deciding factor. Even if it costs more to go for health and wellbeing, even if it's an investment, the investment pays off and human health, wellbeing, quality of life, collaboration, creativity, and capacity to embrace change rather than sink into that hopeless, helpless, afraid place where nothing changes. (Participant 13)

The remarks from this participant were shared by many participants. Participants reported feeling like we must collectively reassess our values, our priorities, and our way of life. Participants believed if we don’t begin to more purposefully value human health and wellbeing, then the ensuing status quo will leave us with no value at all. Although most participants embraced this more conscious approach to capitalism, there were a few outliers who perceived the obligation of businesses to solely serve their own private accord.

Outliers. A few participants endorsed more traditional perceptions of capitalism, thus excusing businesses from any community accountability:

> Beyond their role as providing the football product on the field that’s entertaining and successful, I wouldn't say that they necessarily have any direct responsibility. But I think

> if only to sort of serve their own interests indirectly, they should encourage and support people in the nearby community. (Participant 7)

These participants believed businesses should only be expected to attend to their own interests. If anything, this participant described indirect benefits being the only real incentive for businesses to invest in the surrounding community. When asked about the private sport sector's role in community wellbeing, these participants dismissed all obligation as a result of private sport prerogative.

These outlier participants acknowledged businesses potential positive or negative influence on community wellbeing. However, they did not believe private sport enterprises must freely submit to community interests. Instead, these participants believed it was the public sector's duty to ensure private enterprises consider the community. "I feel like there should be a responsibility (to community), but I think it's up to the city to press for that in their conversations" (Participant 10). This participant clearly places the onus on the local government to hold the private sector accountability for their corporate impact in the community. The participant did not expect the private sport sector to voluntarily comply with community obligations. Another participant echoed similar feelings:

> The purpose of a company is to make money. And the purpose of the government is to establish the rules of the game and to tax. The government should defend democracy so that what happened at Lansdowne doesn't happen again. (Participant 12)

This participant did not approve the redevelopment process for Lansdowne. However, fault was squarely placed on the government, not the private sport enterprise. The expectations participants described for private businesses largely influenced their perceptions of Lansdowne.

Perceptions of Lansdowne. Most participants reported negative sentiments surrounding Lansdowne. “To me, it wasn't value-added. It didn't add anything to the community. In fact, it took it away” (Participant 15). Participants did not feel like Lansdowne considered the community as a valuable stakeholder:

> I don't even think that came across in their consciousness. I don't think they were thinking about the public good when they created this space. This is not a good public space, which is what I had hoped for. This is a space for people who have money to come and spend. (Participant 15)

Participants again reported feeling like Lansdowne was not developed for the public benefit, but rather with a private agenda focused strictly on profits. “I don't think that the developed Lansdowne is truly sincere about the community. They're sincere about generating profit” (Participant 15). Participants described Lansdowne as putting shareholders first, profits first, and “everything else is down the line” (Participant 11). One participant offered an especially rich explanation for this profit centered corporate concentration:

> What happened with corporations was that we took any personal accountability off the people who run the company and made it the corporation that has any liability. And what that meant is that people who leave the corporation, not having personal liability, aren't necessarily looking at their impact or the other employees, or other neighbors, or their environment. They're just looking at how can we pay our shareholders the most money. (Participant 13)

Most participants perceived corporations evolving to exist as transactional bureaucracies, resulting in corporations that function with the singular intention of profitability. Generally, this

is how participants recounted feeling about Lansdowne. They perceived Lansdowne to be an anonymous commercial space with minimal personal liability and community consciousness.

Participants also discussed negative perceptions of Lansdowne in relation to public – private partnerships. Many participants voiced frustrations surrounding their perceived public payments towards private sporting expenses:

> But I think a key question is, and one that's debated across cities, across our continent is, ought there to be public support for those enterprises? That's really the key question. And I would answer, no. I would say, if there is a successful private professional sports organization that wants to have a franchise in our city, I'd say that's great. That's wonderful. It's probably a good thing. And probably does have a positive impact on civic boosterism or civic life. But should all residents have to pay for that, regardless of whether they're hockey fans, football fans, I have to say no. That's a choice. That's a business. So that's where things get a bit tricky with Lansdowne. (Participant 9)

This participant perfectly summed up the perceptions of Lansdowne for many participants. Participants were not opposed to redevelopment, and generally regarded sports as an effective tool for community building. However, participants did not feel it was ethical or fair to expect the community to subsidize professional sport at Lansdowne. That's where "things got a bit tricky" (Participant 7) for participants, with the presumed "under the table" public – private partnership. This partnership is also where the majority of the negative perceptions of Lansdowne originated. Participants reported feeling like the agreement was an "old boys" deal; an arrangement geared more towards private sport profits then community wellbeing. When discussing this agreement feelings of betrayal again reappeared. However, in spite of the vast

disappointment expressed, some participants still believed that Lansdowne could reestablish itself as a viable community partner.

Potential for Community Contribution

Most participants did not feel like private sport sector, Lansdowne specifically, adequately considered community interests in their decision-making. However, many participants expressed hope and optimism for the private sport sector becoming a vehicle for community development. “You don't necessarily want to end capitalism. I mean, capitalism has been a major force for change that in many ways has significantly improved our quality of life as a species. It's unbridled capitalism that's the problem” (Participant 13). Participants recognized that the private sport sector could offer some potential benefits to the community. However, to reinvent the private sport sector as a positive contributor to community wellbeing, participants believed businesses must operate with far more accountability and intentionality.

Agents for change. In order to facilitate change and positively impact community wellbeing then corporations must be more accountable. When discussing private enterprises one participant commented, “There's a system that has allowed itself to get very unhealthy because there aren't enough checks and balances” (Participant 13). Participants described feeling frustrated by the lack of stakeholder responsibility. They didn’t feel like businesses were accountable to anyone outside of their shareholders. Participants reported issues with this “unbridled capitalism” and commented extensively on their disappointment in the local government for not enforcing these “checks and balances” and mandating greater community accountability.

Participants also believed communities, society at-large, should hold businesses to a higher standard. One participant uniquely captured the potential positive consequences to this higher order responsibility:

> I think that societies should hold businesses accountable. Call somebody out if they're saying something or doing something that you don't agree with. But it's also, businesses can be huge influencers in the community. Having a business step out and say that they're supportive of a certain social cause has a lot of weight because a lot of people follow businesses online, like social media, all that stuff. So businesses are also becoming social media influencers too which can create that social change. Which especially I feel like is more and more prevalent in the younger generations, like the 35 and under groups. (Participant 13)

These comments reveal the promise participants perceived possible in the private sport sector. Participants fully understood the vast power, prestige, and capital that private sport enterprises wield. Most participants viewed the space that private sport enterprises hold as a potential platform to influence change and positively impact communities.

Participants believed that greater intentionality would lead to this stakeholder accountability. Many participants discussed the need for private sport enterprises to be more intentional with their design, values, and leadership. Participants described private sport enterprises as being intrinsically self-serving, and detailed the necessity in private sport enterprises embracing intentionality in their business philosophy. They perceived intentionality as the only meaningful method to community change:

> Corporations have the opportunity to run themselves in a way that engages and inspires and builds collaboration, or they have a way of operating that's kind of neutral, that allows little things to happen, that doesn't shut them down, but doesn't support them… And it's really, really consistent across cultures around the world, what kind of conditions enable

> healthy, collaborative, creative, participatory, fun, engaging capacities, and what kind of conditions shut people down. (Participant 13)

The culture private enterprises cultivate influences various stakeholders. This participant is referencing specifically employees and the community. Most participants perceived a corporate atmosphere supporting creativity and meaningful involvement as being critical to success. Participants also perceived these type of businesses to be more likely to collaborate with communities. Participants believed this cooperation was essential to corporations truly becoming positive agents for change in communities.

Redefining, Rebuilding, and Respiriting Lansdowne

Even with the significant disappointment cloaking Lansdowne, most participants believed the space could be renewed and reenergized to better serve the community. “When you look at the problems that are facing us today, we have all the solutions we need” (Participant 13). Participants had many creative ideas to cultivate a more welcoming and inclusive community “hub” for community engagement. Participants mostly focused their discussion on their lived experiences at other comparative venues. These experiences helped craft their suggestions for a warmer, more vibrant, and civically engaged Lansdowne.

What Lansdowne *Could* Represent

Participants routinely referenced other venues that were similar to Lansdowne. They discussed facets of those spaces that they appreciated and believed Lansdowne failed to incorporate:

> I look for inspiration in the parks in Europe, which I feel again have chessboards and ping pong available to the public, beautiful play structures for kids and really

> imaginative, and of course lots of trees. I just feel like it was quite an afterthought. Most of the trees have died at Lansdowne. It's a concrete jungle. (Participant 6)

Many of the participants commented on the ability to socialize through play at other parks. They appreciated these organic opportunities to connect with others and perceived these interactions as being valuable to individual and community wellbeing.

Participants believed considerations for play, connection, and warmth absent from the redevelopment plans for Lansdowne. Descriptors like “cold”, “anonymous”, and “concrete jungle” were frequently used when referring to Lansdowne. Many participants perceived Lansdowne as more of a commercial castle than community center.

> In terms of inclusivity or making people from around the world feel welcome, not so much. It's a corporate landscape. Beer gardens and the booths where you buy your tickets. They look like a high security bank. It's not designed for connection with people. (Participant 13)

Participants routinely described Lansdowne as being impersonal, without an “identity”, and without concern for community connection. Participants reported very different feelings when they recounted their experiences at other comparative venues.

Comparisons to other venues. Participants described several similar venues to Lansdowne:

> Vancouver (British Columbia) has Granville Park and Winnipeg (Manitoba) has The Forks. And at The Forks, they've done so much more with the land, and they've kept some of the heritage buildings. It's just an example of good design. And they didn't do it all at once. (Participant 5)

Participants routinely commented on the design of parks and other multifaceted venues like Lansdowne. Participants appreciated the more gradual and evolving approach to development rather than a perceived hasty and "homogenous" construction.

Participants also referenced their experiences in Bryant Park in New York City and High Park and Kew Gardens in Toronto (Ontario). Participants recounted feeling a collective energy in these spaces that they perceived facilitating community engagement. Participants described trees, play structures, and beauty as key aspects and incentives in cultivating community connection. One participant had an especially powerful understanding for spacial beauty:

> So much of what we feel recently is so ugly. We have to do things to make it less ugly, to make it something that's more pleasant to be around. How did we get to a place where what we build for the public is made of cheap and toxic and ugly material. This is not historically what was done for humans. We used natural materials and whenever the resources were available, those natural materials were made into absolutely gorgeous, glorious places to spend time. Public spaces were considered... They were made beautiful because that's what allows people to step into their best self. Ugliness on an auditory level, on a fragrance level, on a visual level, ugliness for any of our senses increases our stress. So beauty endurance in a space, durability and beauty in a space encourages people to step into their best selves. (Participant 13)

For the participant, beauty helps us "step into our best self". Embodying one's "best self" is the central objective intrinsic to both individual and community wellbeing.

Participants described the importance in intentionally creating spaces that inspire collaboration:

> And in the park in Lansdowne there's hardly any trees. Where you go to Sylvia Holden Park there's trees, there's little benches to sit on so that mothers and dads can watch their kids play and they can talk to one another and because the same people show up on a regular basis they become friends and this is how people feel secure in the place that they live because they know who their neighbors are. Not just the person next door, who picks up your mail when you're away. But people that they meet in common activities. (Participant 15).

Participants clearly valued the aesthetic design of the park. Moreover, they perceived the welcoming setting to help encourage conversations that nurture meaningful community connections. The participant described this shared spaced interaction as being a source of both familiarity and security. This is the sense of belonging and engagement that all participants identified as being vital to individual and community wellbeing.

Creating a community "hub" for engagement. Participants presented many thoughtful ideas to improve Lansdowne. Most of these suggestions were rooted in promoting community connections through deeper green space intentionality:

> I love the apple trees because the apple trees are a natural place for parents and grandparents and kids, and kids to climb the trees, and people that laugh about harvest. I would love to see a more edible landscape throughout Lansdowne. (Participant 13)

This participant commented on the social aspects associated with play. The apple trees presented a space for movement and human connection. Participants frequently discussed bringing people together:

> I would say look at your green space and see how you can make better use of it. They have that large field in the middle, which basically is used for large festivals and

> occasionally yoga. The yoga is great. Occasionally I see them publicizing events like movies and so on, but I think they could do a much better job of thinking about how can we attract more people to use this space in a free way. Free concerts. I thought an amphitheater would've been amazing. We have that in other cities where you can stage like the Shakespeare in the Park and that kind of stuff where it's easier to come together. We don't have anything like that in our neighborhood. (Participant 6)

This participant wanted Lansdowne to be more deliberate in producing accessible programming for people to "come together". She acknowledge some existing opportunities through yoga and festivals, but encouraged Lansdowne to more critically contemplate how accessible green space events could be offered. Participants described events like "Shakespeare in the Park" as valuable events for community building.

Similarly, one participant believed food could be used as a tool of collective assembly at Lansdowne:

> Seeing so many opportunities for bringing people together around food because food is a huge... Even if we do very different things with it, it's a huge thing that brings people together. Ottawa is a relatively international city. What if Lansdowne had some greenhouses? What if it had greenhouses adjacent to some of those public buildings on the South sides that featured international foods? (Participant 13)

This participant perceived food as the "glue to community". She believed greenhouses were an ideal environment to connect people from diverse backgrounds. She described these connections to not only build community relationships, but also helping all individuals feel "included" and "appreciated".

Other participants focused more concretely on play as a means of community connection. Participants described their experiences at various parks, including public chess boards in Switzerland, a free “little library” where kids could grab books in Bryant Park, the boules courts in France, and at several venues play structures like merry-go-rounds that encourage collaboration through play. Participants cherished these collective opportunities to engage. “So these public spaces where people can come together and play games. It's lovely because it's inexpensive and it brings people together for a fun” (Participant 6). Participants clearly perceived connecting people with community wellbeing:

> The ping pong I thought was fantastic because that's a really big deal. They'll have these huge tournaments every day of the week, and there'll be like 50 people. It's so fun. It brings people together. There's so much potential there. Beyond the community center, which is a lovely indoor space, we don't have anything to do, no place to really do that. (Participant 6)

This participant again detailed play as a vehicle for joining people. She also offered optimism for Lansdowne’s potential to represent a similar space for play, connection, and community building.

Many participants believed Lansdowne could be significantly improved by more intentionally using their structures:

> I love that old fairground building, and I keep looking at that thinking there are so many creative uses that that building could be put to. You could have a gallery upstairs that's all local handcrafts, and you could have the downstairs be farmer's markets that came in a couple of times a week, but that were specifically for local food producers. (Participant 13)

Another participant similarly commented, “Imagine, they have all these unused spaces at Lansdowne. Why aren't they making them available to artist studios or craft studios? Or homeless people. Affordable housing” (Participant 1). One of the most prominent criticisms of Lansdowne was the “wasted space” comprised of “chain retail”. Participants strongly believed that Lansdowne buildings should be used to better support community needs/interests.

Ultimately, participants were open to the possibility of Lansdowne representing a “hub” for community engagement. As one participant said, “We could do this, we know how to do this. But we're not doing it yet” (Participant 13). Although some participants expressed hope and optimism, they didn’t foresee any meaningful changes occurring without *real* community consultation. In order to “redefine, rebuild, and respirit” Lansdowne, participants described a business model which incorporated intentionality and community accountability. When these expectations are fulfilled, then maybe Lansdowne will represent the “jewel” of the city.

Chapter 5: Discussion

This final chapter discusses the significance of the key themes identified in the analysis of participants' perceptions and experiences as they relate back to the private sport sector and community wellbeing, as presented in Chapter 2 and other places throughout this dissertation. The subsequent topics emphasize the importance of understanding participants lived experiences and the value of listening to their perspectives, so as to offer insights into what they believe is most impactful in their community wellbeing. The results indicate that (1) individual and community wellbeing is reciprocal and shaped by sport, leisure, and recreation, (2) the private sport sector should be serving as community stewards, and (3) community voices must be heard and reflected in both private and public agendas. The remainder of this chapter will further explain and offer theoretical and practical implications for these three key findings, provide private sport recommendations, address study limitations, propose suggestions for future research, and conclude with some final cumulative remarks.

Wellbeing is Reciprocal and Shaped by Sport, Leisure, and Recreation

Participants in this study described how individual wellbeing was influenced by one's community, and community wellbeing impacted by each individual's own personal wellbeing. When discussing this reciprocal relationship, participants described feelings of belonging as being critical to their understanding of both individual and community wellbeing. Skinner, Zakus, and Cowell (2008) suggest this desire to "belong" derives from the fundamental human need to create and maintain social bonds. Participants related social bonds to their feelings of belonging and togetherness (Skinner, Zakus, and Cowell, 2008). They identified sport, leisure, and recreation as the primary source for cultivating these coveted social connections and associated feelings of belonging.

A Sense of Community Cultivated by Sport, Leisure, and Recreation

This research contributes to existing literature surrounding the non-tangible benefits of participation in sport (Skinner, Zakus, and Cowell, 2008). Sport provides opportunities for individuals to improve self-esteem, foster community connections, and encourage greater civic engagement (Vail, 2007). This study supports these assertions. Participants described how sport, leisure, and recreation helps individuals "feel good about yourself", "improves quality of life", and "brings people together". These findings echo the research of Vail (2007), asserting the "intrinsic power" of sport, leisure, and recreation enables collective engagement and celebration, diminishes barriers between groups, and presents opportunities for people to consider diverse values, perspectives, and ways of life (Brown et al., 2003).

When discussing sport, leisure, and recreation, participants of this study predominately focused on the psychophysiological and social benefits associated with their involvement. One of the most interesting findings that emerged from this study was the significance participants placed on shared community spaces, especially green spaces. Participants described neighborhood green spaces as providing valuable benefits for individuals and communities, particularly in cultivating social connections and contributing to greater community consciousness. These findings support the research of Ohmer et al. (2005) arguing communities with substantial green space have stronger social connections among residents and more dynamic community development efforts.

Shared green spaces. The mere presence of green space, including trees and grass, can facilitate social interaction and ties among neighbors (Ohmer et al., 2005). Participants frequently commented about their preference for shared community spaces filled with trees and green acreage. These findings contribute to the existing literature (Kuo, Sullivan, Levine Coley,

& Brunson, 1998; Sullivan, Kuo, & DePooter, 2004) evaluating the effects of community environment on the development of community connections. The results demonstrated that shared spaces with more vegetation and greenery were significantly associated with stronger social connections among community members utilizing that space (Kuo, Sullivan, Coley, & Brunson, 1998; Sullivan, Kuo, & DePooter, 2004). As Kuo et al. (1998) explained:

> Compared to residents living adjacent to relatively barren spaces, individuals living adjacent to greener common spaces had more social activities and more visitors, knew more of their neighbors, reported their neighbors were more concerned with helping and supporting one another, and had stronger feelings of belonging. (p. 843)

The results of this research support these assertions. Participants of this study extensively discussed how their experiences in shared green spaces helped them develop meaningful community connections. As detailed in Chapter 4, participants attributed these community connections with their feelings of "safety", "familiarity", and "belonging". These strong social networks between community members also correlate with higher levels of social capital. This is relates to Pinker's (2015) notion of "building your village" through social connections.

Social capital and shared green spaces. Sport, leisure, and recreation is widely recognized as a way to build positive social capital in communities (Lawson, 2005; Skinner, Zakus, & Edwards, 2005; Zakus, Skinner, & Edwards, 2008). Participants of this study mostly referred to social capital in the form of bonding, or relationships within community, as outlined in Chapter 1. One of the most interesting findings that emerged from this study is that participants correlated bonding with organic play opportunities. In addition to significant vegetation in shared community spaces, participants described playground structures, games

(e.g., chess, ping-ping, boules, etc.), and free public performances as important opportunities for community members to “connect”, “socialize”, and “come together”. Participants interpreted these organic play encounters as valuable bonding opportunities and essential to the community vitality discussed in Chapter 2. Ultimately, this study argues that resources should be invested in creating community spaces where people can bond through spontaneous play. These opportunities for collective assembly are vital to individual and community wellbeing. This research also suggests that private sport enterprises must be more accountable and committed to community interests.

Private Sport Serving as Community Stewards

One of the most prevalent themes to emerge from this study was the community’s strong expectation for private sport enterprises to consider the community as a key stakeholder. Generally, participants expected private sport enterprises to “value community” and “work with the community to come up with development that meets the needs of both parties”. Although some outliers did exist, most participants endorsed private sport enterprises employing a stakeholder perspective. Participants perceived a stakeholder perspective as being advantageous for all parties involved. These perceptions are supported by research in both business and community development domains.

From a business standpoint, Szwajkowski and Figlewicz (1999) contend there is no net financial cost for companies to engage in a stakeholder perspective, in fact, there may be financial benefits. Harrison et al. (2010) asserts private enterprises that are stakeholder-balanced, meaning managing productive relationships with investors, customers, employees, suppliers and communities, regularly outperform their shareholder-focused competitors. As presented in Chapter 2, research (Walker & Kent, 2009) shows consumers are increasingly interested in the

values and ethics of businesses. Private sport companies invested in community interests have coinciding stronger consumer evaluations and sales (Weiser & Zadek, 2000). The results of this study support this research. Participants were keenly aware of community investments, or lack thereof, from private sport enterprises. Overwhelmingly, participants reported stakeholder considerations, especially those related to the community and environment, as being essential to their perceptions and patronage of private enterprises.

Stakeholder Perceptions of Lansdowne

Most participants did not believe Lansdowne was invested in community wellbeing. Participants acknowledged that the redevelopment process and perceived lack of community input contributed to these feelings. Participants of this study interpreted Lansdowne operating from a shareholder perspective, therefore not "truly sincere about the community," and only "sincere about generating profit". These findings support the extensive work of Zirin (2010). Generally, participants perceived the redevelopment of Lansdowne being primarily about "bringing professional football back to Ottawa." According to Zirin (2010), venues like Lansdowne put stadiums first and people last. Zirin (2010) asserts that the subsidies received by private sport enterprises for stadium construction and redevelopment are totally disproportionate to the economic benefit they bring to communities. Participants expressed concern and frustration with these public – private partnerships, and their feelings about these agreements represent a key theme to emerge from this research.

Public sector incompetence. Chapter 4 outlined the feelings of betrayal the participants experienced, particularly in the process of Lansdowne redevelopment. Interestingly, although participants expected Lansdowne to employ a stakeholder perspective and consequently consider community wellbeing, participants expected "the city to press for that in their conversations".

Ultimately, participants placed blame on their elected officials for not fulfilling their democratic duties. Participants described the expectation of their government "to establish the rules of the game and tax," and to "defend the democracy so that what happened at Lansdowne doesn't happen". These findings are noteworthy. Participants believed private enterprises can and should contribute to community wellbeing, but allocated the responsibility of upholding these community obligations almost entirely to their elected officials. The feelings of betrayal and incompetence participants associated with the public sector also offers some insight to the hope and optimism some participants expressed for Lansdowne serving as a vehicle for community development in the future.

Becoming Community Game Changers. Despite the vast disproval surrounding both process and outcomes, some participants still believed Lansdowne could become a positive contributor in the community. Davies (2002) proposes that sport should play a more prominent role in addressing global and community challenges surrounding health, peace, development and ethics. Smith and Westerbeek (2007) similarly argue that the symbolic and distributive power of sport requires greater responsibilities for demonstrating corporate citizenship. One relevant company employing a stakeholder perspective and attempting to use their platform to positively impact the community is Waste Management.

Although not traditionally characterized as a private sport enterprise, Waste Management is the chief sponsor of the largest annual PGA Tour event on the circuit (Waste Management, 2020). Hosting over 700,000 fans throughout the week, Waste Management describes the event as a "party with a purpose" and "big event, big impact". The Waste Management Phoenix Open is a carbon neutral, zero waste tournament with a balanced water footprint. The event is focused on educating fans about ecological footprint, encouraging the use of recycled and repurposed

golf products and apparel, and promoting local partnerships with food and beverage vendors, merchandise operators, hospitality companies, etc. At the conclusion of the golf tournament, Waste Management produces a comprehensive sustainability report detailing the entire carbon footprint of the event and the work that goes into offsetting it across all lines of business (Phoenix Open, 2020).

Operating through a stakeholder perspective, Waste Management serves as a leader in environmental responsibility, community accountability, and business transparency. These three themes also represent key expectations participants described for Lansdowne. To be considered a community steward in the future, participants believed Lansdowne must be more intentional with their leadership, creative with their design, and stakeholder accountable with their business operations. As a starting point, participants believed Lansdowne should incorporate a far greater community consciousness.

Community Voice

Participants routinely described “just feeling like they're not listening”, a “lack of consultation”, and without “back and forth contemplation” when discussing Lansdowne. Most participants strongly believed the community should be a measured stakeholder, however, they did not feel like their interests were considered by Lansdowne. Moreover, participants did not feel like they had a *voice* in the redevelopment of the “most important piece of public land” in their community. These findings support similar research (Lando, 2003; Senecah, 2004; Stewart, Liebert, & Larkin, 2004, Susskind, McKearnan, & Thomas-Larmer, 1999) outlining the significant issues surrounding land use decision-making, particularly the lack of opportunities for community members to articulate their perspectives and learn from one another (Cumming & Norwood, 2012).

Community development planning requires an assessment of what tangible losses and gains are at stake (Beierle, 1999; Campbell, 2005; Lukensmeyer & Brigham, 2002; Plein, Green, & Williams, 1998; Sanoff, 2000; Susskind & Cruikshank, 1987). Susskind and Cruikshank (1987) argue that the public participation processes should: "(1) provide opportunities for genuine participation, (2) offer opportunities for systemic review, (3) be perceived as legitimate by participants, and (4) be viewed as setting a good precedent" (p.17). These assertions are supported by this research. Participants in this study didn't expect to dictate the entirety of redevelopment plans for Lansdowne, but they did expect to contribute and have some of their input reflected in the final design. Many participants "wanted it (Lansdowne) developed," but "wanted it developed in a better way with multiple ideas" and with plans that "understand community needs". Participants in this study wanted a deliberate forum for dialogue, contemplation, and collaboration. The comments of many of the participants represent key elements of Rothman's (1995) locality development.

Locality Development at Lansdowne

Participants expected to be valued stakeholders and therefore included in the redevelopment planning of Lansdowne. According to de Camargo et al. (2017), "inclusion proposes that stakeholders participate in identifying problems and contribute to the management of solutions in organizations. It consists of cooperation at all levels, and an organization should establish a governance framework in order to achieve better results" (p. 149). Participants wanted to collaborate with Lansdowne decision-makers to create a shared community space for capacity building, nurturing social capital, and developing greater civic consciousness through sport, leisure, and recreation. Unfortunately, participants reported that this proposed stakeholder holder inclusion (de Camargo et al., 2017) did not occur. The results of this study suggest two

important consequences to this lack of collaboration, including no system for corporate "checks and balances" and no design creativity to captivate community interest.

No counterbalance for corporate concentrated agendas. Participants believed Lansdowne operates independently, without the local government offering any public counterbalance to the private interests of Lansdowne. As previously detailed, participants expressed strong feelings of betrayal and resentment towards elected officials for their perceived ineptitude. Despite the perceived failure from appointed representatives, participants believed the community could offer "checks and balances" to the perceived exclusively dominate corporate agenda of Lansdowne. However, this would require proper public participation processes (Susskind & Cruikshank, 1987) and sincere collaboration. These findings support the research of Donaldson and Preston (1995) exploring the necessity of all stakeholders to be legitimately involved with an organization to obtain benefits. Donaldson and Preston (1995) argue that this participation would remove the potential for certain interests to be prioritized over others.

Ultimately, participants were seeking a community voice. They wanted to meaningfully participate in the redevelopment process of Lansdowne, and these efforts to be acknowledged and *heard* continue today. Clearly, participants feel like the lack of community collaboration with Lansdowne is a missed opportunity to positively contribute to community wellbeing. The results of this research suggest Lansdowne is also overlooking a potentially valuable opportunity to collaborate with the community. Businesses pursuing socially-oriented partnerships, including projects for community development, organizational social responsibility, and humanitarian initiatives, have dramatically increased (Sarkis, 2012). These collaborations help promote positive relationships between the community and corporations (de Camargo et al., 2017), enable a system of "checks and balances, and inspire creativity and contribution from all stakeholders.

No creativity to inspire civic engagement. One of the most important results of this research was the importance participants placed upon the aura and aesthetic design of shared spaces. This finding supports the research of Coley, Kuo, & Sullivan (1997) arguing the aesthetic design of spaces, specifically in regard to vegetation, directly influences the potential for community connections. Participants frequently described Lansdowne as “ugly”, “empty”, “commercial”, and “unwelcoming”. Participants believed Lansdowne lacked the “identity” required of any hub representing the heart and soul of a community.

Regrettably for Lansdowne and the community, this wasn’t due to a shortage of quality ideas. Chapter 4 outlined the numerous suggestions participants made to “redefine, rebuild, and respirit” Lansdowne. The issue was insufficient communication and collaboration. As a result, both parties missed out on potential benefits. If Lansdowne could have fully appreciated and implemented some community ideas in the redevelopment design, then they could potentially profit from a more welcoming and community-centered space. Reflecting community perspectives in the design of Lansdowne would certainly help develop an “identity”. Similarly, if community input would have been considered, then local residents would currently have a community space that supports their identified needs and desires. Most notably, a space that is aesthetically inviting.

Participants clearly articulated the type of shared spaces they perceived contributing to social connections, feelings of belonging, and individual and community wellbeing. These spaces were filled with vegetation, opportunities for organic play, and intentionally designed to showcase various forms of beauty. The attention participants gave to aesthetic design represents a key finding in this study. As one participant commented, “beauty endurance in a space, durability and beauty in a space encourages people to step into their best selves”. Participants

wanted spaces that were aesthetically pleasing and believed this beauty contributed to their individual and community wellbeing. The results of this study suggest that communities are not demanding private sport enterprises produce lavish structures. Instead, communities need shared spaces with more green space to play, more natural vegetation to slip into serenity, and more beauty to entice togetherness. These are the shared spaces that will positively contribute to community wellbeing. This is how the private sport sector can be a vehicle for community development.

Implications

The findings of this study offer three unique insights regarding community wellbeing and the private sport sector. First, although community members expect private sport enterprises to be accountable to various stakeholders, especially to the community and environment, they hold the public sector responsible for enforcing these obligations. Second, the community highly values opportunities for collective assembly through organic play and strongly associates these experiences with community wellbeing. Third, to inspire greater community engagement and wellbeing, shared spaces should be intentionally designed to highlight natural beauty. Finally, the results of this study contribute to the previously discussed data gap for the CIW regarding perceptions and experiences of Canadians in the leisure and culture domain. In addition to contributing to the detailed gap in literature, the results of this study also produced a community-oriented model for private sport enterprises to employ.

Theoretical Implications

The intention of this study was to evaluate community perceptions of the private sport sector's impact upon community wellbeing. The results of this study add to the existing research evaluating the positive applications of stakeholder theory for both corporations and communities (Blackburn, Doran, & Shrader, 1994). This research focuses predominately on community

wellbeing, thus emphasis was placed on highlighting community perceptions and experiences as stakeholders. Significant evidence exists for the corporate application of stakeholder theory and the corresponding elevation of communities (Stoney & Winstanley, 2001; Johnson & Scholes, 1999; Clarkson, 1995; Jones, 1995; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984). The findings of this research support these assertions and add to the field at-large.

Despite these theoretical similarities, this study does slightly diverge from previous research (Carmin, Darnall, & Mil-Homens, 2003; Ansari & Phillips, 2001; Curry, 2001; Beierle, 1998; Simrell & Feltey, 1998; Carter & Darlow, 1997; Fiorino, 1990), offering new contributions to stakeholder theory literature. The results of this study found that although community members expected private sport enterprises to be accountable to various stakeholders, especially to the community and environment, they believed the public sector was responsible for enforcing these obligations. In this way, they perceived a stakeholder perspective enabled the private sport sector to include community interests in their decision-making, but believed the public sector should ensure proper fulfillment of these community stakeholder commitments. This finding highlights the need for a general evaluative framework to assess how the interests of different stakeholders are being met. Although this study doesn't offer these measurable guidelines, the results do indicate this need as well as present some preliminary building blocks for this research moving forward.

Practical Implications

One of the central objectives of this research was to add to existing literature on the private sport sector's potential influence on social capital. This study presents two distinct findings to contribute to this body of knowledge, while also offering practical applications for private sport sector to consider. First, the results of this research indicate the significant value the community places on opportunities for collective assembly through organic play. The findings

suggest private sport enterprises could help facilitate important social capital opportunities (Theeboom et al., 2010), especially bonding, by providing a platform for spontaneous play. The results of this study suggest private sport enterprises don't need to invest in the most recent and renowned infrastructure. As an alternative, private sport enterprises can provide communities with an opportunity to cultivate social capital through more simplistic solutions: games (e.g., chess, ping-ping, boules, etc.), little "birdhouse" libraries for children, and free public performances. These findings support private sport enterprises providing the means for play and engagement but allowing the community to determine the ends to these exchanges. Consequently, private sport sector should provide the tools to play, but these connections through sport, leisure, and recreation should be unstructured and entirely community directed.

A second key discovery to emerge from this research was the desire for natural beauty. The results of this study found that aesthetically appealing shared spaces (Coley, Kuo, & Sullivan, 1997) coincided with positive contributions to individual and community wellbeing. Interestingly, the findings surrounding beauty suggest some correlations to Maslow's (1970) motivational theory exploring the human hierarchy of needs. This five-tier hierarchical model asserts that physiological needs are at the bottom of the hierarchy followed by security, belongingness, esteem, and self-actualization needs (Maslow, 1943). The results of this research suggest that beauty can help fulfill human needs associated with esteem and self-actualization by helping individuals step into their best selves and achieve their creative potential. In order to help individuals and communities flourish, private sport enterprises should provide shared spaces abundantly green, naturally preserved, and soulfully beautiful. These are the type of environments that will allow individuals and communities to existentially evolve.

CIW data gap. Lastly, all three of these findings contribute to the aforementioned CIW data gap for both *perceptions* and *experiences* of Canadians in the leisure and culture domain. As detailed in Chapter 2, the CIW outlined specific questions for both dimensions that lacked sufficient data. For *perceptions* of leisure, or feelings about leisure activities, these questions included, "why people participate, what needs are being met through participation, and how leisure and culture participation benefits them" (CIW, 2019). Similarly, for the dimension *experiences* of leisure, the CIW seeks to better understand "the meaning it (leisure) holds for people in relation to quality of life" (CIW, 2019). The results of this research provide valuable qualitative data to better understand each of these questions.

This study suggests people participate in sport, leisure, and recreation for the psychophysiological and social benefits associated with their involvement. Participation helps meet human needs for social connection and feelings of belonging. This participation benefits individuals by allowing them to develop social bonds in their community, resulting in feelings of collective familiarity and security. People believe their experiences in sport, leisure, and recreation directly correlate with their quality of life. Particularly important to quality of life is the accessibility of shared green spaces. As previously mentioned, these spaces should be intentionally designed to promote spontaneous play and showcase natural beauty. Although every community is certainly distinct, this data does offer a good starting point for future CIW discussion. Moreover, this data produced a model for private sport enterprises to employ.

Redefining, rebuilding, and respiriting private sport model. The subsequent model represents an important contributing factor of this dissertation. This model offers a visual representation of the theoretical and practical findings from this research. This model can be easily implemented by any private sport enterprise seeking to invest in a stakeholder perspective.

Although the inputs will vary depending on community needs and desires, the process and guidelines for stakeholder accountability could be valuable points of reference for businesses and communities alike. This model also serves as a potential resource for future research in the application of stakeholder theory in the private sport sector.

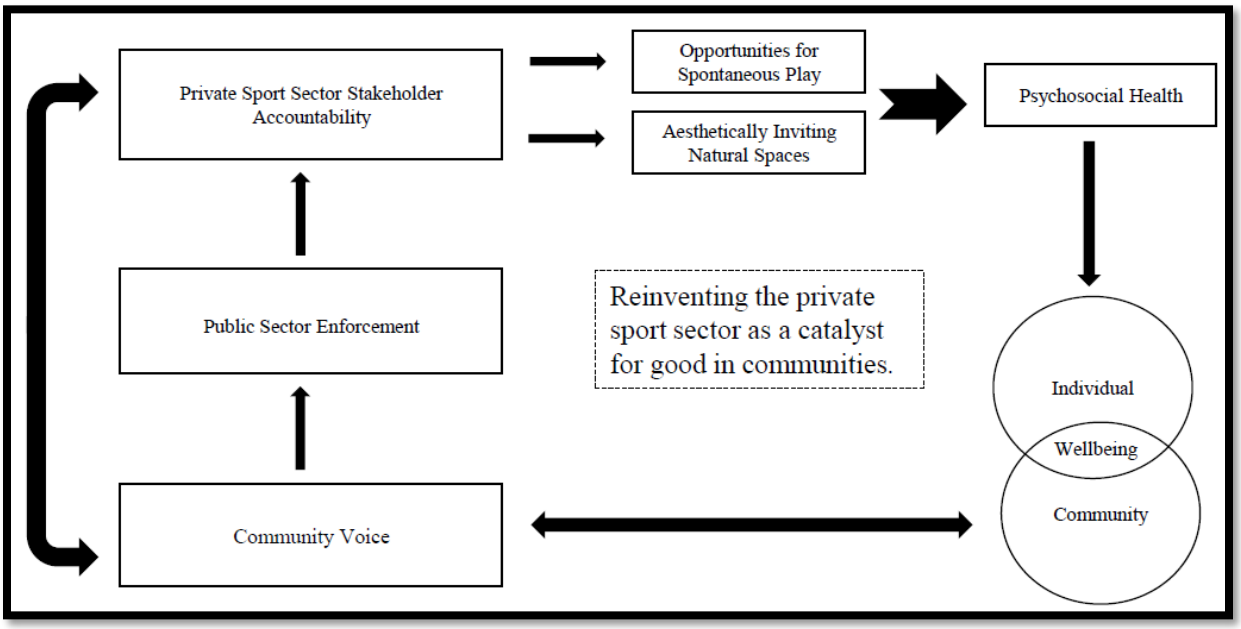


Figure 8

This model is rooted in community voice (see bottom left rectangle). This research found that community wellbeing is largely dependent upon community voice (e.g., policy feedback, development contributions, etc.). The double arrow in this model illustrates that community wellbeing and community voice directly influence one another. Similarly, community voice is also directly connected to the private sport sector (see top left rectangle) with a double arrow. Employing a stakeholder perspective requires the private sport sector to consider all stakeholders. In doing so, the private sport sector should have direct lines of communication with the community. As a result, the community can present their problems, concerns, needs, etc. directly to the private sport sector. Correspondingly, the private sport sector gains greater

awareness of community desires and can provide services more aligned with community needs. Direct and frequent communication benefits the community (e.g., more need tailored services) and the private sport sector (e.g., potential for increased customers).

Although direct communication allows the community to monitor the private sport sector's stakeholder mandate, this model reveals that the public sector is responsible for enforcing this accountability (see middle left rectangle). Ultimately, community voice is enacted through elected officials. These elected officials are responsible for enforcing the community stakeholder commitment. Consequently, even though the community is connected and communicating with the private sport sector in this model, the obligation to enforce community stakeholder considerations is the responsibility of the public sector.

This research suggests that when the private sport sector (see top left rectangle) is accountable to the community as a stakeholder, then the result will be the creation of more aesthetically inviting natural spaces (see bottom centre rectangle) with more opportunities for free play (see top centre rectangle). By providing more naturally preserved spaces with free play opportunities, the private sport sector will help facilitate improved psychosocial health (see top right rectangle) for individuals and communities alike. Improved physical, mental, emotional, social, and spiritual health (see top right rectangle – psychosocial health) contributes to the outcome of this model, which is greater individual and community wellbeing (see bottom right interconnecting circles). The interconnecting circles indicate the reciprocal relationship between individual and community wellbeing.

As aforementioned, the relationship between the private sport sector and community will vary depending on situation. Regardless, strong lines of communication must be developed between the community and the private sport sector. More open and recurrent communication

will help build trust and legitimacy between the community and private sport sector. Transparency is vital to these evolving relationships. The private sport sector, especially Lansdowne, can reinvent itself as a catalyst for good in communities by committing to greater local awareness, action, and accountability.

Recommendations

This dissertation offers three practical recommendations the private sport sector can employ to better serve communities: (1) a public–private–community partnership (PPCP), (2) hiring social workers in executive positions, and (3) showcasing and celebrating community businesses and people through local appreciation days. These three recommendations do not require large monetary commitments. However, they do necessitate an investment in time and people. If the private sport sector is going to serve as a vehicle for community development, then the community must be the driver.

Public–Private–Community Partnership (PPCP)

Public–private partnerships (PPPs) continue to expand as a common governing model for the delivery of public goods and services (Forrer et al., 2010). Forrer et al. (2010) suggests these partnerships will only increase as governments experience growing fiscal deficits and seek alternative methods to finance and deliver government services. Supporters of PPPs argue that the private sector offers more efficient and expansive opportunities to produce and deliver goods and services to communities than that of the public sector (Forrer et al., 2010). Many government leaders believe PPPs offer technical expertise, funding, and innovation that would otherwise not be available to address multifaceted public policy problems (Forrer et al., 2010). However, as PPPs have grown in popularity, so too has community accountability concerns.

PPPs complicate community accountability by involving private partners in government decision-making and program delivery (Forrer et al., 2010). As Kettl (2002) states, "government's performance is only as good as its ability to manage its tools and to hold its tool users accountable" (p. 491). One emerging variation to PPPs addressing some of these accountability issues is the public–private–community partnership (PPCP), in which the local community is one of the partners involved (Khosrow-Pour, 2015). PPCPs help safeguard local interests and concentrate on local development rather than compromising public services for the sake of profits (Khosrow-Pour, 2015). The private sport sector transitioning to PPCPs would significantly improve community relations, services, and accountability. Specifically, PPCPs would allow the private sport sector to create community led task forces.

Task Force. Private sport enterprises appointing community task forces would be valuable in building trust and legitimacy. Establishing trust and nurturing legitimacy on both sides of the public/private divide is the foundational principle underlying the nature of relations between public – private partnerships and the communities they serve. The community task force would help alleviate transparency issues surrounding PPPs. The task force would ensure the community had a "seat at the table" and voice in decision-making. The task force could work alongside the private sport sector to co-produce meaningful opportunities for the community. Ultimately, the task force would help ensure the private sport sector is accountable to community stakeholder interests. Another way to ensure the private sport sector is accountable to the community is to hire social workers in executive positions.

Private Sport Sector Social Workers

Social work is an interdisciplinary profession encompassing a variety of domains. Social workers serve those in need, including clients who are individuals, groups, communities, and

organizations (Newman et al., 2019). Increasingly, the private sport sector is recognizing the value of social workers and the transferable skills they can bring to the workplace (Macias, 2014). Social workers can help address an assortment of issues relating to the health and wellbeing of employees, to improving a company's financial, social, and environmental performance (Macias, 2014). Social workers can also be the catalyst for companies to give back in their communities.

Hiring executive level social workers would instill a greater community consciousness and employ a people-centered approach to management. Specifically, the application of the six social work values would force private sport management to reflect upon their business ethics and practices. These six social work values include: (1) service, (2) social justice, (3) dignity and worth of a person, (4) importance of human relationships, (5) integrity, and (6) competence (National Association of Social Workers, 2017). These values result in decision-making rooted in people and purpose, not simply profit. Hiring executive level social workers would enrich private sport environments, create healthier employees, and help build more cooperative community relationships.

Local Appreciation Days

One very simple yet effective way for the private sport sector to strengthen community relationships is by showcasing and celebrating community businesses and people. Local appreciation days present the private sport sector with an opportunity to invest in the local community and activate their corporate social responsibility slogans. These local appreciation days could spotlight local businesses, offer reduced rental costs to local vendors, or provide the community with free or low cost classes/services. Local appreciation days are also a great way to promote volunteerism. Private sport enterprises advocating activism as a currency could help

inspire greater community engagement. For example, professional sport teams could reserve an allotment of tickets for individuals who “buy” tickets through their volunteering efforts in the community. This would help encourage greater community awareness and action. This would also demonstrate sincere leadership and investment in the community by the private sport sector.

Acknowledging community ideas and contributions. Local appreciation days provide private sport enterprises with meaningful opportunities to celebrate the communities they serve. Private sport enterprises acknowledging community ideas and contributions represents an important symbolic action. Frustrations around community voice was a key finding in this research. Participants did not feel Lansdowne considered their values, ideas, or interests (e.g., additional vegetation, culturally themed gardens and greenhouses, European influenced outdoor cafes, permanently accessible recreation and leisure games, etc.). By simply listening and implementing some community ideas, the private sport sector could significantly improve community relations. Acknowledging community contributions confirms to the community that the private sport sector welcomes collaboration and respects stakeholder partnerships.

These three recommendations ask the private sport sector to invest in people. The private sport sector shifting to PPCPs, hiring social workers in executive positions, and acknowledging community contributions will certainly make them better civic stewards. Embodying a conscious capitalism where people matter as much as profit benefits communities and companies alike. Ultimately, healthy stakeholders lead to a healthy business system. The private sport sector may have resource limitations, but there is no limit to their creativity and compassion. To truly contribute to community wellbeing, private sport leaders should be managing with their heads and their hearts.

Limitations

Some limitations should be acknowledged in this study including, the homogenous community sample, exclusion of corporate perceptions of stakeholder theory, and finally member checking of IPA interpretations. Despite its relevance in IPA research (Pietkiewicz and Smith, 2014), the homogenous sample detailed in Chapter 3 was certainly a limitation in this study. The results of this study emphasize the importance in community voice. However, the voices of this study are not reflective of the entire community population. These voices represent the perspectives from individuals with privilege (e.g., race, class, ability, etc.). A more diverse group of community voices is certainly warranted for any future research. This would ensure the needs of more groups could be heard and hopefully met. Moreover, the researcher's own privileged positionality should also be acknowledged as a limitation in this study.

Another limitation to this study was the researcher's inability to recruit all relevant stakeholders. Although this study was focused on community perceptions of the private sport sector, a more thorough understanding of the corporate perception of community responsibility would have presented a more robust analysis. Several attempts were made in-person, online, and via phone to connect with Lansdowne administration. Unfortunately, nothing came to fruition. This is especially interesting considering the participants in this study did not feel private sport enterprises valued community voice or participated in any meaningful community outreach to better understand community needs.

Lastly, these findings must be acknowledged as *the researcher's interpretation* of community perceptions. Member checking is generally seen as an integral component for refining the accuracy and transferability of research (Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2006). However, member checks can also produce more data, which ultimately requires additional analysis and interpretation. As a result, member checking may not necessarily serve the most direct form of

validity assessment (Pope & Mays, 2006). Regardless of the many advantages and disadvantages to the member checking process, it is still a limitation that must be acknowledged. Any future research seeking to build on any of the findings of this study and apply them to larger samples must more systemically consider the evaluative criteria.

Future Research

This study offers a launching place for further research surrounding community wellbeing and the private sport sector. Specifically, highlighting community voice, private sport stakeholder accountability, and psychophysiological and social benefits of sport, leisure, and recreation. Future studies should incorporate a more diverse group of participants so community voice is *truly* representative of all identities and perspectives (Renert, Russell-Mayhew, & Arthur, 2013). This would add a critical element to more fully understanding the complexities of the topic.

Additionally, moving forward research should attempt to include perspectives from all relevant stakeholders. This work would build upon the work of Smith and Westerbeek (2007) exploring the private sport sector's ability deliver on community needs, while also enhancing their own economic prospects. Further studies should also take into account the need to establish a general evaluative framework to assess how the interests of different stakeholders are being met. It would be helpful to have some guidelines helping to ensure stakeholder accountability.

Finally, it may be useful to consider other designs for future studies, including a mixed methods approach and comparative research. Using both qualitative and quantitative methods to explore the relationship between community wellbeing and the private sport sector would produce multiple forms of measurement and analysis for a comprehensive data set. Similarly, a comparative research study exploring relatable case studies could present similar opportunities for extensive data. This could prove especially valuable for the purpose of practical applications.

Conclusion

This research aimed to examine the relationship between community wellbeing and the private sport sector. The intention of the researcher was to gain an understanding of community perceptions of and expectations for the private sport sector to actively contribute to community wellbeing. The results indicate that individual and community wellbeing is reciprocal and shaped by sport, leisure, and recreation, the private sport sector should be serving as community stewards, and community voices must be heard and reflected in both private and public agendas.

The methodology used in the study, IPA, allowed the researcher to extensively explore the perceptions of participants surrounding private sport enterprises, and to evaluate more intimately the experiences of participants at Lansdowne Park. The IPA approach was chosen for its reflection of the researcher's ontological, epistemological, and methodological beliefs. IPA was also selected for its double-hermeneutic design, which allowed the kind of flexible and open interpretation necessary for the researcher to fully address all themes presented in this study.

This research provides theoretical and practical contributions. From a theoretical standpoint, the results of this study slightly diverge from traditional stakeholder theory by including a public sector consideration. The expectation was for private sport enterprises to be accountable to various stakeholders, especially to the community and environment, but it was the perceived responsibility of the elected officials to enforce these obligations. Additionally, this study presents some preliminary recommendations for future research surrounding the need for a general evaluative framework for stakeholder assessment.

This study also provides important practical contributions. Based on the results of this research, private sport enterprises can positively contribute to community wellbeing by intentionally designing shared spaces that support spontaneous play and showcase natural beauty. In doing so, private sport enterprises can help inspire connection, contemplation, and

collective evolution. Each of these contributions offers important qualitative data to add to the CIW, especially towards the gaps in *perceptions* and *experiences* of Canadians in the leisure and culture domain. Finally, this study produced a community-oriented model for private sport enterprises to employ. This model can be referenced for theoretical and practical purposes.

Perhaps most significantly, this research has provided an opportunity for individuals to voice their needs, concerns, and hopes for their community. As Grace Lee Boggs suggests (2012), if we truly want to "rebuild, redefine, respirit" communities, then all stakeholders "must respond creatively with passion and imagination to the real problems and challenges that face them where they live and work" (Boggs, 2012, p. 178). We must redefine our businesses with people-centered models, we must rebuild our communities with private sport stewardship, and we must respirit our communities by investing in play, beauty, and each other.

References

A global community of leaders. (2018, May 18). B Corporations. Retrieved Jul 4, 2020, from **https://bcorporation.net/**

Absolute pilates. (2020). Retrieved July 4, 2020, from **https://absolutepilates.co/**

Alder, R., & Proctor, R. (2010). *Looking out/looking in: Interpersonal communication* (12th ed.). Boston: Wadsworth.

Allan, R., & Eatough, V. (2016). The use of interpretive phenomenological analysis in couple and family therapy research. *The Family Journal, 24*, 406-414.

Allin, P. (2007). Measuring societal well-being. *Economic & Labour Market Review, 1*(10), 46-52.

Allin, P., & Hand, D. (2014). *The wellbeing of nations: Meaning, motive and measurement*. Chichester: Wiley.

Amin, A. (2008). Collective culture and urban public space. *City: Analysis of urban trends, culture, theory, policy, action, 12*(1), 5-24.

Amponsah-Tawiah. K., & Mensah, J. (2015). Harmonizing stakeholder interests: The role of occupational health and safety. *African Journal of Business Management, 9(9),* 394-401.

Ansari, W. E., & Phillips, C. J. (2001). Interprofessional collaboration: A stakeholder approach to evaluation of voluntary participation in community partnerships. *Journal of Interprofessional Care, 15*(4), 351–368.

Arcordia, C. & Whitford, M. (2007). Festival attendance and the development of social capital. *Journal of Convention & Event Tourism. 8*(2), 1-18.

Argyle, M. (1999). Causes and correlates of happiness. In D. Kahneman, E. Diener, & N. Schwarz (Eds.), *Well-being: The foundations of hedonic psychology* (pp. 353–373). New York: Sage.

Atkinson, S. and Bagnall, A-M, & Corcoran, R., & South, J. & Curtis, S. (2020). Being well Together: Individual subjective and community wellbeing. *Journal of happiness studies, 21*(5). 1903-1921.

Bachrach, K., & Zautra, A. (1985). Coping with a community stressor: The threat of a hazardous waste facility. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 26,* 127-141.

Barnard, C. (1938). *Functions of the executive.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Barnes, M., Rodger, R., & Whyte, C. (1997). Empowerment through community development in recreation and leisure. *Journal of Leisurability, 24*(1), 1-4.

Baumeister, R., & Leary, M. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin, 117,* 497–529.

Beierle, T. C. (1998). *Public participation in environmental decisions: An evaluation framework using social goals*. Washington, DC: Resources for the Future.

Beierle, T. C. (1999). Using social goals to evaluate public participation in environmental decisions. *Policy Studies Review, 16*, 75–103.

Benner, P. (1985). Quality of life: A phenomenological perspective on explanation, prediction, and understanding in nursing science. *Advances in Nursing Science, 8*(1), 1-14.

Benner, P. (1994). *Interpretive phenomenology: Embodiment, caring, and ethics in health and illness*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Blackburn, V., Doran, M., & Shrader, C. (1994). Investigating the dimensions of social responsibility and the consequences for corporate financial performance. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 6*(1), 195-212.

Boggs, G.L. (2012). *The next American revolution: Sustainable activism for the twenty-first century*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Bourdieu, Pierre. (1985). The forms of capital. In J. Richardson (Ed.) *Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education* (241-258). New York: Greenwood.

Bourke, L. (2001). Rural communities. In S. Lockie and L. Bourke (Eds.) *Rurality bites: The social and environmental transformation of rural Australia* (118-128). Annandale: Pluto Press.

Brown, K., Brown, T., Jackson, J., Sellers, R., & Manuel, W. J. (2003). Teammates on and off the field? Contact with Black teammates and the racial attitudes of White student athletes. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 33*(7), 1379–1403.

Brown, J., & Hannis, D. (2012). *Community development in Canada* (2nd ed.). Toronto, ON: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Brueggemann, W. (2006). *The practice of macro social worker*. Chicago: Nelson-Hall Publishers.

Bruhn, J.G. (2011). *The sociology of community connections* (2nd ed.). New York: Spring.

Burt, R. (1992). *Structural holes: The social structure of competition*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press

Cacioppo, J. T., & Parick, W. (2008). *Loneliness, human nature and the need for social connection*. New York: W.W. Norton.

Cacioppo, J. T., & Hawkley, L. C. (2009). Loneliness. In M. R. Leary & R. H. Hoyle (Eds.), *Handbook of individual differences in social behavior* (p. 227–240). New York: The Guilford Press.

Cameron, J., & Kearns, P. (1985). Social and political action. In S. Yelaja, *An introduction to social work practice in Canada*. Scarborough: Prentice-Hall.

Campbell, K. B. (2005). Theorizing the authentic: Identity, engagement, and public space. *Admin and Society, 36*(6), 688–705.

Capaldi, E,J., & Proctor, R. (2005). Is the worldview of qualitative inquiry a proper guide for psychological research? *The American Journal of Psychology, 118*(2), 251-269.

Capital gains: CFL welcomes back Ottawa. (2008, March 25). CBC. Retrieved July 30, 2020, from **https://www.cbc.ca/sports/football/capital-gains-cfl-welcomes-back-ottawa-1.754770**

Carmin, J., Darnall, N., & Mil‐Homens, J. (2003). Stakeholder involvement in the design of U.S. voluntary environmental programs: does sponsorship matter? *Policy Studies Journal, 31*(4), 527–543.

Carter, N., & Darlow, A. (1997). Local Agenda 21 and developers: Are we better equipped to build a consensus in the 1990s? *Planning Practice & Research, 12*(1), 45–57.

Caspersen, C., Powell, K., & Christenson, G. (1985). Physical activity, exercise and physical fitness: definitions and distinctions for health-related research. *Public Health Reports, 100*(2), 126-31.

Chavis, D., & Wandersman, A. (1990). Sense of community in the urban environment: A catalyst for participation and community development. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 18,* 55-81.

Clarkson, M. B. E. (1995). A stakeholder framework for analyzing and evaluation corporate social performance. *The Academy of Management Review, 20*(1), 92−117.

Clement, R. (2005). The lessons from stakeholder theory for U.S. business leaders. *Business Horizons, (48),* 255–264.

Coakley, J. (1978). *Sport in society: Issues and controversies*. St. Louis: Mosby.

Coakely, J. (2014). *Sports in society: Issues and controversies* (Southern African ed.). Pretoria: Van Schaik

Cocklin, C. & Alston, M., (2003). *Community sustainability in rural Australian communities: A question of capital?* Academy of the Social Sciences in Australia: Canberra

Cohen, S., & Wills, T. A. (1985). Stress, social support, and the buffering hypothesis. *Psychological Bulletin, 98,* 310–357.

Coley, R., Kuo, F., & Sullivan, W. (1997). Where does community grow? The social context created by nature in urban public housing. *Environment & Behavior, 29*(1), 468-494.

Collins, M. F., & Kay, T. (2003). *Sport and social exclusion*. London: Routledge.

Compton, W. (2005). *An introduction to positive psychology.* Belmont: Thomson Wadsworth.

Costanza, R., Hart, M., Posner, S., & Talberth, J. (2009). *The Pardee Papers*: *Beyond GDP: The need for new measures of progress.* Boston: Boston University Creative Services

Cox, E. (1995). *A truly civil society*. Sydney: ABC Books.

Craig, G. (2002). Towards the measurement of empowerment: the evaluation of community development, *Journal of the Community Development Society, 33*(1), 124–146.

Creswell, J.W. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five designs*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Crossley, J., Jamieson, L., & Brayley, R. (2007). *Introduction to commercial recreation and tourism: An entrepreneurial approach* (5th ed0. Champaign: Sagamore Publishing.

Crotty, M. (1998). Introduction: The research process. In *The foundations of social research* (pp. 1-17). London, UK: Sage.

Cumming, G., & Norwood, C. (2012). The community voice method: Using participatory research and filmmaking to foster dialog about changing landscapes. *Landscape and Urban Planning, 105*(4), 34– 444.

Curry, N. (2001). Community participation and rural policy: representativeness in the development of Millennium Greens. *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management, 44*(4), 561−576.

Daly, P., & Posner, S. (2011). *Dēmos: Beyond GDP: New measures for a new economy*. Washington, D.C.: The American Prospect.

Davidson, w., & Cotter, P. (1989). Sense of community and political participation. *Journal of Community Psychology, 17*, 119-125.

Davies, R. (2002). Sport, citizenship and development: Challenges and opportunities for sports sponsors. *World Sports Forum*, Lausanne, 23 September 2002.

de Camargo, J.A., Mendonça, P.S.M., de Oliveira, J.H.C. *et al.* (2019). Giving voice to the silent: A framework for understanding stakeholders' participation in socially-oriented initiatives, community-based actions and humanitarian operations projects. *Ann Open Res 283*, 143–158. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10479-017-2426-2

Devine, M. A., & Parr, M.G. (2008). “Come on in, but not too far in”: Social capital in an inclusive leisure setting. *Leisure Sciences, 30*(95), 391-408.

Donaldson, T., & Preston, L.E. (1995). The stakeholder theory of the corporation: Concepts, evidence, and implications. *Academy of Management Review, (20),* 65–91.

Donnelly, P., & Coakley, J. J. (2002). *The role of recreation in promoting social inclusion* (Perspectives on social inclusion working paper series). Toronto: Laidlaw Foundation.

Driver, B. (1990). The North American experience in measuring the benefits of leisure. In E. Hamilton-Smith (Ed.), *Proceedings, national workshop on measurement of recreation benefits* (pp. 1-57).

Drover, G., & Kearns, K. (Eds.). (1993). *New approaches to welfare theory*. Andershot: Edward Elgar.

Durkheim, E. (2016). *The elementary forms of the religious life*. Charleston: CreateSpace Independent Publishing Platform (Original work published 1912).

Edington, C., & Chen, P. (2008). *Leisure as transformation*. Champagne: Sagamore Publishing.

Eime, R., Harvey, J., Sawyer, N., Craike, M., Symons, C., Polman, & R., Payne W. (2013). Understanding the contexts of adolescent female participation in sport and physical activity. *Research Quarterly for Exercise Sport*, *8*(2), 157–166.

Eitzen, S. (Ed.). (2015). *Sport in contemporary society: An anthology* (10th ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.

Fader, n., Legg, E., & Ross, A. (2020). Finding a sense of community in youth soccer: A composite vignette of the refugee experience. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 38*(2), 97–115.

Fairbairn, B., Bold, J., Fulton, M., Hammond-Ketilson, L., & Ish, D. (1991). *Co-operatives and community development: Economics in social perspective*. Retrieved from University of Saskatchewan, Centre for the Study of Cooperatives website: **https://usaskstudies.coop/research/Research-Publications/Subject-Guide.php#Aboriginal**

Fellin, P. (2001). *The community and the social worker* (3rd ed.). Ithaca: Peacock.

Fenton, L., White, C., Gallant, K-A, Gilbert, R., Hutchinson, S., Hamilton-Hinch, B., & Lauckner, H. (2017) The benefits of recreation for the recovery and social inclusion of individuals with mental illness: An integrative review. *Leisure Sciences, 39*(1), 1-19.

Finlay, L. (2011). *Phenomenology for therapists: Researching the lived world.* West Sussex, United Kingdom: Wiley-Blackwell.

Fiorino, D. J. (1990). Citizen participation and environmental risk: A survey of institutional mechanisms. *Science, Technology, & Human Values, 15*(2), 226–243.

Florida, R. (2003). Cities and the creative class. *City of Commence, 2*(1), 3-19.

Fontana, A. & Frey, J. H. (2005). The interview: From neutral stance to political involvement. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed., pp. 695-708). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Forrer, J., Kee, J., Newcomer, K. *et al*. (2010). Public–private partnerships and the public accountability question. *Public Administration Review,70*(3), 475-484.

Francis, J., Giles-Corti, B., Wood, L., & Knuiman, M. (2012). Creating sense of community: The role of public space. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 32*, 401-409.

Freeman, E. (1984). *Strategic management: A stakeholder approach*. Boston: Pitman.

Freeman, E. (2001). Stakeholder theory of the modern corporation. *Perspectives in Business Ethics Sie,* (3), 38-48.

Freeman, E., Harrison, J., & Wicks, A. (2007). *Managing for stakeholders: Business in the 21st century.* New Haven: Yale University Press.

Freeman, E., Harrison, J., Wicks, A., Parmar, B., & de Colle, S. (2010). *Stakeholder theory: The state of the art.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Freeman, L. (2001). The effects of sprawl on neighborhood social ties. *Journal of the American Planning Association, 67*, 69-77.

Friedman, M. (1970, September 13). The social responsibility of business is to increase its profits. *The New York Times*. **http://www.nytimes.com/2009/09/23/business/economy/23gdp.html**

Gabriel S, Valenti J, Naragon-Gainey K, Young AF. (2017). The psychological importance of collective assembly: Development and validation of the Tendency for Effervescent Assembly Measure (TEAM). *Psychological Assessment*, (11), 1349-1362. doi:10.1037/pas0000434

Gibbon, M., Labonte, R., & Laverack, G. (2002). Evaluating community capacity. *Health and Social Care in Community*, *10*, 485-491.

Gilchrist, A. (2003). Community development in the UK – possibilities and paradoxes, *Community Development Journal, 38*, 16-25.

Gill, M. (2014). The possibilities of phenomenology for organizational research. *Organizational Research Method, 17*(2), 118-137.

Giorgi, A. (2010). Phenomenology and the practice of science. *Existential analysis, 21*(1), 3-22.

Giulianotti, R. (2005). *Sport: A critical sociology*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Glover, T., & Hemingway, L. (2005). Locating leisure in the social capital literature. *Journal of Leisure Research, 37*(4), 387-401.

Glover, T., Shinew, K., & Parry, D. (2005). Building relationships, accessing resources: Mobilizing social capital in community garden contexts. *Journal of Leisure Research, 37*(4), 450-474.

Glover, T., & Parry, D. (2008). Friendships developed subsequent to a stressful life event: Links with leisure, social capital, and health. *Journal of Leisure Research, 40*(2), 208-230.

Glover, T. (2014). Leveraging leisure-based community networks to access social capital. In G. Walker, D. Scott, & M. Stodolska (Eds.), In *Leisure matters: The state and future of leisure studies* (pp. 1-20). State College, PA: Venture Publishing.

Goodman, P. (2009, September 22). Emphasis on growth is called misguided. *The New York Times*. **http://www.nytimes.com/2009/09/23/business/economy/23gdp.html**

Granovetter, M. (1983). The strength of weak ties: A network theory revisited. *Sociological Theory 1*(1), 201-233.

Guest, G., Bunce, A., & Johnson, L. (2006). How many interviews are enough? An experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods*, *18*(1), 59–82.

Harrison, J., Bosse, D., & Phillips, R. (2010). Managing for stakeholders, stakeholder utility functions and competitive advantage. *Strategic Management Journal, 31*(1), 58–74.

Hebblethwaite, S., & Pedlar, A. (2005). Community integration for older adults with mental health issues: Implications for therapeutic recreation. *Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 39*(4), 264–276.

Hessel, D. (1972). *A social action primer*. Louisville: The Westminster Press.

Hofley, C. (July 6, 2014). Through the years at Lansdowne Park in Ottawa. *Ottawa Citizen*. **https://ottawasun.com/2014/07/05/through-the-years-at-lansdowne**

Hogue, T. (1994). Community based collaboration: Community wellness multiplied. In *National Collaboration Network*. Columbus: Ohio State University.

Holstein, J., & Gubrium, J.F. (2003). *Inside interviewing: New lens, new concerns*. Thousand Oak: Sage.

Horwitt, S., (1992). *Let them call me a rebel: Saul Alinksy: His life and legacy*. New York: Vintage.

Ifedi, F. (2008). *Sport participation in Canada, 2005. Culture, tourism and the centre for education statistics*. Statistics Canada.

Interprovincial Sport and Recreation Council and the Canadian Parks and Recreation Association. (2015). *A framework for recreation in Canada 2015: Pathways to wellbeing*. Toronto, ON: National Recreation Framework Working Group.

Iwasaki, Y., Coyle, C., & Shank, J. (2010). Leisure as a context for active living, recovery, health and life quality for persons with mental illness in a global context. *Health Promotion International, 25*(4), 483–494.

Iwasaki, Y., Coyle, C., Shank, J. Messina, E., Porter, H., Salzer, M., & Koons, G. (2014). Role of leisure in recovery from mental illness. *American Journal of Psychiatric Rehabilitation, 17*(2), 147–165.

Johnson, G., & Scholes, K. (1999). *Exploring corporate strategy* (5th ed.). London: Prentice Hall.

Jones, T., & Wicks, A. (1999). Convergent stakeholder theory. *Academy of Management Review, (24),* 206–221.

Katzmarzyk, P., & Janssen, I. (2004). The economic costs associated with physical inactivity and obesity in Canada: An update. *Canadian Journal of Applied Physiology, 29*(1), 90-115.

Kettl, D. (2002). Managing indirect government. In L. M. Salamon (Ed.), *The tools of government: A guide to the new governance* (pp. 490–510). New York: Oxford University Press.

Khinduka, S. (1979). Community development: Potentials and limitations. In F. Cox et al., *Strategies of community organization*. Itasca: Peacock.

Khosrow-Pour, M. (2015). *Encyclopedia of information science and technology* (3rd ed.). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

Kidder, L. H., & Fine, M. (1987). Qualitative and quantitative methods: When stories converge. In M. M. Mark & R. L. Shotland (Eds.), *Multiple methods in program evaluation: New directions for program evaluation* (pp. 57-75). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kim, & R. Phillips (Eds.), *Community well-being and community development* (pp. 9–23). Dordrecht: Springer.

Kraus, R. (2001). *Recreation and leisure in modern society* (6th ed.). Sudbury, MA: Jones & Bartlett.

Kuo, F. E., Sullivan, W. C., Levine Coley, R., & Brunson, L. (1998). Fertile ground for community: Inner-city neighborhood common spaces. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *26*(6), 823–851.

Kvale, S. (2007). *Doing interviews*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Kvale, S. & Brinkmann, S. (2009). *Interviews learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles: Sage.

Laine A., & Vehmas H. (2017) Getting a grip on the private sport sector in Europe. In A. Laine & H. Vehmas (Eds.), *The private sport sector in Europe. Sports economics, management and policy, (14).* Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.

Lando, T. (2003). The public hearing process: A tool for citizen participation, or a path toward citizen alienation? *National Civic Review, 92*(1), 73–82.

Lansdowne. (2012, April 11). City of Ottawa. Retrieved July 20, 2020, from **https://ottawa.ca/en/lansdowne**

Lansdowne Park redevelopment. (2010, November 19). City of Ottawa. Retrieved July 20, 2020, from **https://web.archive.org/web/20120526122338/http://www.ottawa.ca/cs/groups/content/@webottawa/documents/pdf/mdaw/mdkz/~edisp/con056242.pdf**

Larkin, M., Watts, S., & Clifton, E. (2006). Giving voice and making sense in interpretative Phenomenological analysis. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*, 103-120. doi:10.1191/1478088706qp062oa

Larkin, M., & Thompson, A. R. (2011). Interpretative phenomenological analysis in mental health and psychotherapy research. In D. Harper & A. R. Thompson (Eds.), *Qualitative research methods in mental health and psychotherapy: A guide for students and practitioners*. Hoboken: Wiley-Blackwell.

Lau, A., Cummins, R., & McPherson,W. (2005). An investigation into the cross-cultural equivalence of the personal well-being index. *Social Indicators Research, 72*, 403–430.

Laumann, E., (1973). *Bonds of pluralism: The form and substance of urban social networks*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Lawson, H. (2005). Empowering people, facilitating community development, and contributing to sustainable development: The social work of sport, exercise, and physical education programs. *Sport, Education and Society, 10*(1) (2005), 135-160.

Lee S., & Kim, Y. (2015). Searching for the meaning of community well-being. In S. Lee, Y. Kim., & Phillips, R. (Eds.) *Community well-being and community development*. SpringerBriefs in Well-Being and Quality of Life Research: Springer International Publishing doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-12421-6_2

Legg, E., Wells, M., Newland, A., & Tanner, P. (2017). Exploring sense of community in adult recreational tennis. *World Leisure Journal, 59*(1), 39–53.

Lin, N. (2001). *Social capital: A theory of social structure and action*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Lin, Y., Chalip, L., & Green, B. (2016). The essential role of sense of community in a youth sport program. *Leisure Sciences*, *38*(5), 461–481.

Linville, P. W. (1987). Self-complexity as a cognitive buffer against stress related illness and depression. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52,* 663–676.

Lofland, J., & Lofland, L. (1995). *Analyzing social settings: A guide to qualitative observation and analysis* (3rd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing.

Loury, G., (1977). A dynamic theory of racial income differences. In P. Wallace & A. LaMond (Eds.), *Women, minorities, and employment discrimination,* (153-186) Lexington: D. C. Heath.

Lukensmeyer, C. J., & Brigham, S. (2002). Taking democracy to scale: Creating a town hall meeting for the twenty-first century. *National Civic Review, 91*(4), 351–366.

Macias, J. (October 6, 2014). Why private companies are taking on social workers. *The Guardian*. **https://www.theguardian.com/social-care-network/2014/oct/06/private-companies-social-workers**

Mannarini, T., Tartaglia, S., Fedi, A., & Greganti, K. (2006). Image of neighborhood, self-image and sense of community. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 26*(3), 202-214.

Marsden, P., & Campbell, K., (1984). Measuring tie strength. *Social Forces 63*(1), 482-501.

Marsh, H. W., & Kleitman, S. (2003). School athletic participation: Mostly gain with little pain. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 25*, 205–228.

Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review, 50*(4), 370–396.

Matarrita-Cascante, D. (2010). Changing communities, community satisfaction, and quality of life: A view of multiple perceived indicators. *Social Indicators Research, (98)*1, 105-127.

Maton, K. (2008). Empowering community settings: Agents of individual development, community betterment, and positive social change. *American Journal of Community Health, 41*(1-2), 4-21.

Mazey, S. (August 30, 2010). SuperEx's Lansdowne days come to a close. *Ottawa Citizen*. **http://www.ottawacitizen.com/SuperEx+Lansdowne+days+come+close/3457640/story.html**

McCracken, G. (1988). *The long interview*. Beverley Hills: Sage.

McHale, J., Vinden, P., Bush, L., Richer, D., Shaw, D., & Smith, B. (2005). Patterns of person and social adjustment among sport-involved and noninvolved urban middle-school children. *Sociology of Sport Journal, 22,* 119–137.

McKinney, J., Lithwick, D., Morrison, B., Nazzari, H., Isserow, S., Heilbron, B., & Krahn, A. (2016). The health benefits of physical activity and cardiorespiratory fitness, *British Columbia Medical Journal, 58*(3), 131-137.

McPherson, M., Smith-Livin, L. & Cook, J. (2001). Birds of a feather: Homophily in social networks. *Annual Review of Sociology, 27,* 414-444.

Michaelson, J., Mahony, S., & Schifferes, J. (2012). *Measuring wellbeing: a guide for practitioners*. London: New Economics Foundation.

Michalos, A., Smale, B., Labonté, R., Muharjarine, N., Scott, K., Moore, K., Swystun, L., Holden, B., Bernardin, H., Dunning, B., Graham, P., Guhn, M., Gadermann, A.M., Zumbo, B., Morgan, A., Brooker, A.-S., & Hyman, I. (2011). *The Canadian Index of Wellbeing.* Technical Report 1.0. Waterloo, ON: Canadian Index of Wellbeing and University of Waterloo.

Mignone, J. (2003). *Measuring social capital: A guide for First Nations Communities*. Winnipeg: Centre for Aboriginal Health Research, University of Manitoba.

Miller, R., & Barrio-Minton, C. (2016). Interpretative phenomenological analysis: A contemporary phenomenological approach. *Journal of Mental Health Counseling, 57*(4), 240-254

Minkler, M. (1990). Improving health through community organization. In K. Glanz, F. Lewis, & B. Rimer (Eds.), *Health behavior and health education: Theory, research, and practice.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Morden, P. & Delamere, F. (2005). Promoting resiliency: Inner-city-youth involvement in community-serving leisure. In *Book of abstracts: Eleventh Canadian Congress on leisure research* (419-23). Nanaimo, BC: Malaspina University College.

Moscardo, G. (2012). Building social capital to enhance the quality of life destination. In M. Uysal, (Ed.), *Handbook of tourism and quality-of-life research: Enhancing the lives of tourists and residents of host communities* (402-). New York: Springer.

Mueller, L. (2010, October 28). Heritage Ottawa will push for provincial intervention at Lansdowne. *Ottawa Citizen*. Retrieved July 20, 2020, from **https://ottawacitizen.com/?origin=ottawacommunitynews**

Murphy, V. (2017). *Harvard Business Review*: *Work and the loneliness epidemic: Reducing isolation at work is good for business.* Boston: Harvard Business Publishing

National Association of Social Workers (NASW). (2017). *Code of ethics*. Washington, DC: NASW Press.

Ndaguba EA, Hanyane B. (2019). Stakeholder model for community economic development in alleviating poverty in municipalities in South Africa. *Journal of Public Affairs, 19*(1), https://doi.org/10.1002/pa.1858

Newman, D. (2000). *Sociology: Exploring the architecture of everyday life* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Pine Forge Press.

Newman, T., Okamoto, K., Kimiecik, C. *et al.* (2019) The role of social workers in sport: Shared values, interprofessional collaborations, and unique contributions, *Journal of Sport Psychology in Action,* 10(3), 160-173.

Ohmer, M. & Meadowcroft, P., Freed, K. & Lewis, E. (2009). Community gardening and community development: Individual, social and community benefits of a community conservation program. *Journal of Community Practice, 17*(4), 377-399.

One Event, Endless Possibilities. (2020, June 1). Waste Management Phoenix Open. Retrieved August 20, 2020, from **https://www.wm.com/us/en/inside-wm/phoenix-open**

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). (2001). *Corporate social responsibility: Partners for progress*. Paris, France: Secretary General of the OECD.

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). (2016). *Life Satisfaction*. http://www.oecdbetterlifeindex.org/topics/life-satisfaction/

Our Neighborhood. (2016). Glebe Community Association. Retrieved July 20, 2020, from **https://glebeca.ca/our-neighbourhood/**

Parent, M. (2008). Evolution and issue patterns for major-sport-event organizing committees and their stakeholders. *Journal of Sport Management, 22*(2), 135-164.

Parker, I. (2005). *Qualitative Psychology: Introducing Radical Research.* Maidenhead, Berkshire: Open University Press.

Parmar, B., Freeman, E., Harrison, J., Wicks, A., Purnell, L., & de Colle, S. (2010). Stakeholder theory: The state of the art. *The Academy of Management Annals, 4*(1), 403-445.

Pearson, M. (2016). (January 15, 2016). The new Lansdowne: Not a crown jewel, but better than a lump of asphalt. *The Ottawa Citizen*. **http://ottawacitizen.com/news/local-news/lansdowne-early-reviews-main**

Pedersen, S., & Seidman, E. (2004). Team sports achievement and self-esteem development among urban adolescent girls. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 28*, 412–422.

Perkins, D., & Taylor, R. (1996). Ecological assessment of community disorder: Their relationship to fear of crime and theoretical implications. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 24*, 63-107.

Phillips, R. (2003). *Stakeholder theory and organizational ethics.* San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Pietkiewicz, I. & Smith, J. (2012). A practical guide to using Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis in qualitative research psychology. *Psychological Journal, 18*(2), 361-369

Pietkiewicz, I. & Smith, J. A. (2014). A practical guide to using interpretative phenomenological analysis in qualitative research psychology. *Psychological Journal, 20,* 7-14. doi:10.14691/CPPJ.20.1.7

Pinker, S. (2015). *The village Effect: How face-to-face contact can make us healthier, happier, and smarter*. New York: Spiegel & Grau.

Plein, C. L., Green, K. E., & Williams, D. G. (1998). Organic planning: A new approach to public participation in local governance. *The Social Science Journal, 35*(4), 509–523.

Pope, C., & Mays, N. (2006). *Qualitative research in health care.* Malden: Wiley Blackwell.

Post, J., Preston, L., & Sachs, S. (2002). Managing the extended enterprise: The new stakeholder view. *California Management Review, 45*(1), 6–28.

Prezza, m., & Costantini, S. (1998). Sense of community and life satisfaction: Investigation in three different territorial contexts. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology, 8,* 181-194.

Putnam, R., 1995: Bowling alone: America's declining social capital. *Journal of Democracy, 6*, 65–78.

Putnam, R. (2000). *Bowling alone: The collapse and revival of American community*. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Reevely, D., & Cockburn, N. (2011, July 29). City of Ottawa wins Lansdowne case. *Ottawa Citizen*. p. C1.

Renert, H., Russell-Mayhew, S., & Arthur, N. (2013). Recruiting ethnically diverse participants into qualitative health research: Lessons learned. *The Qualitative Report, 18*(23), 1-23.

Rokach, A. (2014). Loneliness of the marginalized. *Open Journal of Depression, 3(*4), 147-153.

Rothman, J., & Tropman, J. (1987). Models of community organization and macro practice perspectives: Their mixing and phasing. In F. Cox, J. Erlich, J. Rothman, & J. Tropman (Eds.), *Strategies of community organization: Macro practice* (4th ed.) (3-26) Itasca: Peacock.

Rothman, J. (1995). Approaches to community intervention. In J. Rothman, J. Erlich, and J. Tropman (Eds.), In *Strategies of community intervention*. (pp. 26-63). Itasca, IL: Peacock.

Rowe, J., & Kahn, R. L. (1998). *Successful aging.* New York: Dell.

Rupert, J. (April 23, 2009). City to negotiate for sole-source deal: Council's decision could spell the end for Melnyk's plan for Kanata soccer stadium. *Ottawa Citizen.* p. C1.

Sage, G., & Eitzen, S. (2012). *Sociology of North American sport* (9th ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.

Sanoff, H. (2000). *Community participation methods in design and planning*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Sarason, S. (1974). *The psychological sense of community: Prospects for a community psychology*. Northampton: Brookline Books.

Sarkis, J. (2012). Models for compassionate operations. *International Journal of Production Economics*, *139*(2), 359–365.

Schostak, J. (2006). The interview in the project context. In *Interviewing and representation in qualitative research*. In C. Moustakas, *Phenomenological research methods.* Newbury Park: Sage.

Senecah, S. (2004). The trinity of voice: The role of practical theory in planning and evaluating the effectiveness of environmental participatory processes. In S. P. Depoe, J. W. Delicath, & M.-F. A. Elsenbeer (Eds.), *Communication and public participation in environmental decision making* (pp. 13–33). Albany: State University of New York Press.

Shinew, K.J., Glover, T.D., & Parry, D.C. (2004). Leisure spaces as potential sites for interracial interaction: Community gardens in a segregated urban area. *Journal of Leisure Research, 36*(3), 336-355.

Simrell, K. C., & Feltey, K. M. (1998). The question of participation: Toward authentic public participation in public administration. *Public Administration Review, 58*(4), 317–326.

Sivan A., & Ruskin, H. (2000). Introduction. In A. Sivan & H. Ruskin (Eds.), *Leisure education, community development and populations with special needs* (pp. 1-12). New York: CAB International.

Skinner, J., Zakus, D., & Edwards, A. (2005). *Football communities: Research report.* Sydney: The Football Federation of Australia.

Skinner, J., Zakus, D., & Cowell, J. (2008). Development through sport: Building social capital in disadvantaged communities. *Sport Management Review,11*, 253-275.

Smith, A., & Westerbook, H. (2007). Sport as a vehicle for deploying corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Corporate Citizenship, 2007*(25), 43-54.

Smith, J. (1996). Beyond the divide between cognition and discourse: Using interpretative phenomenological analysis in health psychology. *Psychology & Health, 11*(2), 261-271.

Smith, J. (2004). Reflecting on the development of interpretative phenomenological analysis and its contribution to qualitative research in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 1*, 39-54.

Smith, J. (2010). Evaluating the contribution of interpretative phenomenological analysis. *Health Psychology Review, 5*(1), 9-27.

Smith J. (2011). Evaluating the contribution of interpretative phenomenological analysis. *Health Psychology Review, 5*, pp. 9-27.

Smith, J., Harré, R., & Van Langenhove, L. (1995). Idiography. In J. Smith, R. Harré, & L. Van Langenhove, *Rethinking Psychology* (pp. 56-69). London: Sage.

Smith, J., & Osborn, M. (2003). Interpretative phenomenological analysis. In J. A. Smith (Ed.), *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods* (pp. 53-80). London: Sage.

Smith, J., Flowers, P., & Larkin, M. (2009). *Interpretative phenomenological analysis: Theory, method, and research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Smith, P. D., & McDonough, M. H. (2001). Beyond public participation: Fairness in natural resource decision making. *Society and Natural Resources, 14*, 239–249.

Smith, S. (2000). Mobilizing social resources: Race, ethnic, and gender differences in social capital and persisting wage inequalities. *The Sociological Quarterly, 41*(4), 509-537.

Spaaij, R. (2013). Cultural diversity in community sport: An ethnographic inquiry of Somali Australians' experiences. *Sport Management Review, 16*(1), 29–40.

Spranler, K., & O'Sullivan, E. (2006). "Health, fitness, wellness, and livability." In *Introduction to recreation and leisure* (pp. 289-306). Champagne: Human Kinetics.

Statistics Canada. (2015). *Findings: Physically active Canadians*. Retrieved July 20, 2020, from, **www.statcan.gc.ca/pub/82-003-x/2006008/article/phys/10307-eng.htm.**

Stevenson, C. (2008, October 18). Lansdowne foes offside by turning announcement into a circus. *Slam Sports*.

Stewart, W. P., Liebert, D., & Larkin, K. W. (2004). Community identities as visions for landscape change. *Landscape and Urban Planning, 69*, 315–334.

Stiglitz from Beyond GDP: New measures for a new economy [Comment in the article "What you measure affects what you do"]. Washington, D.C.: *The American Prospect*.

Stodolska, M., & Alexandris, K. (2004). The role of recreational sport in the adaptation of first generation immigrants in the United States. *Journal of Leisure Research, 36*(3), 379–413.

Stoeker, R. (2001). Power or programs? Two paths to community development, *International Association for Community Development Conference.* Auckland, New Zealand.

Stoney, C., & Winstanley, D. (2001). Stakeholding: confusion or utopia? Mapping the conceptual terrain. *Journal of Management Studies, 38*(5), 603–626.

Sullivan, W., Kuo, F., & DePooter, S. (2004). The fruit of urban nature: Vital neighborhood spaces. *Environment and Behavior, 36*(5), 678–700.

Sung, H. (2016). *The influence and role of arts on community well-being* (Doctoral dissertation). https://repository.asu.edu//attachments/170292/content/Sung_asu_0010E_15684.pdf

Sung, H., & Phillips, R. (2016). Conceptualizing a community well-being and theory construct. In Y. Kee, S. J. Lee, & R. Phillips (Eds.), *Social factors and community wellbeing* (pp. 1–12). Cham: Springer.

Susskind, L., & Cruikshank, J. (1987). *Breaking the impasse: Consensual approaches to resolving public disputes*. New York: Basic Books.

Susskind, L., McKearnan, S., & Thomas-Larmer, J. (1999). *The consensus building handbook: A comprehensive guide to reaching agreement*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Szreter, S., & Woolcock, M. (2004). Health by association? Social capital, social theory, and the political economy of public health. *International Journal of Epidemiology, 33*(4), 650-667.

Szwajkowski, E., & Figlewicz, R. (1999). Evaluating corporate performance: A comparison of the Fortune reputation survey and the Socrates social rating database. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 112*(1), 137-54.

Tanner, C., Benner, P., Chesla, C., & Gordon, D. (1993). The phenomenology of knowing the patient. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship, 25*(4), 273-280.

Taylor, C.S. (1996). Sports and recreation: Community anchor and counterweight to conflict. *Peace and Conflict: Journal of Peace Psychology, 2*. doi: 10.1207/s15327949pac0204_5

Theeboom, M., Haudenhuyse, R., & De Knop, P. (2010) Community sports development for socially deprived groups: A wider role for the commercial sports sector? A look at the Flemish situation. *Sport in Society, 13*(9), 1395–1413.

Tondora, J., Miller, R., Slade, M., & Davidson, L. (2014). *Partnering for recovery in mental health*. Hoboken: John Wiley & Sons.

Tomiak, J. (2016). Unsettling Ottawa: Settler colonialism, indigenous resistance, and the politics of scale. *Canadian Journal of Urban Research, 25*(1), 8-21.

Turner, V.W. (1969). *The ritual process: Structure and anti-structure.*

Twenge, J., Spitzberg, B., & Campbell, W. (2019). Less in-person social interaction with peers among U.S. adolescents in the 21st century and links to loneliness. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 36*(6), 1892-1913.

United Nations. (1955). *Social progress through community development*. New York: United Nations.

Vail, S. (2007). Community development and sports participation, *Journal of Sport Management, 21*, 571-596.

Walker, A, & Kent, M. (2009). Do fans care? Assessing the influence of corporate social responsibility on consumer attitudes in the sport industry. *Journal of Sports Management, 2009*(23), 743-769.

Walseth, K. (2006). Sport and belonging. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport, 41*(3-4), 447−464.

Wann, D. L., & Hamlet, M. A. (1994). The Joiners Scale: Validation of a measure of social-complexity. *Psychological Reports, 74,* 1027–1034.

Warner, S., & Leierer, S. (2015). Building community via sport for adolescents. *Journal of Applied Sport Management, 7*(4), 84–102.

Warren, R. (1987). *The community in America* (3rd ed.). Lanham: University Press of America.

Waters, L. E., & Moore, K. A. (2002). Reducing latent deprivation during unemployment: The role of meaningful leisure activity. *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology, 75,* 15–32.

Weiser, J., & Zadek, S. (2000). *Conversations with disbelievers: Persuading companies to address social challenges*. New York: The Ford Foundation.

Wellbeing as a lens for decision-making in Canada. (2020). Canadian Index of Wellbeing. Retrieved July 20, 2020, from **https://uwaterloo.ca/canadian-index-wellbeing/**

We're in business to save our home planet. (2020). Patagonia. Retrieved July 4, 2020, from **https://www.patagonia.com/activism/**

White, S. (2010). Analysing well-being: A framework for developing practice. *Development in Practice, 20*(2), 158–172.

Whitley, M. A., Coble, C., & Jewell, G. S. (2016). Evaluation of a sport-based youth development programme for refugees. *Leisure, 40*(2), 175–199.

Wilkinson, P., & Quarter, J. (1995). A theoretical framework for community-based development. *Economic and Industrial Democracy, 16*(4), 525–551.

Wilkinson, P., & Quarter. J. (1996). *Building a community-controlled economy: The Evangeline co-operative experience*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

Willig, C. (2007). *Introducing Qualitative Research in Psychology: Adventures in Theory and Methods*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Wiseman, J., & Brasher, K. (2008). Community wellbeing in an unwell world: Trends, challenges, and possibilities. *Journal of Public Health Policy, 29*(3), 353-366.

World Health Organization. (2003). *Health and development through physical activity and sport*. Geneva: World Health Document Production Services.

World Leisure and Recreation Association. (2003). World Leisure and Recreation Association international position statement on leisure education and community development. *Leisure Sciences, 25*, 97-100.

Wright, S. (2004). Child protection in the community: A community development approach, *Child Abuse Review, 13,* 384-398.

Yanow, D., & Schwartz-Shea, P. (2006). *Interpretation and Method: Empirical Research Methods and the Interpretive Turn.* New York: M.E. Sharpe.

Yin, R. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Zirin, D. (2010). *Bad sports: How owners are ruining the games we love*. New York: The New Press.

Appendix A – Interview Guide

1) Tell me about yourself. What is your background? How did you get here?

2) How does sport, leisure, and recreation impact your personal wellbeing – quality of life?

3) What does community wellbeing mean to you?

4) Define community development.

5) What are some of the most important needs of the community? What is your role? Do you pursue community outreach to better understand community realities?

6) Do you believe the Glebe community actively pursues community development?

7) How does community development impact your community? How does cultural diversity?

8) How often do you frequent Lansdowne Park? Why and what venues/features/programs? If no, why not?

9) In what way is your life different because of your participation or non-participation in Lansdowne Park services?

10) Do you feel the private sport sector can serve as a vehicle for community development?

11) In what ways do you believe Lansdowne Park has a fiduciary responsibility to community wellbeing? Do you feel like a valued stakeholder?

12) How could Lansdowne Park better serve the Glebe community?

13) Is there anything we should have talked about but didn't?

Appendix B – Informed Consent

Title of the study: The Stakes are High: Reinventing the Private Sport Sector as a Catalyst for Good in Communities

Name of researcher: Marianna Locke
PhD Candidate, School of Human Kinetics
University of Ottawa

Name of supervisor: Dr. George Karlis
Full Professor, School of Human Kinetics
University of Ottawa

Invitation to Participate: I am invited to participate in the abovementioned research study conducted by Marianna Locke in the context of a PhD thesis, under the supervision of Dr. George Karlis.

Purpose of the Study: The purpose of the study is to better understand the relationship between commercial sport and recreation enterprises and community wellbeing. Specifically, to examine the relationship between Lansdowne Park and the Glebe community. The objective being to create opportunities for both the commercial investor and community to develop.

Participation: My participation will entail 1 interview lasting approximately 60 minutes. The interviews will consist of around 15 questions. This interviews has been scheduled at my convenience. We will meet at a coffee shop in Ottawa, Ontario or an Ottawa Public Library. The interview will be audio-recorded. I will have the opportunity to review the interview transcript.

Risks: My participation in this study will not demand I volunteer very personal information. There is no known risk to my participation. Additionally, I have received assurance from the researcher that I can terminate my involvement in her study before or throughout the research process.

Benefits: My participation in this study will allow me to actively contribute to the community development process. Commercial sport and recreation enterprises represent an ideal forum in cultivating improved wellness and social capital. Commercial sport and recreation enterprises provide a venue where individuals can not only socially connect, but also partake in many valuable physical, mental, and emotional experiences.

This investment in individual and community wellbeing is largely advantageous to businesses as well. Effective community relationships will present each party (community and commercial sport and recreation enterprises) the opportunity to pursue beneficial associated assets.

Confidentiality and anonymity: I have received assurance from the researcher that the information I will share will remain strictly confidential. I understand that the contents will be used only for the researcher's dissertation and that my confidentiality will be protected.

Anonymity will be protected through the application of pseudonyms. Further, all transcripts sent for review will be password protected. The identity of the participants will not be revealed in publications.

Conservation of data: The data collected (e.g. audio recordings of interviews, transcripts, notes, etc.) will be secured in a locked file cabinet in the office of Dr. George Karlis on the University of Ottawa campus. The data will be conserved for 5 years. After this time all hard copy documents will be shredded and electronic data destroyed.

Voluntary Participation: I am under no obligation to participate and if I choose to participate, I can withdraw from the study at any time and/or refuse to answer any questions, without suffering any negative consequences. If I choose to withdraw, all data gathered until the time of withdrawal will be excluded from publication.

Acceptance: I, _____, agree to participate in the above research study conducted by Marianna Locke of the School of Human Kinetics at the University of Ottawa, which research is under the supervision of Dr. George Karlis.

If I have any questions about the study, I may contact the researcher or her supervisor.

If I have any questions regarding the ethical conduct of this study, I may contact the Protocol Officer for Ethics in Research, University of Ottawa, Tabaret Hall, 550 Cumberland Street, Room 154, Ottawa, ON K1N 6N5

Tel.: (613) 562-5387
Email: ethics@uottawa.ca

There are two copies of the consent form, one of which is mine to keep.

Participant's signature: _____

Date: _____

Researcher's signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix C – Recruitment Text

Hello Glebe Community Association,

My name is Marianna Locke. I am a PhD candidate in the School of Human Kinetics at the University of Ottawa. I work under the supervision of Dr. George Karlis. The reason that I am contacting you is that I am conducting research on the relationship between commercial sport and recreation enterprises and community wellbeing. Specifically, I will be examining the relationship between Lansdowne Park and the Glebe community. My objective is to create a momentum of desirability for both the commercial investor and community.

The suggested momentum of desirability emphasizes a close correlation between the profit seeking motives of commercial sport and recreation enterprises, and the collective wellbeing objectives of communities. Frequently this relationship is perceived to be opposing, with dissimilar interests and objectives segregating commercial enterprises and communities. However, I believe with properly instituted strategies, commercial sport and recreation enterprises and communities may similarly experience augmenting assets.

Participation in this study would involve 1 interview lasting approximately 60 minutes. A series of questions will be asked regarding personal background, leisure and recreation, community business expectations, and community wellbeing. I am seeking participants who are both active Lansdowne Park users and non-users of the venue. The interview (which will be recorded with your permission) will be conducted in a conference room at an Ottawa Public Library. I would like to assure you that this study has been reviewed and received ethics clearance through a University of Ottawa Research Ethics Committee.

I would greatly appreciate your time and contributions. Thank you for your consideration.

Regards,
Marianna Locke
PhD Candidate
School of Human Kinetics
University of Ottawa

Appendix D – Glebe Report Submission

Marianna Locke is a PhD candidate at the University of Ottawa. She is conducting research on the relationship between commercial sport and recreation enterprises and community wellbeing. Specifically, the relationship between Lansdowne Park and surrounding communities. Her research will evaluate how various social, economic, environmental, cultural, political, and recreational conditions influence individuals' ability to flourish and fulfill their human potential. She is seeking participants who are both active Lansdowne Park users and non-users of the venue. Participation in this study would involve 1 interview lasting approximately 60 minutes. A series of questions will be asked regarding personal background, leisure and recreation, community business expectations, and community wellbeing. If interested, please contact Marianna. She will happily provide further information and formalities at this time. Thank you for your time and consideration.

Appendix E – University of Ottawa Ethics Approval

File Number: H10-17-05 **Date (mm/dd/yyyy):** 11/30/2017

Université d'Ottawa
Bureau d'éthique et d'intégrité de la recherche

University of Ottawa
Office of Research Ethics and Integrity

Ethics Approval Notice

Health Sciences and Science REB

Principal Investigator / Supervisor / Co-investigator(s) / Student(s)

First Name	Last Name	Affiliation	Role
George	Karlis	Health Sciences / Human Kinetics	Supervisor
Marianna	Locke	Health Sciences / Human Kinetics	Student Researcher

File Number: H10-17-05

Type of Project: PhD Thesis

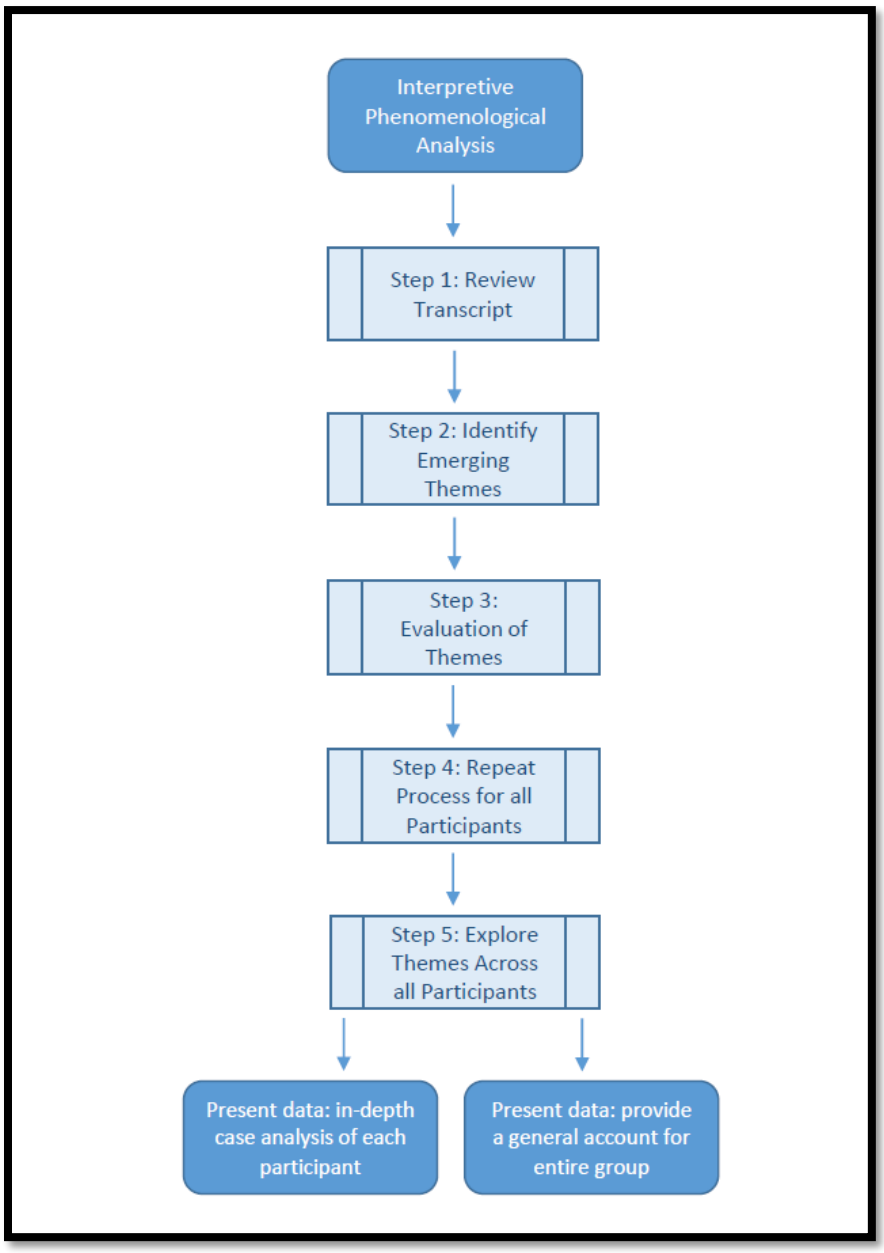
Title: Sharing Profits: Community Development through Corporate Sport

Approval Date (mm/dd/yyyy)	Expiry Date (mm/dd/yyyy)	Approval Type
11/30/2017	11/29/2018	Approval

Special Conditions / Comments:
N/A

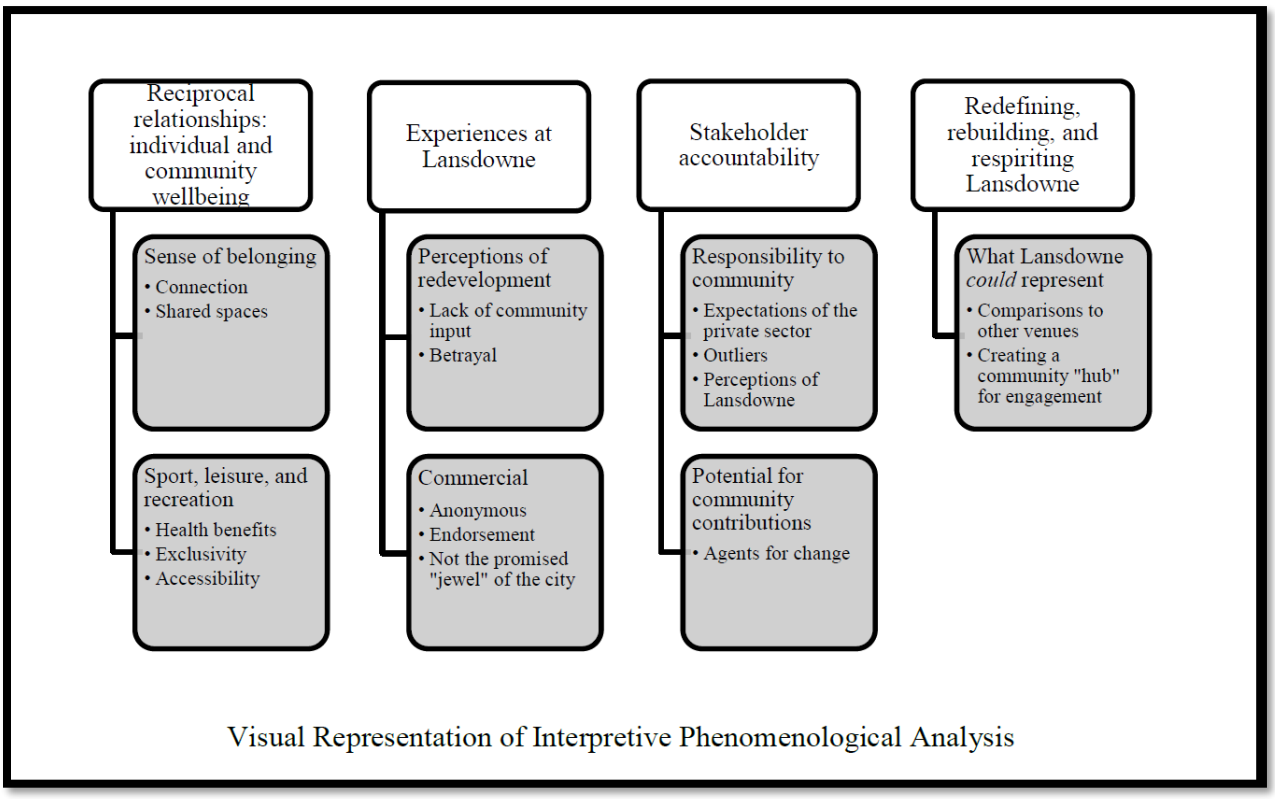
550, rue Cumberland, pièce 154 Ottawa (Ontario) K1N 6N5 Canada
550 Cumberland Street, room 154 Ottawa, Ontario K1N 6N5 Canada
(613) 562-5387 • Téléc./Fax (613) 562-5338
www.recherche.uottawa.ca/deontologie/ www.research.uottawa.ca/ethics/

Appendix F



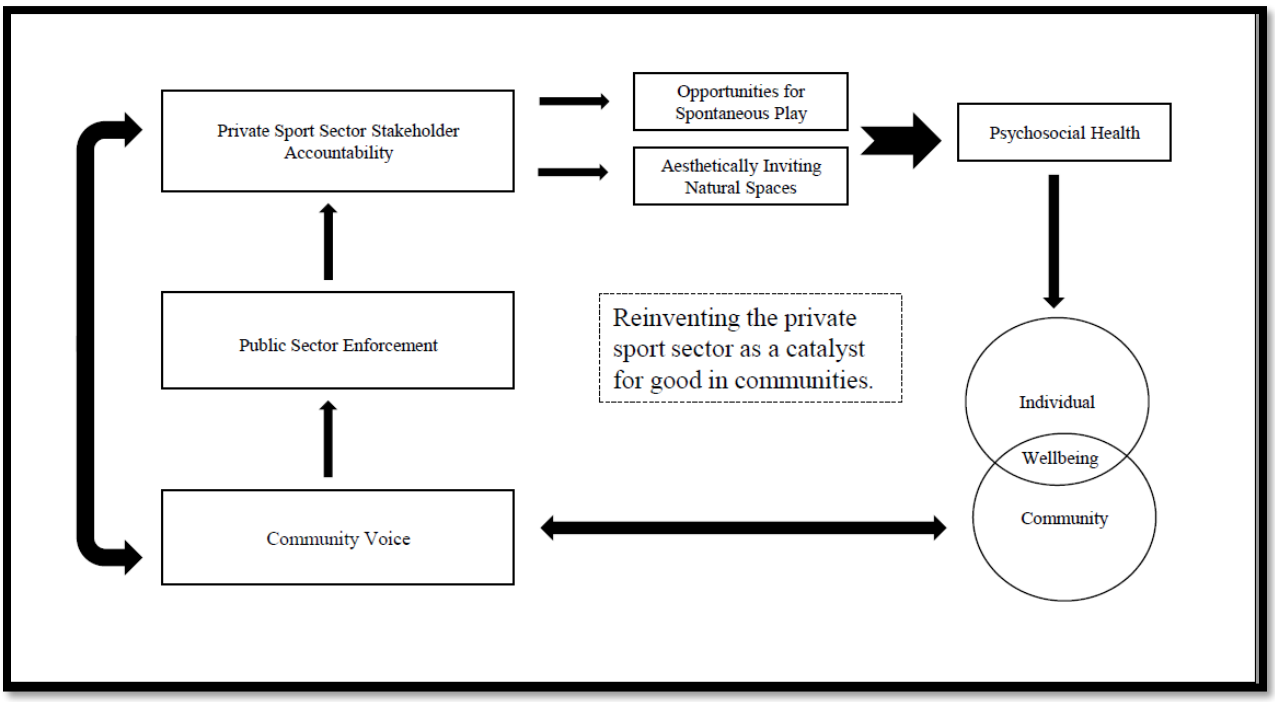
Flowchart Depicting Smith and Osborn's (2003) Step-by-Step IPA Process

Appendix G



Visual Representation of Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis

Appendix H



Redefining, Rebuilding, and Respiriting Private Sport Model