PEDAGOGY OF SPORT AND SOCIAL PROJECTS: DIALOGUES ABOUT EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE

PEDAGOGIA DO ESPORTE E PROJETOS SOCIAIS: INTERLOCUÇÕES SOBRE A PRÁTICA PEDAGÓGICA

PEDAGOGÍA DEL DEPORTE Y PROYECTOS SOCIALES: DIÁLOGOS SOBRE LA PRÁCTICA DOCENTE

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Abstract: The study focused on the educational treatment of sport in a social project, examining teaching purposes and contents proposed and students' perspectives about them. The methodological procedures were semi-structured interviews with 10 teachers and interviews with 45 students in the program (mean 12.5 years of age), using focus groups. The results show improvements in the educational approach to sport, but indicate a continuing mismatch between teachers' aims and contents, as well as better relations between contents applied and students' learning.


Resumen: Esta investigación examinó, en un proyecto social de un ayuntamiento, el tratamiento educacional dado al deporte, analizando las finalidades de la enseñanza y los contenidos impartidos por los profesores, además de la percepción de los alumnos en cuanto a los mismos. Los procedimientos metodológicos adoptados fueron una entrevista semiestructurada con diez profesores y entrevista con 45 alumnos que participan del Programa (promedio de 12.5 años) a partir de la técnica de grupo focal. Los resultados muestran avances en el trato educacional con el deporte, pero denuncian la persistencia de incongruencia entre finalidades y contenidos de los profesores y mayor relación entre contenidos aplicados y aprendizaje de los alumnos.
1 INTRODUCTION

In the last three decades, sport has taken on new meanings, reaffirming its status as a socio-cultural phenomenon, part of people's lives, and an integrating element in the social tissue, contributing to recover and strengthen national identities in the world's new geographical configuration. And with its rise in the media, especially its professional facet, it has been playing an extremely important role in the world's economy.

Coakley (1998) states that the phenomenon is going through its peak in human history, exerting an important influence in peoples' lives, and is closely related to building character, health and patriotism. Given the plurality of the phenomenon, Galatti (2010) seeks to synthesize (though not to exhaust) the multiple meanings of contemporary sport, organizing them into seven groups that can relate and overlap: education, socialization, leisure, profession, representation, health and aesthetics.

Among so many possibilities, this study focuses on sport in its educational meaning, highly related to socialization – noting that these are the meanings that permeate the others, since the pursuit of networks for social relationship and integration is present in any meaning ascribed to sports.

Furthermore, we always consider the existence of an educational component (either positive or negative) in sporting practices, since sport requires the exchange of information and interpersonal relationships, being a space for constant formal, non-formal or informal education and coeducation processes. Gutierrez Sanmartín (2003) underscores the possible educational contribution of sport to group and individual behavior.

Based on the above, the relevance and importance of sports activities go beyond finding new athletes. It is about including in sporting culture the opportunity to learn about sport, enjoy its practice and, through a proper process of teaching, experience, learning and training, to remain in the sporting environment in different roles – as athlete, spectator, fan, official, referee, investor, etc – in the multiple possible scenarios. For that, good lesson planning and training are not enough; it is necessary to extend the proposed content in sports, valuing sport and encouraging values and modes of behavior.

To do this, the contents covered – besides being meaningful to students – need to go beyond the sphere of motor tasks, being part of a process of teaching, experiencing and learning that favors the teaching of values and behaviors, historical and cultural issues about sport and the types learned, discussion about ethics in sport, media influence, respect, among other knowledges that are part of sports universe and contribute to its educational and social aspect.

We should emphasize that in formal – schools, universities – and non-formal – clubs, municipalities and social projects – educational institutions, work with sports should be organized and systematized based on intentionally structured educational objectives, seeking participants' full development.

Among the different ways to organize contents studied, this article will focus on procedures adopted after three references of Pedagogy of Sport (PS): the technical-tactical one (motor issues, physical issues, foundations and systems of each sport); the socio-educational one (values and modes of behavior); and historical-cultural ones (rules, stories about sport and types of sports), as indicated by Paes (1996), Galatti (2006), Galatti et al (2008), Paes and

The technical-tactical reference concerns the pedagogical organization and systematization of sports to be experienced and practiced, as well as the methodological choice for their application. The socio-educational one is about values and modes of behavior that can be encouraged if intentionally organized and systematized as sports content. In turn, the historical and cultural framework aims at strengthening the pedagogical approach to sports content in that it seeks to address knowledges that characterize sport as a cultural and social element. Table 1 summarizes the three PS references guiding this study:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TECHNICAL-TACTICAL</th>
<th>SOCIO-EDUCATIONAL</th>
<th>HISTORICAL-CULTURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategies</td>
<td>To promote discussion of principles, values and behavior patterns; To propose the exchange of roles (putting oneself in the place of others); To promote participation, inclusion, diversification, co-education and autonomy; To build a favorable environment for the development of intrapersonal and interpersonal (collective) relations; To establish relationships between what happens in sports class with community life.</td>
<td>History of sports; Evolution of sports; Rules and context of their change; Main competitions at local, regional, national and international level; Personalities of each sport; Other knowledges necessary for understanding sport.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offensive, Defensive and Transition Tactical Aspects, General Motor Skills Specialized fundaments, Biomotor capacities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from parts of Galatti, Darido and Paes (2010), Machado (2012) and Machado, Galatti and Paes (2014).

Therefore, this study becomes relevant because it seeks to identify how the sporting phenomenon was pedagogically treated from the perspective of teachers and students of Program Education Sport and Youth (PEEJ) at a non-formal educational institution in the city of Taubaté.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study started with a literature review on Pedagogy of Sport and social projects, and moved to a field research conducted in the Program Education Sport and Youth (PEEJ) – a socio-educational program run by the City since 2001. In 2012, it served about 2000 7-15-year-old children and adolescents in Taubaté, SP, in five units in different neighborhoods, after school, offering activities aimed at participants’ social, cultural, emotional and physical-motor development (PROGRAMA ENSINO ESPORTE E JUVENTUDE, 2008).
The PEEJ sports project has six purposes: (a) to experience sports; (b) to encourage cognitive, physical, motor and affective-social development; (c) to expand cultural knowledge on sports; (d) to raise awareness about the importance of physical activity and healthy habits; and (e) to encourage autonomy and critical reflection, preparing students for citizenship (PROGRAMA ENSINO ESPORTE E JUVENTUDE, 2011).

To do that, we set out to know how sport is approached in the project by interviewing its teachers. The participants were ten teachers, two from each unit; a teacher of 7-10 year old students and a teacher of 11-15 year olds, randomly selected according to their interest and availability.

According to Marconi and Lakatos (2010), the interview is an encounter between two people where one of them obtains answers on a particular subject in a professional way. Given the various forms of interviews, we chose the semi-structured interview because the interviewer is free to discuss each situation in the direction he or she considers appropriate in order to further explore any issues.

Interviews with teachers were organized in two distinct blocks, namely: (a) Purposes of sports classes and (b) Educational content.

An interview was later conducted with 45 11-15-year-old students about what they learn in sports classes using a focus group, where participants cooperate to draw conclusions on a subject based on a discursive consensus (BRITO, 2008).

Due to the large number, students were randomly divided into five groups of nine students each. To collect data from the interview with both teachers and students, we used a Sony Dcr-Sr47 camcorder placed on a fixed point in the room, to make it easy to capture everyone’s speeches.

For the analysis of the interviews (with both teachers and students), we used the Content Analysis method, which, according to Bardin (2011), has three stages of analysis: (a) Pre-analysis: it is the organization of the material, which aims to make the first considerations operational and systematize them; (b) Exploration of the material: it is the stage of the analysis itself; (c) Treatment of results: the results are treated so as to make them meaningful and valid. Bardin (2011) also shows that they can be treated quantitatively or qualitatively. In the case of this research, our focus was qualitative, in which we held a discussion with the authors of Pedagogy of Sport.

The project was approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Taubaté under Protocol 489/11 in October 2011.

3 PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICE IN SOCIAL PROJECTS

Social projects began to emerge in Brazil in the first decades of the twentieth century (ISAYAMA; LINHALES, 2008). In the twenty-first century, according to Machado (2012), they are becoming a cultural practice legitimized by society, the State and the marketplace. Since their inception, they have undergone different conceptions, and, according to Zaluar (1994), they contribute to complement formal educational processes (school), especially with regard to people in situations of social vulnerability.
In contemporary times, such projects emerge to provide the population living in social vulnerability with opportunities to occupy their free time, in order to reduce their exposure to risk situations.

About 20% of public policy actions serve children and adolescents aged 7-14, for whom sport has been one of the most attractive contents (MARTINS; MELO, 2003; HIRAMA, 2008).

In this scenario, several studies have addressed the theme of sport and social projects (DONAHUE; RIP; VALLERAND, 2009; SCHULENKORF, 2010; GIORGIO, 2011; HOLT; NEELY, 2011; GIULIANOTTI, 2012). However, most discussions are guided by justifications for implementation, reasons for participation, and the impact of their outcomes on human development. Therefore, few studies address one of the fundamental dimensions of social projects, which ascribes meaning to the objectives proposed by such institutions (MACHADO, 2012): the curricula developed in those spaces.

Melo (2004, p. 105) criticizes the indiscriminate association between sport, restoration of citizenship, and social projects. For the author, considering the way such projects have been treated, “[...] any action that takes youth off the streets restores citizenship”. We can see this relationship in several studies, such as Cunha (2007), Eiras et al. (2009), Souza et al. (2010), Castro and Souza (2011), but an organized and systematic pedagogical practice is essential to achieve those objectives (MACHADO; GALATTI; PAES, 2014).

Although the space of non-formal education could and should also be a place to promote citizenship, given that “[...] the process of formation of citizen subjects includes school, but it does not end in it” (MELO, 2004, p. 113), only stating or establishing that formation as a goal does not guarantee that it happens in practice.

The same relationship can be established with the sporting phenomenon in social projects. Although several Pedagogy of Sport authors claim that sport plays an educational role, they also sustain that only its potential does not guarantee that (HIRAMA; JOAQUIM; MONTAGNER, 2011, REVERDITO; SCAGLIA 2009, BENTO, 2006, PAES, 1996). For these authors, it is essential that lessons are organized, systematized, applied (methodology) and evaluated in order to enhance their educational opportunities.

This study becomes fundamental because, in addition to discussing social projects as spaces with potential to form children and adolescents and sport as a facilitator in that process, considering that literature has already provided such answers based on different studies (ZALUAR, 1994; SHAFFER; WITTES, 2006; CUNHA, 2007; DONAHUE; RIP; VALLERAND, 2009; EIRAS et al., 2009; SCHULENKORF, 2010; SOUZA et al., 2010; CASTRO; SOUZA, 2011; GIORGIO, 2011; HOLT; NEELY, 2011; MACHADO; GALATTI; PAES, 2011; GIULIANOTTI, 2012; MACHADO, 2012), we will seek to investigate how teachers have organized pedagogical practice and what students have identified as learning in sports classes in social projects, associating both.

4 FIELD RESEARCH: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Participants were ten Physical Education teachers with an average age of 25.7 (standard deviation – s.d. 2.1), working as a PEEJ teacher for 1.6 years (s.d. 1.7), having graduated four years earlier on average (s.d. 1.7).
As for students, 45 of them, who participated in sports classes at PEEJ in one of its five units, were interviewed. Classes were 1:30-hour longs and were offered from Tuesdays to Fridays. Students were separated by classes according to age: class 4 included 11-12 year-olds and class 5 included 13-15 year-olds.

The group interviewed included 14 girls and 31 boys, accounting for 31.1% and 68.8%, respectively.

The group was relatively young: 13 students were 11 years old (28.8%), 11 were 12 (24.4%), 12 were 13 (26.6%), 3 were 14 (6.6%), and 6 were 15 years old (13.3%).

Time of participation in the Program varied significantly, ranging from students who had started two weeks before the interview and others who had already been enrolled since the opening of the unit, in 2004, seven years earlier.

Of all students interviewed, 40 said they played sports outside the PEEJ while only five did not – 88.8% and 11.1%, respectively.

Among students who play sports outside the PEEJ, 26 said they did it at school (65%), ten (25%) attended classes in non-formal education spaces such as clubs and training centers, and only six (15%) said they took part in sports activities in the streets or at home – informal education. Two students pointed out more than one place for their sports practice outside the PEEJ.

Firstly, we present the results obtained from the interviews with teachers in a summary table that presents an analytical description of their speech, including their main ideas. Then we perform collective inferential comparisons about the results, according to the technique of content analysis; then we conduct the same process with students. Finally, a discussion seeks to cross the data obtained from interviews with teachers and students.

The first question was: “What are the purposes of sports classes at PEEJ”?

Table 2 – Teachers’ Interviews on sport’s purposes in social projects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher interviewed</th>
<th>Replies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 1</td>
<td>Motor development and knowledge; however, the main focus would be on citizens’ values, virtues and training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 2</td>
<td>The ultimate goal is raising awareness and promoting values and virtues that help to improve and change society. For him, motor development is a consequence in class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 3</td>
<td>The major focus is on values and attitudes, although there is also the work with skills, but the most important would be students’ values and attitudes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 4</td>
<td>Providing students with a prior knowledge of sports and teaching about situations that occur in sport, such as cooperation, group organization, values in general, besides being a way for students to practice physical activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 5</td>
<td>Preparing students to have better knowledge of sports.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 6</td>
<td>Expanding students’ motor repertoire, from general motor skills to those specific to each sport.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 7</td>
<td>The focus is more on social issues, teaching through sport, knowing how to deal with rules on and off the court.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 8</td>
<td>Conveying values and virtues to students so that they are able to live well in society.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 9</td>
<td>The most important is the social aspect, integrating the students and teaching them to respect and live together.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 10</td>
<td>Teaching students to understand sport.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Machado (2012, p. 92-93)
In general, teachers say that sports lessons in social projects mainly contribute to promote and develop values and behaviors – contents that are present in the social and educational reference. Four teachers pointed out the purpose of knowing or understanding sport, which may be associated to historical and cultural references, among which T5 and T10 mention only that reference. Teachers 1, 2, 3 and 6 also mentioned development of motor skills, although the first three also highlighted the socio-educational reference, and Teacher 6 underscored the technical-tactical reference.

By relating the purposes of sports classes identified by teachers and the goals of social programs that serve children and adolescents, we saw a positive relationship between them, since both emphasize the importance of fostering students’ social development, emphasizing respect, teamwork, socialization, and living together in society (ZALUAR, 1994; EIRAS et al., 2009; CASTRO; SOUZA, 2010; MACHADO; GALATTI; PAES, 2011).

Clarity about the purposes of sports lessons will guide all other educational activities of teachers, such as selection and organization of contents and pedagogical procedures and lesson planning. Therefore, if most purposes described by teachers are related to encouraging values and behaviors, lessons must point to the same direction.

Next, we present a summary categorized table based on PS references on the question about contents taught in class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Technical-tactical Reference</th>
<th>Socio-educational Reference</th>
<th>Historical-cultural Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 1</td>
<td>Balance, handling, coordination, motor coordination.</td>
<td>Attitude, respect (mutual, to rules), honesty, patience.</td>
<td>Stories of how they came about, where they emerged, how they developed over time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 2</td>
<td>Motor development; Motor skills.</td>
<td>Concentration in class, focus.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 3</td>
<td>Skills, motor skills, balance, Psychomotricity.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 4</td>
<td>Motor coordination, sport experience.</td>
<td>Attitude.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 5</td>
<td>Manipulative, peripheral vision, side vision.</td>
<td>Values, how to be polite, how to behave.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 6</td>
<td>The fundament itself, the game.</td>
<td>The values to suit the group’s needs.</td>
<td>History, rules, trivia, athletes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 7</td>
<td>Main fundaments, tactics, defensive system, 2-1-2, 2-2-1. Shot, pass, rebound, layup. Body handling, ball control.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 8</td>
<td>Sports initiation, different sports.</td>
<td>General context of sports.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 9</td>
<td>Technique.</td>
<td>Attitudinal all the time.</td>
<td>Conceptual.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 10</td>
<td>Running, throwing, why running in such a way, why flinging, which arm to throw with.</td>
<td>The attitudes that they have to have.</td>
<td>The origin of things, why it has emerged, how it has emerged. How it is done, what are the rules used.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Machado (2012, p. 104-105)
Although Table 2 indicates the predominant purpose of sport in the project as the socio-educational issue, the only reference presented as educational content by all teachers was precisely the technical-tactical one.

Although most teachers pointed to teaching content guided by PS references, some of them did not so much emphasize issues of values and behaviors, and three of them did not even show such content as present in their classes, although when asked about social projects’ goals, the three of them pointed to the importance of social issues.

We perceive certain incongruity among answers to Question 1 – about the purposes of sports classes in social projects – and Question 2 – about teachers’ educational contents – perhaps due to their difficulty to understand what teaching contents are.

Libâneo (1994, p. 128) defines content as: “[...] the set of knowledge, skills, habits, evaluative and attitudinal modes of social action, educationally and didactically organized, with a view to active assimilation and application by students in their daily lives”.

Zabala (1998) defines contents as all that must be learned to achieve certain goals; therefore, content will be all those that enable the development of motor, affective, cultural, interpersonal relation, and social inclusion skills.

Paes and Balbino (2009) argue that the teaching of sport should not be restricted to motor issues, which would reduce the significance of sport. Similarly, Reverdito and Scaglia (2009) point to the importance of dealing with issues that allow students’ full development. Bento (2006) states that we should look at sport through its humanizing role. So we cannot speak of humanization without considering the aspects that make us human such as feelings, thoughts and emotions. In this way, sports contents need to walk together with that humanization, which is highlighted by some teachers who work with values and behaviors as well as the cultural knowledge of sports.

Another possibility for that incongruity is difficulty in advancing more consistently in class content that exceeds the content originating from the traditional view of pedagogy of sport, which was restricted to the development of competences and skills to practice sport, without much concern with human development and autonomy for living critically with sport in its plurality (GALATTI et al., 2014).

We observed progresses and challenges in teachers’ speech. However, realizing their point of view does not guarantee that sport is adequately addressed in pedagogical practice with students. Thus, students must be asked what they learn in sports classes at PEEJ, thus allowing us to compare if the learning they point out is consistent with expectations and contents mentioned by teachers. So we will see the results obtained with students’ interviews.

With students, we asked a single question related to learning in sports lessons: What do you learn in sports classes of PEEJ? Through collective analysis, we present a table summarizing the answers, organized in categories for the three references of Pedagogy of Sport.
We noted that for students, the learning takes place at the three references of Pedagogy of Sport, and even more contents related to the socio-educational reference are indicated than in the others. In a comparison between the goals presented by teachers and students’ responses, a close relationship emerges. However, when we look at educational contents, the ratio is lower, given that some teachers did not identify values and behaviors as teaching contents.

We obtained a total of 68 responses, taking into account that some students responded more than once during the interview or indicated learning related to more than one reference. Therefore, 27 answers indicated learning within the technical-tactical reference (39.7%), 23 pointed to the socio-educational one (33.8%), and 18, to the historical-cultural reference (26.4%).

Data from students’ speeches show contents associated to those three references; therefore, the aims declared by teachers manifest themselves in what students say they learn, including more content related to the socio-educational reference than to the technical-tactical one, as shown in Table 4.

However, it is interesting to note the number of times that contents related to each reference appear in students’ speeches: while learning related to the technical-tactical and socio-educational references are not distant, there is prevalence of technical-tactical learning. This finding is consistent with the contents that teachers claim to work with where that reference also prevails.

As noted earlier, Libâneo (1994) states that the contents are organized by the teacher and should have been assimilated and applied in students’ lives, therefore, especially in social projects, they should pervade the contents present in the socio-educational framework. However, teachers mention specially those related to the motor aspect. Thus, our data show a higher relation of student learning with contents that teachers claim to work with, and not for the purposes that they claim social projects to have. It is therefore important that the continuing education of teachers who work in social projects promotes pedagogical practice and selected contents align the educational purpose that prevails in those non-formal educational environments.

Other studies indicate this need, such as Mello, Ferreira Neto and Votre (2009) in a research with students of Project Esporte Cidadão in Vila Velha. In order to assess social practices and discourse among youngsters participating in the project, they found meaning assigned by

### Table 4 - Student learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technical-tactical reference</th>
<th>Socio-educational reference</th>
<th>Historical-cultural reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fundaments; Playing sports; Movements; Positions; Reading of the game; Improving fundamentals and the game.</td>
<td>Education; Attitudes; Media; Respect; Behavior on the sports court; Awareness of their actions; Fair play; Honesty.</td>
<td>History of sports; Events; Consumerism in football; Media; Organized fan groups.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total responses: 27 (39.7% of total)</td>
<td>Total responses: 23 (33.8% of total)</td>
<td>Total responses: 18 (26.4% of total)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Machado (2012, p. 140)
students to improvement in sports – sports skills – as well as to participation in competitions and forms of personal interaction. That perspective is consistent with what literature presents today – teaching of sport based on motor issues and human values (BARROSO; DARIDO, 2009) – but in this study we advocate the importance of articulating the three references of Pedagogy of Sport rather than only two of them.

We also observed less mention to the historical-cultural reference, both in teachers’ contents and students’ speeches. Several authors point to sport as a means of teaching children and adolescents issues related to behavior and values (HIRAMA, 2008; REVERDITO; SCAGLIA, 2009; PAES; BALBINO, 2009; CASTRO; SOUZA, 2011); others indicate it for establishing bases, techniques, tactics (BAYER, 1994; ROSE JUNIOR, 2006; GRECO; BENDA, 2007). However, in literature specialized in Pedagogy of Sport, we found few and more recent studies on the historical-cultural reference (MACHADO; GALATTI; PAES, 2011; MACHADO, 2012). This smaller, more recent inclusion of that reference in literature may indicate its smaller presence in pedagogical practice in social projects.

Even though students perceive learning in different areas – motor, physical, social, cultural – not all teachers identify them in their teaching content. Classes might even be based on references, but teachers’ pedagogical intentions are still likely to be oriented to motor aspects, possibly guided by a sports-based proposal, and other contents are only approached when there is a problem in class – a model already criticized by Galatti et al. (2014), Machado, Galatti and Paes (2014), Machado (2012), Darido and Rangel (2005).

5 FINAL REMARKS

Sport is often used in social projects as a tool for social change, with strong political appeal as sport and education are usually associated. However, sport will contribute to the educational process in the scenario of social projects when it is intentionally organized, systematized and applied in order to foster the full development of its participants, rather than just to keep them busy.

In order to contribute to education, sport must receive didactic-pedagogic treatment to promote sporting culture and to encourage criticism by the general culture of the community that houses its practice. Therefore, social projects, by offering sport as a means of citizenship, must structure their sports program to offer practice and reflection in order to form and transform.

The environment studied, called PEEJ, proved to be a potential scenario to contribute to educational proposals presented by social projects.

This article underscored the important role of social projects in citizen education in Brazil and stressed the importance of a purposeful, organized and planned practice based on PS references to achieve aims in non-formal education.

We point at the need for further studies in that area to provide more theoretical and practical information that can provide better support to educational activities in social projects – a growing educational scenario in the country.
REFERENCES


