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Integrating Sport for development and Peace programmes to lever social legacy within Sport Mega-Events: The Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games "Sport for Tomorrow" programme.

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Abstract

The Sport for Development and Peace (SDP) field using sport as social tool to develop socially excluded communities, became in the past two decades a leading global sport movement. In parallel the integration of SDP programme to generate positive social legacy, has increased since the 2012 London Olympic and Paralympic Games, leading the Tokyo bidding committee for the 2020 Olympic and Paralympic games to create an SDP programme. The Sport for Tomorrow programme was born and evolved in a complex environment, as Japan has short history with the SDP movement. Thus, this study examines the SFT design and implementation and its impact on local communities. To answer the research problems, this study undertakes a single explorative and interpretive case study, using a qualitative dataset represented by diverse online documents. These documents have been analysed through a thematic analysis. The main findings showed the Japanese government essentially used the programme as a diplomatic tool to gain soft power in developing countries, serving an elite-driven population. The study has reached several conclusive points: the lack of SFT including vulnerable communities; the IOC's structure can foster SDP integration; an enhanced relationship between the SDP movement and SMEs stakeholders is required. This study also demonstrates that by adopting the S4D framework and NGOs assistance in the bidding and candidature process the IOC has the potential to change the conversation around Sport Mega-Events (SMEs) by fostering hosting communities positive social and cultural legacy.

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Plagiarism declaration (you can find the form on the Moodle page)

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List of abbreviations

CSR corporate social responsibility

IGOs Intergovernmental Organisations

IOC International Olympic Committee

FIFA Fédération Internationale de Football Association

JICA Japan International Cooperation Agency

JPC Japanese Paralympic Committee

JSA Japan Sport Agency

JSC Japan Sport Council

MDGs Millennium Development Goals

MEXT Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology

MOFA Ministry of Foreign Affairs

MYSA Mathare Youth Sports association

NGOs Non-Governmental Organisations

ODA official development assistance

PESSYP UK's Physical Education and Sport Strategy for Young People

SCORE Sport Coaches' outreach

SDGs Sustainable Development Goals

SDP Sport for Development and Peace

S4D Sport 4 development

SFDT Sport for Development and Peace Theory

SFT Sport for Tomorrow

SFSC Sport for Social Change

SMEs Sport Mega-Events

TIAS Tsukuba international Academy for Sport Studies

TNCs Transnational Companies

TOCOPG Tokyo 2020 Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games

UN United Nations

US United States

UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

UNOSDP United Nations Office on Sport for Social Development and Peac

Chapter 1: Introduction and background

1.1.Introduction

A new trend in the international development movement that uses sport as a tool for the social inclusion of disadvantaged communities (e.g. disabled persons, refugees, young people at risk, and ethnic minorities) and the promotion of gender equality, education, and peacebuilding grew in the past two decades. In parallel with the SDP trend, the sport mega-events (SMEs) governing bodies have increased the awarding of Olympic Games and Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) Football World Cup to Global South hosting nations. The adoption, in 2000, by the United Nations (UN) of the UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), triggered the international attention towards the "Sport for Development and Peace" (SDP) movement and since the sector has received tremendous attention from global civil society actors (e.g. private sector, Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs), national governments, sport federations, and new justice social movements) (Giulianotti, 2011, Coalter, 2010). SMEs strategies have also received increased attention, due to their "top-down" approach, the local communities have denunciated the lack of positive impacts. The SDP movement "bottom-down" and SMEs' elite driven strategy are divergent. However, the need for an enhanced relationship has grown, since the United Nations Office for Sport for Development and Peace (UNOSDP) closed, in 2017.

The closure of the UNOSDP has posed questions around SDP's integration in the International Olympic Committee (IOC) policy agenda. Thus, the timing of UNOSDP closure and the environment of the SDP programme created for the purpose of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games, relates to the growing interest between the SDP movement and SMEs

relationship. Tokyo has successfully, in 2013, won the right to host the 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games, a success partially attributed to Tokyo's 2020 Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games (TOCOPG) vision to develop the Japanese legacy and the creation of the SDP programme "Sport for Tomorrow" (SFT).

This vision of long-lasting legacies, showcasing Japanese culture dominancy in the Asian region, is not a new phenomenon. The Tokyo 1964 Olympic Games was already a testimony for the Japanese nation to showcase to the world that after their implications in the World War II, the nations have developed a new peaceful, stable and technologically advanced society (Guthrie-Shimizu, 2018). Since, this successful event, Japan has tried several times to assert their dominance to the Asian region through sport manifestations, if 1964 was successful, other examples have showed different outcomes, such as the 2002 FIFA World Cup staged in cooperation with South Korea (e.g. empty stadiums, poor regional regeneration, heavy financial bill) (Horne, 2004; Heere et *al,* (2012). Thus, after having lost to Rio in 2006, to host the 2016 Olympic and Paralympic Games, and the 2011 earthquake ravaging a whole region of Japan, triggered Japanese government tireless effort to win the 2020 edition.

Tokyo's success in the 2013 bid, saw the creation of the SFT programme. The creation of such SDP initiative has been influenced by the successful development of the 2012 London Olympic Games educational programmes. However, at the time of the SFT creation, the SDP movement is an unfamiliar ground for the Japanese population and almost inexistent across the nation's NGOs, sport federations, and governmental ministries. Okada (2018) has attributed this disregard to a slow development and conservative Japanese sport culture, and 'for most Japanese, topics concerning immigration problems, ethnic conflict and multiculturalism, as well as international development activities are not part of their daily lives' (p. 18). Hence, the SFT programme evolves in a context in which local communities have little knowledge and

interest, posing questions around the design and implementation of the SFT programme and the impact these parameters have on local communities. Therefore, the following structure gives an indication on how this study will answer the research question.

1.2. Thesis structure

The first chapter establish the context of this research by providing an overview of the background of the study, the rationale, and the research question. The chapter two gives a comprehensive analysis of the existing theoretical and historical SDP literature, an overview of the SME legacy literature relating to IOC and establishes the link in the literature between the SDP movement and SMEs. Chapter three consists of the research method, the limitations of this research, and the findings. Chapter four revisits the primary research question, discuss the findings in relation to the literature review, in order to answer the research problems, and conclude the study by summarizing the main points of this study, as well as giving recommendations for the future integration of SDP programmes within SMEs.

1.3. Background

The power of sport participation has been recognised has a strong enactor for individuals and communities to develop in a safe environment, where 'sport people' feel equal and are able to build character (e.g. personality traits, discipline, respect) and social skills (Coalter, 2010). Thus, sport participation can take place in different structures (e.g. educational activities, sport clubs), but in recent years the practice of sport and physical activities have found new powerful advocates, in the SDP movement and SMEs such as the Olympic Games and FIFA Football World Cup.

Sport has been used with parsimony for the purpose of international development from the early 1900s to the 1945s, but the end of the World War II, the creation of the UN, and the Cold War, changed the role sport had towards development. Thus, led by the USA and the Soviet Union the use of sport for good grew in influence until 1980, under the raise of neo-liberal western ideas, when global recognition within global civil society actors, produced the SDP movement (Darnell et al, 2019). The evolution of "sport for good" to "sport for development and peace" have replicated a structure for the use of sport and physical activities as a tool to facilitate contact in divided societies or conflicted regions, to promote education and the social inclusion of marginalised communities (Giulianotti, 2011; Schulenkorf, 2017; Adams & Piekarz, 2015; Darnell et al, 2019; Kidd, 2008). The former Olympic aid organisation, renamed Right to Play, is an example of the use of sport through the SDP programme to fight for children's right to play across the world (Darnell et al, 2019). Therefore, in 2003, via UN's General Assembly, in which they recognised that sport is a "means to promote education, health, development and peace' (United nations, 2003 cited by Burnett, 2009, p. 1192) , the SDP became the leading movement using sport as a tool for development.

SDP's recognition resulted in increasing academic interest towards its conceptualisation (Kidd, 2008; Levermore, 2008; Coalter, 2010; Coalter, 2011; Schulenkorf, 2012, Giulianotti, 2011). Indeed, over the past two decades SDP projects have been artifacts for the development of theoretical and empirical studies within various sport disciplines, such as public policy (Giulianotti, 2011; Coalter, 2010), sociology (Giulianotti, 2011; Darnell et al, 2018), health (Edwards, 2015) peacemaking and conflict resolution (Giulianotti, 2011; Guilianotti et al, 2016; Schulenkorf & Sudgen, 2011), community development (Lyras and Peachey, 2011; Burnett, 2009; Schulenkorf, 2012), and social capital (Coalter, 2010; Skinner & Zakus, 2008). However, despite the growth of the SDP field across several disciplines, Schulenkorf et al (2016) has identified gaps in the SDP literature around disability, livelihoods, and gender

equality topics. Giulianotti et al (2019) has called for a theoretical framework taking into account the current unstable political, economic, and social context across the world (e.g. Brexit, Trump's presidency, Middle East emancipation, China's One Belt One Road project).

Facing this current environment, the SDP movement has attempted to inverse the distribution of power from a top–bottom to a bottom-up approach, whereby the development, design and implement programmes are conducted by local communities (Giulianotti et al, 2019; Darnell et al, 2019; McGillivray & Turner, 2018; Coalter, 2010; Schulenkorf et al, 2016; Burnett, 2009; Giulianotti et al, 2019). A phenomenon which, however, took some time to be valued as the referent strategy for SMEs' organisers. For instance, the Tokyo 2020 Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games (TOCOPG) has developed the SFT programme mainly focusing on the development of Japanese and Olympic sport in developing countries, instead of leveraging their local communities and have built the new National Stadium forcing elderly to be evicted from their home and homeless to relocate in others areas of Tokyo (McGillivray et al, 2019; Suzuki et al, 2018). The aforementioned examples are symptomatic of SMEs' organisers (e.g. IOC, FIFA) and hosting nations desire to positively impact structural changes, rather than communities.

The emergence of anti-Olympic protests around the world (e.g. Vancouver 2010, London 2012, Soltchi, 2014), found its roots in hosting communities left with negative legacies after staging Olympic Games (e.g. empty sport infrastructure "white elephant", local community displacement, corruption, human rights violation, structural financial burden) (Rogerson, 2016, Gratton & Preuss, 2008; Cornelissen et al, 2011, McGillivray et al, 2019; Talbot & Carter, 2018). Despite the creation of the Olympic Agenda 2020 in 2014, enabling enhanced transparency in the bidding process and acting as a strategic guide enforcing sport ability to impact: youth, credibility and sustainability (IOC, 2017), the IOC still suffered from anti-

Olympic movements and protests, notably during the 2024 Candidature Process, in which cities such as Hamburg (public referendum), Rome (political decision), Budapest (public petition), and Boston (communities protests) withdrew their candidature as bidding cities (McGillivray & Turner, 2018). These protests are driven by the economic burden such sport events leave to communities; therefore, SDP programme offers to communities positive social, cultural and environmental legacy.

In 2015, the IOC fostered the possibility for SDP programmes to be integrated within the Candidature Process, with the creation of a three-stage process: Vision, Games Concept and Strategy; Governance, Legal and Venue Funding; Games Delivery, Experience and Venue Legacy, enabling dialogue between potential hosting nations and the IOC (McGillivray & Turner, 2018). This closer relationship has been established for the Paris 2024 Olympic Games; thus, it leaves us wondering what the long-term development of the next Olympic Games will be (Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games)? Would they be positive or negative legacy? Could an SDP initiative be developed within the structure of the event? If yes, how will it be designed and implemented?

In 2013, Tokyo bid for the 2020 Tokyo Olympic and Paralympic Games, which came as a surprise for the Japanese population, after the unsuccessful 2006 bid for the 2016 Olympic Games, in majority due to a lack of support from Tokyo's communities, certain that the sporting event would impact the economic stability of the Nation (Guthrie-Shimizu, 2018). Despite the lack of support the Japanese government was determined to make the 2013 bid a success. A determination enhanced in 2011, by the magnitude-9 earthquake ravaging Tohoku, the north eastern part of Japan (Guthrie-Shimizu, 2018). In the wake of this natural disaster, the Japanese government and the TOCOPG articulated the candidature around three core concepts (Tokyo

Metropolitan Government, 2019; Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games Bid Committee, 2013; Tokyo Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games, 2015) (see Appendix figure .5):

1- "Striving for your personal best", achieving personal best through 'Omotenashi' principles.

2- "Accepting one another", being united in accepting diversity (e.g. race, colour, religion, sexual orientation, language, social status, and political opinions).

3- "Passing on legacy for the future", seek to achieve under the slogan "Discover Tomorrow", the use of existing structures, the SFT programme, ISO 20121 Event sustainability management system, and urban regeneration for disabled persons positive physical, social, cultural, environmental, and Paralympic legacy.

An evocative vision of 1964 Tokyo Olympic Games' intentions to build a new legacy, showcasing a peaceful nation to the world, after several decades of wars, Japan displayed a young, creative, and advanced society (e.g. stable democracy, high-speed "Shinkansen" train) (Guthrie-Shimizu, 2018). To this day, the peace has remained in Japan and the Asian region. However, Japan through the 2020 Tokyo Olympic and Paralympic Games, sought to regenerate their international recognition into a leading nation for sustainable technologies, able to unify their nation in times of crisis (Tamaki, 2019).

The SFT programme is one example of Japan's effort to become an influential advocate for social, cultural and environmental sustainability. By using the Olympic Games as a platform, the Japanese government have intended to integrate the nation as an actor for the SDP movement. However, to this day SDP initiatives taking place in Japan have been at a low number, in spite of the 2011 Earthquake raising the numbers of initiatives undertaken in the

affected region, the lack of NGOs presence carrying out SDP programmes and the "official development assistance" (ODA) granting development funds and the JICA volunteers programme benefiting developing countries, have been reasons of this poor development within Japan (Okada, 2018). Thus, when the TOCOPG created the SFT programme, questions rose around the purpose of the programme; its capacity to elevate the SDP movement as a sustainable practice for the present NGOs, private companies, Japanese Government and local community groups in the nation; its capacity to be the Japanese blueprint for the development of the SDP sector nationally and internationally.

1.4. Rationale

An important element of the rationale for this study resides in the shift from the sport for good to the SDP movement within the international development. This has strengthened the institutionalisation process of the SDP sector, with the rise of NGOs using sports as tool for social development and the social inclusion of disadvantaged communities, developing the numbers of initiatives across the world. However, when a developed country such as Japan, creates an SDP programme in the foundation plan of the 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games based on sharing their sporting culture in developing countries, which can be seen as an attempt to gain diplomatic influence in vulnerable regions, it shows that the SDP sector and the international sport events community have to review the purpose of SDP programmes by enforcing policies benefiting local communities. This argument is not new as Cornelissen (2011) argued that the link between SMEs and the SDP sector have to grow, but Cornelissen's (2011) argument relates to an academic context, whereas this study envision to assess the possibility for SMEs' policy structure to enable the compulsory incorporation of SDP programmes within the candidature process of Olympic Games.

SMEs are known to the general public for the structural changes happening within hosting cities in the development phase of the event, but SMEs impact goes beyond structural changes, with the possible development of a "feel-good" feeling across hosting communities, new skillsets, and community engagement. These intangible positive legacies have been mentioned by several academics (Preuss, 2007, 2015, 2019; Cornelissen et al, 2011; Preuss & Gratton, 2008; Smith, 2014) and have recently been taken into consideration by hosing cities and SMEs organisers (e.g. London 2012). However, the development of these intangible positive outcomes were fostered by educational sporting programmes (e.g. London 2012: the Young Leader educational project; the UK's Physical Education and Sport Strategy for Young People) using existing structure such as schools, sport blubs, and community center (Rogerson, 2016; Smith, 2014; Griffiths & Armour, 2013). Thus, the possibility that the SFT programme developed within the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games framework impact the Japanese population, constitute a rationale for this study.

As mentioned, Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games have focused on the development of the SFT programme in order to enhance their chance to host the Olympic Games (Okada, 2018) and based their vision on the striving for your personal best, accepting one another, and passing on legacy for the future principles. In contrast to Japanese government actions ordering the eviction of elderly and homeless population living around or/and in future infrastructural construction sites, as well as pushing poor communities to relocate through the gentrification of Tokyo's Olympic Games hosting areas (Suzuki et al, 2018; McGillivray et al, 2019). Furthermore, although the importance of creating a long-lasting positive legacy has been Japan's strategy throughout the bidding process, with the SFT programme being a central element, it appears that the communities touched by the 2011 Earthquake have been left out of the SFT conversation. Thus, in front of these unclear motivations, the lack of SDP presence

within Japan, and the SFT programme diplomatic aims, uncertainty has emerged around disadvantaged local communities' integration through the SFT programme.

This thesis aims, by looking at the formation of the SFT programme within the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic bidding and construction phases, to assess the possible integration of an SDP framework within IOC's structure. An underlying question is whether hosting nations social and cultural legacy would be generated by this integration?

1.5. Research question

The research question for the study is:

How has the Sport for Tomorrow SDP programme been designed and implemented in preparation for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games and how has the hosting community been included?

The objectives of this study are two folded:

Objective 1: *By attempting to answer this question the study seeks to establish how Japan has integrated the social and cultural development of their local communities through the SFT programme.*

Objective 2: *Further, the study seeks to analyse the relationship between IOC and the SDP and the potential role IOC's structure plays.*

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1. What is sport for development and peace?

2.1.1. Defining sport for development and peace

The contribution to sport development is a phenomenon existing for more than a century, even before Pierre de Coubertin revived the ancient Olympic Games by creating the International Olympic Committee (IOC) in 1984, followed two years later by the first modern Olympic Games held in Athens (Darnell et al, 2019; Kidd, 2008).

To this day the IOC leads the way in international sport development by organising the winter and summer Olympic Games every four years and via the Olympic Solidarity Commission which reinvests a percentage of the revenues into sport development programmes (Kidd, 2008). However, the principal message from the IOC to the general public and participants is the achievement of sport performance through organised competitions resulting in winning medals, standing far away from the idea of using sport as a tool for social, human, and cultural capital. In other words, achieving development through sport as supposed to the development of sport (Giulianotti, 2011). These two terms have been put in comparison and disassociated from each other (Giulianotti, 2011), when in reality they are complementary. Taking for instance the NGO "Right to Play" which embodies this idea, using volunteer coaches and development professionals (sport development) to create sport and physical activity programmes in disadvantaged and/or conflicted areas of the world lacking intercultural communication (sport for development and peace), giving young people the right to play (Darnell et al, 2019, Coalter, 2010). Hence, the aforementioned terms are at the foundation of the Sport for Development and Peace (SDP) movement.

Lyras and Peachey (2011) have defined the SDP movement as the " the use of sport to exert a positive influence on public health, the socialisation of children, youths and adults, the social inclusion of the disadvantaged, the economic development of regions and states, and on fostering intercultural exchange and conflict resolution" (Lyras, 2007; Sugden, 1991, 2006, 2008; cited by Lyras and Peachey, 2011, p. 311). Although, Lyras and Peachey's (2011) definition encapsulates the early work conducted by Kidd (2008), Coalter (2007; cited by Coalter, 2010), and Levermore (2008), it is necessary to expand on the different approaches taken by the aforementioned scholars. Indeed, Coalter (2007; cited by Coalter, 2010) developed two notions: "sport plus" being the capacity to develop inherit abilities for participants and the potential for sport programmes to maximise developmental objectives; and the "plus sport" whereby sport gains strength due to its popularity amongst youths by giving them the opportunity to take part on educational programmes. Kidd (2008) narrowed SDP development to three approaches: the humanitarian forces that provides aid and assistance (refugees, disadvantages population, minorities; e.g. Right to Play); the significant influence on other institutions the SDP movement has; the traditional approach of sport development focusing on sport education, coaching, equipment, and infrastructure.

These attempts to define the SDP movement highlight the influence "sport development" has on the conceptualisation of the SDP movement within international development. However, throughout their definition Lyras and Peachey (2011) have captured the "sport development", "sport for development", and "sport peace" notions, giving the most comprehensive SDP approach and making it the referent term for this dissertation.

2.1.2. Sport for development and peace structure

In an effort to structure the SDP sector Giulianotti (2011) developed a policy domain (see figure 1 in appendix) comprising four approaches: neo-liberal institutions, such as private transnational corporation (e.g. Nike) and commercial institutions, undertaking social actions using corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Burnett, 2009). The strategic social policies developmentalist, such as intergovernmental, national organisations and sport federations (e.g. UNICEF, FIFA, IOC), using top-down approach, when conducting development programmes. Developmental interventionist non-governmental and community-based organisations, represented for instance by Right to Play or CommonGoal (streetfootballworld), actively enforce sport initiatives across the world striving for community capacity building and sustainability (Edwards, 2015). A more radical and new social movement of individuals (e.g. political and reporter activists and academics) and NGOs (e.g. Nike Watch) challenging corporate and governments strategies (e.g. social injustice, human rights issues, leveraging social excluded populations) (Giulianotti et al, 2016).

New social movements also called the "fourth pillar", took more weight over the past decade to become a pivotal element of the SDP movement. Thus, Giulianotti et al (2016) in an attempt to expand Giulianotti's (2011) work have added two influential stakeholders: sport celebrities and sport clubs. In the current sport environment of player empowerment (e.g. transfer market in football and NBA) fans identification is shifting from teams to individuals, leading SDP actors to take into consideration and adjust with this new trend, while sport clubs identify themselves with players' image as much as their performance on the pitch. The NGO streetfootballworld understood that and launched "CommonGoal" aiming attract football players in agreeing to contribute 1% of their salary to one of the NGO SDP partners (common goal, no date).

2.1.3. From Sport for Good to Sport for Development

Darnell et al (2019) suggest that sport and physical activities serving as a development tool can be traced back from the colonial era to the rise of liberalism. Moreover, sport has been used as a diplomatic tool by Global North governments to gain "soft power" (Nye, 2008) and hegemony (Gramsci's theory, cited in Darnel et al, 2019). British imperialism for instance has been criticised for using sport to gain power in their colonies (e.g. cricket in India) (Darnell et al, 2019). Coalter (2010) also pointed out that the recognition of sport practice has a human right (right-based movement) contributed to the emergence of the SDP movement. Furthermore, nowadays the support from several powerhouses such as the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the United Nations (UN), have paved the way for the international recognition and legitimisation of the movement (Darnell et al, 2019). This study has identified two trends: sport-for-good representing the pre-neoliberalism period and the post-neoliberalism period leading to the use of sport for social development sport for development.

The idea that sport has the capacity to procure "feel good" emotions has been part of conversation for centuries but has never been associated with the idea of development. Thus, when the United Nations (UN) established itself in 1945, it significantly changed the landscape of international development, followed shortly after by the promulgation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights on December 10, 1948 (Darnell et al, 2019). These crucial events resulted, in 1961, in a succession of declaration made by the UN under the pressure of US President Kennedy: the 1960s were promulgated as the "Decade of Development", accompanied by creation of the Agency of International Development (AID) by Kennedy's administration (Darnell et al, 2019).

In parallel to this new developmental phenomenon happening in the Global North, the decolonisation of the south resulted on a wave of oppressive interventions from developed countries. This notion has been viewed as a "state-led international development "(Darnell et al, 2019). The principal actors in these interventions were at the time the United States (US) and the Soviet Union, both seeking to dominate the world after the fall of the Nazi regime in Germany. For instance, the US' intention was to help colonised countries' transition towards decolonization, giving the opportunity to develop stable and sustainable societies, which they called a "modernization theory" (Darnell et al, 2019). However, the rise of neoliberal ideas in the early 1980s impacted the modernization theory, shifting developed countries interests towards individual development (entrepreneurship), resulting on a growing gap in development between North and South.

Neoliberal ideas played a crucial role for international development, triggering a domino effect diminishing state influence, attributing power to a growing group of new global civil society actors, and opening corporate investment. The emergence of these new forces, challenged the political order over development policies, organised around "different institutional and political forces, including nation-states, IGOs [intergovernmental organizations], NGOs, new social movements, and transnational corporations (notably through 'corporate social responsibility' programmes)" (Darnell et al, 2019, p. 173). In that context, the rise of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) did not come as a surprise, giving a new breath to the international development movement, away from state control. Their power to shift aid services and expertise form North to South, the lead they took to combat the HIV/AIDS crisis, and recognition by the UN played in their favour (Darnell et al, 2019). Furthermore, NGOs used sport as the centrepiece of their initiatives: the Mathare Youth Sports association (MYSA) uses of football programmes in Nairobi to develop youth empowerment; the Sport Coaches' outreach (SCORE) train volunteers in using sports as an enabler for local community

development and capacity building (Coalter, 2010; Kidd, 2008, 2012; Levermore, 2008, Darnell et al, 2019; Edwards, 2015). Hence, the international aid movement emphasized the influence of sport as a tool to address social problems in the developing world, helped by the growing belief in rights-based development.

The emergence of sport initiatives towards social leverage in developing countries has been attributed to several factors, but it has been argued that the right to sport, physical play, and education undoubtedly played a key role (Coalter, 2010; Kidd, 2008; Darnell et al, 2019; Beutler, 2008), including:

- Declaration of the Rights of the Child UN's in 1959, asserting the right to play and recreation for children,

- UNESCO's adoption of the International Charter of Physical Education and Sport in 1978

- the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women recognising women's right to sport and physical education,

- the 1989 United Nations adoption of the Convention of the Rights of the Child (Coalter, 2010; Beutler, 2008).

Consequently, in 1992, Lillehammer's (Norway) Olympic Committee humanitarian sport assistance programme, in which Olympic Aid (renamed Right to Play) helped by Save the Children or the Red Cross used sport networks and personalities to raise funds in order to provide support to several projects in war torn areas (e.g. Sarajevo, Lebanon, Guatemala)

(Darnell et al, 2019; Coalter, 2010), emphasising the idea that by using sport as a tool developed countries could address social issues in the developing world.

The SDP has been used as a diplomatic and feel good tool for most of its history, momentarily losing influence due to heavy contestation in the post-colonial era, but in the 1980s, the rise of neoliberal ideas, the promulgation of sport as a human right, and the end of the Cold War led to a full emancipation and a progressive conceptualisation of the SDP sector (Giulianotti, 2011). Hence, this study positions the sport for development and peace movement under the theoretical underpinnings of international development, social capital and community development.

2.2. Conceptual framework

2.2.1. Neoliberalism, global civil society, and transnationalism

In the 1980s, neoliberal ideas changed the way development was perceived to move from sovereign control (collectivism) to individual freedom (entrepreneurship), creating individual empowerment (Darnell et al, 2019; Harvey, 2005 cited by Darnell et al, 2019). Furthermore, neoliberalism has been defined as a "philosophy that advocated for reductions in the social safety net and the welfare state coupled with a focus on individual empowerment, the reduction in barriers to investment and trade and the logic of the market" (Darnell et al, 2019, p. 164). In that context, the face of international development changed, as politicians from Western societies developed neoliberal ideologies aiming to generate political reforms, a globalised economy and economic development (Hartman and Kwauk, 2011; Van Luijk, 2018; Coalter, 2010), forcing the reduction of state influence giving more freedom to NGOs and organisations from the private sectors (e.g. football club, transnational companies (TNCs)) (Darnell et al, 2019).

Navigating in a globalised and interdependent world, neoliberalism impacted international development actors, as the social field evolved, underdeveloped countries have been the subject to an increased interest from global civil society actors to bridge social, economic and political gaps in the global south (e.g. 4th Pillar of the SDP policy domain). Giulianotti (2011) through the theory of "Transnationalism" argues that the creation of corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives by transnational corporations, led to distension between local cultures and global companies' ideologies. This argument can be linked to two ideas: Gramsci (no date, cited by Darnell et al, 2019) theory of hegemony, Western hegemony in that case; and Coalter's (2010) neo-colonialist views on Western NGOs' SDP strategies.

The origins of Coalter's (2010) argument can be traced back to Darnell's (2007, cited by Coalter, 2010) and Saavedra's (2005, cited by Coalter, 2010) warnings on how developed societies viewed sport and play as a de-politicized tool and delivered SDP programmes to Southern countries. Furthermore, Giulianotti et al (2016) have identified the impact of a neo-colonist approach to four areas: SDP stakeholders interests diverge with the desire to enhance human development for one part, whereas others seek for business development; the call for more evidence on programme impacts, conducted by a more diverse set of researcher (South-South studies, South-North) (Schulenkorf et al, 2016); a volunteer workforce represented by local communities, rather than imposed volunteers from the Global North with little knowledge of local cultures; programmes and interventions implemented from the top to bottom.

The last point made by Giulianotti et al (2016) has been a recurrent argument in the literature and several authors have called on global civil society aid and SDP stakeholders (especially targeted to NGOs) to change their top-down interventional strategy to a more comprehensive bottom-up approach, also called "participatory development" by Darnell et al (2019), allowing local communities to be involved (Coalter, 2010, Schulenkorf et al, 2016; Burnett, 2009;

Darnell et al, 2019). The pressure that has been put on SDP stakeholders to change their development approach, is due to a severe lack of accountability of their actions (Coalter, 2010). However, despite maintaining a hegemonic position neoliberalism has accrued economic inequalities, giving SDP stakeholders the legitimacy to advocate social development as opposed to economic development.

2.2.2. Social development

The shift from economic development towards social development has brought new concepts: social change, social capital and capacity building (Moscardo, 2007, cited by Schulenkorf & Sudgen, 2011).

2.2.2.1. Sport and social change

Since the emergence of neoliberalism sport has been viewed and used as an enactor for positive social change. One of the most noticeable example of such effort is the 5 years (2005-2010) study conducted by Lyras (2003, 2007, cited by Lyras and Peachey, 2011) and his research team called "The Doves Project" , whereby they analysed how sport can break social barriers through intergroup contact in the Cyprus conflict between Greek and Turkish Cypriot youths. The study showed that educational sport initiatives had a positive impact on ethnic and gender acceptance and collaboration amongst these two groups (Lyras and Peachey, 2011).

The theoretical underpinning of such positive outcomes can be found in Allport's (1954, cited by Lyras and Peachey, 2011; Schulenkorf, 2017) inter-group contact theory, as he argued that the most effective way fight against racism, social injustice, and discrimination was to create contact between two sexually, ethnically and racially divergent group. Thus, the practice of sport activities represents a powerful tool to form inter-group contact. However, in order to

reach positive outcomes Allport (1954, cited by Lyras and Peachey, 2011; Schulenkorf, 2017) argued that the following conditions need to be respected: "equal status within the contact situation, intergroup cooperation, common goals, and support of authorities, law, or custom" (Schulenkorf, 2017, p. 244). However, according to Lyras and Peachey (2011) social change can be best achieved when sport activities are blended with cultural enrichment programmes and a sensibilisation of the current globalised environment. These principles combined with Allport's (1954, cited by Lyras and Peachey, 2011; Schulenkorf, 2017) inter-group contact theory have formed the Sport for Development and Peace Theory (SFDT) (Lyras and Peachey, 2011). Consequently, the combination of sport and cultural enrichment activities, experienced through group contact, proposed by the SFDT, would for instance have the potential to foster social change for hosting communities in the context of sport mega-events.

Chalip et al (2015) have also argued that sport as an enactor for social change represents a sub-field of the SDP movement, under the label: sport for social change (SFSC). This movement is taking place in both developing and developed nations, aiming at community empowerment through enhanced social capital, social integration, cohesion, capacity building, and peacebuilding (Chalip et al, 2015). However, the authors identified that SFSC programmes suffer from a lack of management, resulting in gender inequalities and an imbalance between developed and developing countries in term of researches (Chalip et al, 2015). Therefore, in order to enhance the efficiency of sport programmes within communities, an increased collaboration between developed and developing countries is essential (Schulenkorf et al, 2016) and can take place through academic cooperation, private sector programmes, NGOs initiatives, and governmental policies.

2.2.2.2. Sport and social capital

Neoliberalism enabled individual growth and developed new knowledges and skillsets, which have increased the gap between the Global North and the Global South, changing the social capital discourse. Coalter (2010) defined social capital as "social networks based on social and group norms, which enable people to trust and cooperate with each other and via which individuals or groups can obtain certain types of advantage" (Coalter, 2010, p. 304). Therefore, as the Cold War ended the modern notion of social capital has been attributed to three theorists: Bourdieu (1997), Coleman (1988), and Putnam (2000) (Kidd, 2008; Coalter, 2010).

Coleman (1988, cited by Coalter, 2010) sees social capital through social structure and interactions between individuals, in which human capital is developed (skills, employability, social attributes and knowledge), whereas Putnam (2000, cited by Coalter, 2010) sees social capital through the gathering, unity and faculty to organise collective actions, in which social bonds and feelings of trustworthiness will serve the wider community. Putnam's (2000, cited by Coalter, 2010) vision align with the purpose of the study.

Putman (2000, cited by Coalter, 2010) has developed two complementary forms of social capital: bonding and bridging. The creation of bonds is generated in networks where people have developed strong social ties in the base of trust, reciprocity, and loyalty. Nonetheless, in order to be effective these networks have to avoid bonds between only one social group and remain diverse with individuals from different backgrounds, as restrictions could lead to increasing social exclusion (Coalter, 2010). In other words, Putnam (2000, cited by Coalter, 2010) called it the "dark side" of social capital bonds. Hence, SDP programmes and sport mega-events represent crucial platforms to enact bonds to be formed between different social groups.

However, confronted to a lack of influence towards external actors having the capacity to generate economic and political aid, Putnam (2000, cited by Coalter, 2010) developed the argument that social capital effectiveness resides in the capacity to bridge strong internal community bonds (family, friends) with weaker external communities (colleagues, employers, external institutions) (Woolcock and Narayan, 2000; cited by Coalter, 2010), which gives a variety in the flow of information, leading to enhanced opportunities for disadvantaged individuals and communities to rehabilitate themselves into the society (Putnam, 2000, cited by Coalter, 2010; Granovetter, 1973, cited by Schulenkorf, 2012). Hence, this need to go beyond boundary by diversifying resources and channels is embodied by the example of volunteerism. Indeed, the UN have declared in 2003, that "volunteerism creates social capital, helping to build and consolidate social cohesion and stability" (United Nations, 2003, cited by Coalter, 2010, p. 304), as volunteers play an important role in the execution of SDP initiatives and volunteering programmes at SMEs have been used for decades to give youth new opportunities to engage with others and within their communities, contributing to the development of social capital.

Putnam's (2000, cited by Coalter, 2010) theory underpin Chalip's (2006; 2004, cited by Chalip et al, 2017) theory of social bonds between individuals in a liminal space (sport events) engendering a sense of community, called "communitas". This notion of community development has been at the forefront of the SDP movement for decades, even more so that the UN recognised community participation as "the creation of opportunities to enable all members of a community and the larger society to actively contribute to and influence the development process and to share equitably in the fruits of development" (Midgley, 1986, p. 24, cited by Schulenkorf, 2012, p. 3).

2.2.2.3.Sport and community development

The increase focus on the impact SDP initiatives have on community development from researchers, governments, and private sectors has emerged in the past decade, through Schulenkorf's (2012) S4D framework, Edwards' (2015) community capacity building concept, and Giulianotti et al (2019) Sportland concept.

Schulenkorf (2012, 2017) has developed the S4D framework, drawing on the already existing work by Coalter (2007 cited by Coalter, 2010) and Kidd (2008) and aiming to respond Chalip's (2004) call for a process-oriented framework guiding the social utility of sport and event projects. In other words, how to link sport and events towards community development, intergroup contact, and social capital. The framework is extracted from three different theoretical and practical research fields: sport and event management, community participation, and SDP (Schulenkorf, 2012). These three different components complement each other. Indeed, the implementation of strategically planned SDP programmes by local communities, NGOs, governments and external change agents is enabled by sport events, as it gives local communities the platform to engage and participate in activities enhancing their capacity to build intergroup contact, social and human capital (Schulenkorf, 2012). These desired long-term outcomes are made possible through the S4D framework, giving projects a certain flexibility and the ability to navigate in countries where conflicts between other nations or within their own borders is occurring (e.g. Israel/Palestine; Libya; Uganda).

Schulenkorf (2012) has paved the way for more research using the S4D framework and established its suitability in the achievement of sustainable community/inter-community empowerment. Thus, after having reviewed the literature post Schulenkorf's (2012) S4D

framework, Edwards (2015) efforts to present the community capacity building theory from a public health perspective has given valuable insights. Starting with the definition developed by Wendel et al (2009, cited by Edwards, 2015) defying community capacity building as "a set of dynamic traits, resources, and associational patterns that can be brought to bear for community building" (p. 9). The definition makes reference to the building of tangible (e.g. sport infrastructures, transports) and intangible (e.g. social cohesion, social capital, human capital) resources occurring during the development of SDP initiatives or the staging of sport events (local, national or global) for communities. Thus, Wendel et al (2009, cited by Edwards, 2015) have established seven dimensions in which community capacity can be built: skillset, knowledge, and resources; social relationships; structures and systems for dialogue within communities; quality leadership; civic participation; value system; and learning culture.

Edwards' (2015) analysis clearly shows the growing link between SDP initiatives and sport events and the impact they have on community's capacity building. However, it remains important to be aware that sport alone cannot contribute to full economic, social, and cultural capital, leading minority groups (e.g. poor, socially excluded, ethnically excluded, girls and women) to be marginalised and unable to develop community capacity. Therefore, Giulianotti et al (2019) have stressed the importance for the renewing of SDP conceptualisation through a new approach called Sportland. This call comes from the pressure of the new political development across the world (e.g. Brexit, China One Belt on Road program, Trump' America first ideologies), the increase in divergent visions on development between nations (e.g. USA, China vs Nordic countries) (Gjølberg, 2010; Tvedt, 1998, cited by Giulianotti et al, 2019), and the growth of global inequalities (e.g. North to South) enhancing the desire from South continents to increase South to South cooperation (Giulianotti et al, 2019). In other words, the authors are calling for a collaboration between Aidland, Sportland and Peaceland to

contextualised and reinforce the sector, through a new set of global policy (exit neoliberalism, in social policy) and the change in global leadership (exit UNOSDP).

The importance of the SDP impact on community development is clear. Indeed, Edwards' (2015) development of the community capacity building theory clearly shows the positive impact SDP initiatives and SMEs structures have on communities. Further, Giulianotti et al (2019) through their call for a new SDP conceptual framework taking into account the current uncertainty around the political, social, environmental and economic global changes, demonstrate that communities are constantly under the threat of the changes, however as their article was published in 2019, no further data has been found answering their call. Therefore, Schulenkorf (2012) S4D framework by encompassing sport and event management, community participation, and SDP notions, present a comprehensive framework for this study, as community development can be foster by SDP programmes taking place into SMEs structure. The relationship between SDP programmes and SMEs is an important factor for communities' and individual's empowerment. Thus, establishing the different links contributing to their growing relationship is crucial to this study and will be conducted in the next part.

2.3. Sport for development and sport mega-events

2.3.1. The IOC relationship towards the SDP movement

Historically speaking the IOC has shown some bipolarity towards international development, as for instance IOC had a clear involvement vis-à-vis sport for good with the revival of the modern Olympic in 1894, but has also suddenly cut short the sport for development IOAC (see "from sport for good to sport for development" part) project. In contrast, in the late 1990s, the UN's emergence as a global SDP stakeholder did not come as a surprise, given their strong

belief that sport could contribute to the development of social capital and community capacity building, shown through the MDGs' adoption, followed by the appointment of Adolf Ogi as special adviser to Kofi Annan (United Nation Secretary General) on Sport for Development and Peace in 2001 and the review and inventory by the United Nations Inter-Agency Task Forces on the various sport actions made by the United Nation system in 2002 (Beutler, 2008; Coalter, 2010) (Darnell, 2019; Coalter, 2010; Kidd, 2008, Edwards, 2015).

The turning point occurred in 2003, when the United Nations General Assembly adopted sport as a tool to promote, implement and achieve the MDGs, in the wake of the first International Conference on Sport and Development Magglingen conference organised in Switzerland, gathering the different actors of the international sport and international development community, resulting in the formation of the International Platform on Sport and Development (sportanddev.org) (Darnell et al, 2019; Coalter, 2010). Two years after, in 2005, the United Nation Office on Sport for Development and Peace (UNOSDP) was created, after the second Magglingen Conference (Darnell et al, 2019). Be that as it may, scepticism grew around MDGs' techniques of measurement, responses towards pressing humanitarian crisis (refugees), and concrete impacts on sustainable social changes, despite having reshaped in 2015, the unmet MDGs into the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), has left the UN facing its incapacity to institutionalise the SDP sector within its complex and multi-layered system (Darnell et al, 2019). Hence, on May 4th, 2017, the United Nations Secretary-General, Antonio Guterres, and the President of the International Olympic Committee (IOC), Thomas Bach, both agreed to a direct partnership and the closure of the United Nation Office on Sport for Development and Peace (UNOSDP) (International Olympic Committee, 2017), raising questions around SDP' future and SDGs' role.

Under this new shift the Global South has increased its influence towards Global North SDP actors, as a South-South cooperation started to emerge, challenging the monopole of the long-established neo-colonialist North–South approach. Consequently, as the growth of SDP projects involving local communities occurred across the Global South, the IOC's influence within the SDP movement took another turn, leaving SDP actors (e.g. scholars, NGOs, potential hosting nations) wonder, what role SDP programmes will have towards legacy generation within IOC Olympic Game's framework? The notion that SMEs contributes to leverage social, cultural and environmental legacies, has been contrasted by the growing belief among researchers, hosting government, hosting communities, NGOs, and SMEs organisers that SMEs leave negative economic legacy. Thus, the next part reviews the existing literature on legacy developed within IOC's framework.

2.3.2. IOC's contribution to legacy

Evolving in a globalised world where technological advances have propelled medias as the dictators of the global conversation, sport mega-events (SMEs) have been subjects to increased scrutiny regarding their capacity to generate sustainable economic returns without impacting the social, cultural and environmental health of hosting communities (Rogerson, 2016; Preuss, 2015, 2019). In other words, the recent years have seen an increasing contestation around the staging of Olympic Games (e.g. Rio 2016; Soltchi 2014; Beijing 2008) as hosts and organisers have for instance breached human rights such as media censorship, forced eviction, migrant labour rights (freedom), and political pression towards social groups (e.g. LGBT) (McGillivray et al, 2018; Talbot and Carter, 2018; Horne, 2018), jeopardising potential legacy outcomes.

Legacy outcomes in hosting SMEs are a vital part of the bidding process but not always understood by bidding countries, as academics and practitioners have struggled to extract a

unanimous definition and conceptual framework (Cornelissen et al, 2011; Preuss 2015; Scheu et al, 2019). However, while conducting the literature review Preuss' (2007) legacy definition appeared to be the most cited, leading to the elaboration of several studies (Preuss & Gratton, 2008; Scheu et al, 2019; Preuss, 2015,2019; Rogerson, 2016; Misener et al, 2015; Cornelissen et al, 2011). Preuss (2007) has developed the following definition:

"Irrespective of the time of production and space, legacy is all planned and unplanned, positive and negative, tangible and intangible structures created for and by a sport event that remain longer than the event itself" (Preuss, 2007, p. 211).

The notion of tangible (e.g. urban planning, social and cultural infrastructures, sport facilities) and intangible factors (e.g. employments, tourism, skills, international recognition, nation branding, community empowerment, increase of cultural and social values) are benefiting the hosting communities (figure 2 see appendix) (Cornelissen et al, 2011; Preuss, 2007; Preuss & Gratton, 2008; Smith, 2014), and can be fostered within SDP programmes. A formidable example of event leveraging tangible and intangible legacy outcomes has been London 2012. The application of several programmes such as the urbanisation plan for East London, the creation of "The Get Set" programme operated at the London's 2012 legacy action hub ,the "Young Leader" educational project, and the "UK's Physical Education and Sport Strategy for Young People (PESSYP)" programme implemented and coordinated through schools, clubs and communities around the UK to promote sport participation amongst diverse youth groups (Griffiths & Armour, 2013, p. 214), appeared to be the first official integration of leveraging legacy strategies within a bidding candidature (Rogerson, 2016; Smith, 2014; Griffiths & Armour, 2013).

The IOC (IOC, 2017, cited by Scheu et al, 2019) in an effort to conceptualise SMEs legacy theory, has adopted Preuss' (2019) legacy framework based on seven fundamental premises: Olympic Games cause structural changes; impacting people and space; creating values (e.g. gentrification); evolving in different dimensions; impacting the quality of life; evolving over time; bound to a territory which resulted on six structural changes (urban development; environmental enhancement; policies governance; human development; intellectual property, social development) (figure 4 see appendix). In a context where a shift has occurred in the past two decades in the awarding of SMEs, with the rise of the Global South and the current dominance of the Asian continent (PyeongChang 2018, Tokyo 2020, Beijing 2022), Preuss' (2019) legacy framework adoption by the IOC is vital in this environment to ensure that legacy's expectations are reached (Grix et al, 2017). This has come after IOC created the 2020 Olympic agenda, in 2014, followed one year later with the new IOC Sustainability and Legacy commission responsible for the measurement and coordination of Olympic Games legacy (Grix et al, 2017). Therefore, the latter's Preuss (2019) framework has given a clear structure for the generation of sustainable legacy, as well as a strong foundation for potential hosting countries candidature process. However, it leaves us wonder which possible implication SDP programmes can have on the generation of social legacy? and if SDP programmes can benefit from SMEs structure to be fostered? Thus, the next part establishes the different connection between the SDP movements and SMEs.

2.3.3. The links between the SPD movement and SMEs

The power of sport to do good and feel good from either an individual (e.g. self – esteem, character building, social capital) or group (e.g. community capacity building, community development / empowerment, nation building) perspective, has been a unifying force and at the foundation of sport mega-events (SMEs) and the SDP relationship (Coalter, 2010; Black

& Northam, 2017; Schulenkorf, 2012; Cornelissen, 2010). While researchers and academia have developed the SDP and SME literature independently from each other (Cornelissen, 2011), the interest from public authorities, NGOs and transnational intensified. An interest emphasized, in 2017, by the closure of the UNOSDP and the direct partnership between the UN and IOC. The timing of this partnership is far from being insignificant, as in the last decade the increase of anti-Olympic movement has forced hosting cities to withdrawal their bid and left potential bidders to question the pertinence to host economically unstainable events, while sport for development and peace initiatives offers long term benefits. Furthermore, SDP programmes used in a context of SME represents a powerful diplomatic or soft power tool for hosting nations seeking to influence and change their global identity (Nation Branding) (Anholt, 2008, cited by Horne, 2017). In the recent years several nations have attempted to use the hosting of Olympic Games to change the global narrative: Russia 2014 Soltchi (e.g. political pressure, media censorship, LGBT rights); Beijing 2008 (e.g. media censorship, Tibet occupation); Rio 2016 (e.g. social issues, favelas cleansing) (Grix et al, 2015; Brannagan & Giulianotti, 2015; McGillivray et al, 2019). Thus, why not joining forces?

The complementarity between SDP initiatives and the staging of SMEs has become more evident in recent years, as the need for SMEs to enhance their implication towards hosting communities social, cultural and environmental development has dramatically been intensified by the emergence of protests , scrutiny around human rights issues, and the increasing influence of radical NGOs, also known as the 4th pillar of the SDP sector, across the world (Giulianotti et al, 2016). Furthermore, Cornelissen's et *al* (2011) argument that SMEs have "very focused and short-range planning targets" (p. 508), whereas SDP programmes and initiatives are plan and established to achieve sustainable developmental objectives. Hence, SMEs hosts and organisers planned legacy has more chance to be achieve in the case of SDP programme integration within the bidding process.

Griffiths and Armour (2013) argued that in order to get legacy's full benefits, it has to be embedded within existing structures. Hence, in the instance that the NGO Right to Play built and implement an SDP programme in the bidding process of a potential Olympic Games hosting country, long-lasting legacy can be achieved, as the SME gives to the SDP programme the structure to develop its developmental objectives and the SDP programme gives the SME the structure to achieved sustainable legacy post event. Thus, by giving a safe space, also called liminal space by Chalip (2006; 2014), and shared space in which individuals share experiences, bridging social inclusion, and bonding communities contributes to social leveraging (Darnell et al, 2019; Schulenkorf, 2012; Cornelissen et *al*, 2011; Putnam, 2000 cited by Coalter, 2010; Schulenkorf et al, 2016). This structural opportunity is crucial to youth, as they represent the biggest demographic group at risk in the global north and south (e.g. refugee situation), along with cleansing operation by developing or developed countries in their cities for the medias and tourists (Nation Branding) (Black and Northam, 2017).

Evolving in a complex and hyper-mediatised environment SME organisers have been challenged by the public and private opinion regarding their lack of transparency and accountability towards social (e.g. human-rights, evictions, sex trafficking, political oppression of group, media propaganda), economic (e.g. host cities bills, abandoned or not in use sport infrastructures), and environmental (e.g. stadium construction, urbanisation = high carbon footprint) issues (Black and Northam, 2017). Therefore, although Cornelissen et *al* (2011) has argued that the SMEs and SDP conceptualisation towards development diverge, as for instance SMEs development emphasis on long-term economic, physical infrastructure and tourism growth, whereas SDP development focuses on human capital, social inclusion, and community development, by focusing in the integration of a bottom-up approach, as opposed to the top-down approach whereby benefits trickles down to the society (Black & Northam, 2017, Coalter, 2010; Schulenkorf et al, 2016), would foster community empowerment, resulting on

sustainable communities and individuals development for SDP programmes and long-lasting

legacies for SMEs. In other words, the SDP/SME cooperation appears to be ineluctable.

Chapter 3: Research method and findings

3.1. Research method

The design of a study is here to support the researcher in the achievement of the study purpose. The research question being rather specific and observing a specific SDP programme, the design of this study has been made possible through an inductive approach, whereby the research process has moved from a specific position to a more general theory, allowing the identification of patterns connecting the SDP movement and SMEs structures (Bryman, 2012). These patterns have evolved into themes after having reviewed the SDP and SMEs literature, allowing the study to interconnect the different themes emanating from the literature. These themes have found their origins from the repetition of concepts and the words attached to these concepts: sport for development and peace programmes; sport for social inclusion; sport a as a social tool; sport use a developmental tool; community capacity building; social change agents; social capital; neoliberalism; globalisation; bottom-up vs top-down; positive social legacy; sport mega-events structural changes. Hence, the study is looking at an in-depth single case study, by looking at the SFT programme as part of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games, as a case study, exploring a contemporary real-life phenomenon (Yin, 1984, cited by Zainal, 2007), using qualitative data to address the research question.

The use of qualitative data as opposed to quantitative data (data represented by numbers, quantification) for this study lies in the flexibility this approach offers, as well as its focus on words, texts and images, which has allowed this study to analyse documents (Descombe, 2010). This notion of flexibility has been determinant in the build-up of the aims, objectives and research question, as the theoretical and empirical literature surrounding the SDP and SMEs has been developed around a variety of sport disciplines: sport events; public policy,

conflict and peace; sport management; sociology ; media; gender studies; health (Schulenkorf et al, 2016). Therefore, by focusing on the sport events, public policy, conflict and peace, and sociology literature, the study has identified a path to link SDP and SMEs concepts together and further argue for the adoption of an SDP framework embedded within SMEs bidding process. However, the elaboration of a qualitative research design has been under criticism for its problem of generalisation, replication issues, lack of transparency, and by being too subjective (Bryman, 2012). Further, it was crucial to identify that my personal implication via the expression of values, personal beliefs and feelings can transpire at any point of the research and can cause the research to be bias (Descombe, 2010; Bryman, 2012). Thus, throughout the research it was crucial to be self-aware of possible bias appearing and being the more objective possible by adopting a reflecting position.

This study is looking at a social phenomenon and its construction around SDP programmes and SME links. Hence an ontological constructionism position was taken, giving this study the possibility to develop an evolving vision of the social reality, by considering the research question, the data gathered, and the use of the findings, rather than seeing it as definitive (Descombe, 2010). The social reality of this study is taking place in an environment fostering multiple realities, as when an SDP programme is undertaken using SMEs structure, it involves different culture, communities, and beliefs.

Therefore, by taking into consideration the strategy and philosophy taken by this study, it is important to determine the right case study. Indeed, several case studies have been identified, for instance Yin (1984, cited by Zainal, 2007) developed three categories: exploratory, is set to explore a social phenomenon; descriptive, is set to describe the nature of the phenomenon; explanatory, is set to identify data in surface and in depth. Further, McDonough and McDonough (1997, cited by Zainal, 2007) have identified two categories: the interpretive case

study, in which the researcher aim to interpret the data through the development of conceptual categories; and the evaluative case studies, based on interpretive principles but the researcher can add their judgment. Therefore, evolving in the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games context, the SFT initiative enables this study to take an explorative approach, by looking at the role and relationship SDP programmes have within SMEs structures. Furthermore, due to recent interest in the academic literature to link the two concepts, this study also takes an interpretative approach (McDonough and McDonough, 1997, cited by Zainal, 2007).

Case studies have been criticised for lacking rigour, leading to biased findings and conclusions. The design of case studies is crucial to ensure the validity and robustness of the selected research method. Thus, to answer the research question, this study has been designed around a single case, in which the data has been selected through the time period of the SFT programme (2013 to 2020) by using a purposive sample. The choice of this sampling was driven by the fact that such sample allow the research question to be answered and to reach the goals set out. Therefore, the study has chosen to analysis documents such as press release and official speeches from the Prime minister (e.g. Prime Minister of Japan and His Cabinet), journal articles published in governmental newspapers (e.g. The Japan Journal (TJJ); The Government of Japan), official reports about the SFT programmes published in the official website of the programme, and an article from the UN News database (see Table 1 – documents collection).

Table 1. Documents collection.

Government Documents (online) – published as articles, reports, press release, official statements	Official "Sport for Tomorrow" website; Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Japan; Japan Sport Council; Prime Minister of Japan and His Cabinet; Japan International Cooperation Agency; The Tokyo Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games.
Non-state Documents (online)	United Nations: UN News.
State Journal (online)	"The Japan Journal" (TJJ); "We are Tomodachi" The Government of Japan

This study has chosen documents in relation to the SFT programme as the main datasets. The selection of these documents lies in the fact that they were free to access, easily accessible, ensured the validity of the research question and design, and were reliable due to their origins (official websites). Furthermore, as the timeframe is crucial for the purpose of this study, these documents ensured their validity and reliability by respecting the SFT timeframe. However, the datasets selected and analysed have been reduced due to language barriers, as the event

occurs in Japan, most documents are in Japanese. Further, the lack of international exposure to well-known NGOs or private companies, resulted in a small sample. Despite these limitations, the collection and analysis of the data have allowed the identification of themes.

The qualitative data analysed was coded according to the principles of the thematic content analysis (Braun et al, 2019) into the following patterns: volunteers; sport diplomacy; Japanese sport culture; international sport. These patterns have enabled this study to extract two themes, the "Sport for Tomorrow used as a cultural diplomacy tool" and the "Sport for Tomorrow: a representation of the Japanese elite". The findings were associated to the academic literature on SDP, along with the relationship between SDP and SMEs.

3.2. Limitations

Academic sources were limited in relation to the SDP context in Japan, due to the recentness of SDP development in the country and the lack of empirical studies looking at the SFT programme. Thus, the data gathered regarding the SFT programme mainly come from governmental sources, in which the primary language was Japanese, reducing the sample size and the variety in documents found. This has impacted our capacity to develop a consequent findings section. Furthermore, despite a comprehensive SDP and SMEs legacy literature, the limited number of available sources relating to the SDP/SMEs relationship, has limited the development of the discussion section. However, these limitations are mainly due to the methodological choices, as in addition to documents the research would have benefited from another set of data such as interview of experts in the field of SDP and SMEs, or observations. The choices made on the methodological part were driven by restraint financial resources, multiple hesitation on the study focus impacting time management, and a geographical relocation.

3.3. Findings

3.2.1. Sport for Tomorrow used as a cultural diplomacy tool

The Sport for Tomorrow (SFT) programme was established in 2013 by the Japanese government, but it was in 2014 with the establishment of the SFT consortium, aiming to promote cooperation, coordination and a common vision between involved organisations, that the SFT programme was fully been articulated to reach their goal of impacting 10 million people in 100 countries by 2020. The formation of the SFT consortium originated from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA) efforts to create the Japan Sport Agency (JSA) as the supervising institution. This supervision role was over the steering committee, constituted by fourteen organisations, such as the Japanese Paralympic Committee (JPC), the Tsukuba international Academy for Sport Studies (TIAS), the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), and four hundred and twenty six consortium members (universities, local governments, NGOs, private companies and sport related groups) engaged to meet SFT objectives (see figure 1) (Japan Journal, 2019; Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2015; Sport4Tomorrow, no date).
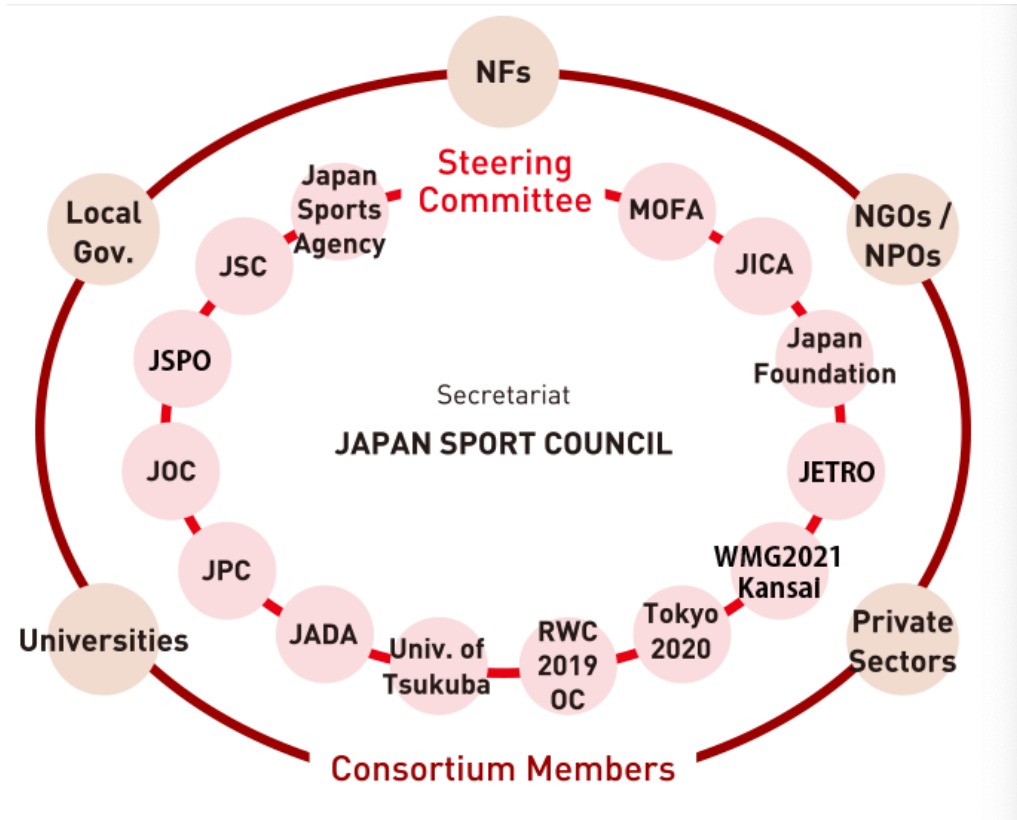
Figure 1: Sport for Tomorrow actors. (Sport 4 Tomorrow, check date)

The SFT programme has been created around three pillars: International Cooperation and Exchange through Sport; The International Sport Academy; the "PLAY TRUE 2020" programme (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2015). The central pillar of the SFT programme is the International Cooperation and Exchange through Sport initiative, aiming to promote the Olympic movement and the tradition of Japanese sport in developing countries. The commissioner of the JSA Dr Daichi Suzuki (2018) declared that:

"Sports in Japan emphasize education, character building, and development of personal discipline. I hope that SFT will help people in other countries experience the kind of Japanese spirit that these sports embody" (The Government of Japan, 2018).

This desire was fulfilled through the partnership between Heart of Gold (a Cambodian non-profit organisation (NPO) promoting international development through sport) and the Japan Sport Council (JSC), in which they have established a curriculum for physical activities (Sport4Tomorrow, 2017) in 1,300 middle school pupils. Further, it has been reported that the first lady, Mrs Akie Abe, under the SFT framework has provided to children sport equipment in Rio and Africa (Sport4Tomorrow, 2016). However, the most important manifestation of Japanese culture happened through the staging of "UNDOKAI" (a Japanese-style sport festival organised every year in Japanese schools) in 27 countries, in which 40,000 people (until 2016) have participated, with Malawi hosting the event three years in a row (from 2014 to 2016) (Sport4tomorrow, 2016). SFT initiatives have been implemented throughout Japan's embassies and consulates networks across the Global South. Thus, through JICA's volunteers and grants programmes, developing countries have enhanced population's capacity to develop sport facilities, to use adequate equipment, and benefits from better technical sport knowledge.

The SFT programme in 2017, as part of its framework saw the "the Projects for Sport Diplomacy Enhancements" undertaking two major initiatives, with the visit of fourteen Colombian woman rugby players, invited to discover Japanese sport culture through activities such as judo; and four Karate instructors went to Saudi Arabia to train Japanese savoir-faire to coaches, athletes, and children (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2017). The following year, the UN and the Organising Committee of Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games agreed on the contribution of sport to achieve the 2030 SDGs (UN News, 2018). Agreement materialised via the SFT programme and the creation between 2018 and 2019 of five initiatives that have taken place in different part of the world (e.g. Zambia, India, Laos), involving different sports (e.g. Rugby, Baseball, swimming), with the aim to achieve different SDGs (e.g. 3 "Good health and well-being"; 5 "Gender equality"; 10 "reduced inequalities") (Sport4Tomorrow, 2018, 2019).

The Anti-Doping programme aims to sensibilise the global population from the risks of sport doping activities, to ensure the development of educational and training programmes for youth and to protect the values of sport practice at all level (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2015). Therefore, the Japanese government have established the "PLAY TRUE 2020" initiative, embodying this aim.

3.2.2. Community impact: absence of local community development

The second pillar of the SFT programme has been built around an international network comprising the IOC, the MEXT, colleges and universities, with the aim to foster sport-related research for local students (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2015). The "International Sport Academy" represents the framework in which students have the possibility to enhance their Olympic and Paralympic movement knowledge, along with sport science, sport management, SDP, and education (PE) (Sport4Tomorrow, no date). Three Japanese institutions have been active participants on the development of sport-related research since Tokyo was awarded the Olympic and Paralympic Games in 2013: the University of Tsukuba, through the International Academy for Sport Studies (TIAS); the Nippon Science University, and their coach developer academy; the Kanoya National Institute of fitness and sports (Sport4Tomorrow, no date).

In 2013, the Prime Minister Shinzo Abe declared that "under our new plan, "Sport for Tomorrow," young Japanese people will go out into the world in even larger numbers. They will help build schools, bring in equipment, and create sports education programs" (Prime Minister of Japan and His Cabinet, 2013). Promises made on the basis that Japan benefit from a large and well establish volunteer programme via JICA. Thus, several initiatives have been conducted by JICA's volunteers across the developing world, with the cooperation between the J. League (Japanese professional football league) and the JICA Thailand Office and the

coordination of JICA volunteers, whereby they invited 135 disadvantaged students across Thailand to watch the 2017 J. League Asia Challenge (Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2017), being the most noticeable through the SFT programme framework

Chapter 4: Discussion, conclusion and recommendations

4.1. Discussion

4.1.1. SFT design and implementation: A neo-colonist approach

Since the TOCOPG created the SFT programme, scrutiny emerged as a result of the context in which SDP are perceived by the Japanese government and the population. Scrutiny in terms of the Games vision and principles the TOCOPG adopted. This scrutiny is also due to London 2012 success in generating social legacy through SDP programmes and uncertainty around Rio 2016 SDP legacy (Rogerson, 2016). Thus, this scrutiny had an effect on the narrative surrounding the developmental phase of the event and the different actions taken by the TOCOPG. This, however, has led to question the lack of presence of international SDP stakeholders (e.g. NGOs, private companies, foundations) in the different stages, from the initial creation to the implementation of the SFT programmes.

The constitution of the steering committee did leave little doubt about Japan's motivations to centralise their efforts towards international cooperation. Despite having the power to trickle down SFT initiative to their four hundred and twenty-six consortium members, by using already existing infrastructures, the SFT consortium developed initiatives in developing countries. One of the most noticeable examples, was the creation of five different programmes articulated around the completion of different SDGs. In term of SFT design, the formation of the three pillars aligns with Japan's government desire to assert their power to the Asian region but comes in contradiction with the redundant argument that Japan has bid in order to

regenerate the regions touched by the 2011 earthquake. Thus, the development of overseas SFT initiatives has shown Japan's intention to gain soft power (Nye, 2008).

Ultimately, the "Project for Sport Diplomacy Enhancements" implemented within the SFT framework was used by the Japanese government to gain strategical cultural diplomacy influence within developing nations. The capacity for developed nations to implement sport programmes reside in structural power, represented by embassies and consulates networks. Hence, these networks are crucial for developed nations to diffuse SDP initiatives as de-politicized tools generating soft power. As Coalter (2010) argued this diffusion of power represent a neo-colonialist approach.

Giulianotti et al (2016) findings of four distinct areas in which neo-colonialist approach impacts the design and implementation of SDP programmes, has demonstrated under two areas that the SFT programme followed a neo-colonialist approach. The creation of the "International Center for Study" contradict the call for enhance evidence on programmes impact, conducted by a more diverse set of researchers (South-South studies, South-North) (Schulenkorf et *al,* 2016). However, this argument has to be taken with precaution, as this study is conducted before the staging of the Games and it might be that researches between Japanese researchers and researchers from a developing country in which an SFT initiative was undertaken will be published post Games. JICA's volunteers and grants programmes, shows that instead of using a volunteer workforce represented by local communities, the SFT programme has imposed volunteers with little knowledge of local cultures.

These approaches are symptomatic of the current Global repartition of power, as the Global North is pretending to develop human capital in local communities, when in reality sport under

the international development trend is used as a de-politised tool to access new resources. Therefore, the position taken by the Japanese government in designing and implementing the SFT programme, raise uncertainty around SDP sector's capacity to shift the power to the Global South, to sustainably develop the SDP movement within Japan and their contribution to the international narrative, and to leverage Japanese local communities instead of their cultural diplomatic influence.

4.1.2. SFT's impact on disadvantaged local communities: Policies integration

As Edwards (2015) notes, the educational role of SDP programme is a central parameter for the development of community capacity building. Thus, the "PLAY TRUE 2020" initiative embodies this aim and seek to achieve positive long-terms outcomes through the development of global networks (e.g. International conferences, social science research programmes) and a values-based education through the "play true values" initiative (Sport4Tomorrow, no date). This initiative is the perfect representation of the Sport for Development and Peace Theory (SFDT) developed by Lyras and Peachey (2011), combining Allport's (1954, cited by Lyras and Peachey, 2011) inter-group contact theory (e.g. play true initiatives) with Lyras and Peachey's (2011) idea to integrate cultural enrichment programmes, promoting globalisation awareness (e.g. development of global networks). Additionally, an important body of researchers (Giulianotti, 2011; Schulenkorf, 2017; Darnell et *al,* 2019; Kidd, 2008; Levermore, 2008; Peachey & Wiley, 2011) have demonstrated the importance of the educational structure for communities and individuals through SDP programmes, such as the Mathare Youth Sports association (MYSA), the Sport Coaches' outreach (SCORE), and the Dove Project (DOM).

The second pillar of the SFT programme, the "International Sport Academy", also represents an educational structure. However, the academic development of Olympic and Paralympic movement, sport science, sport management, SDP, and education (PE) have foster knowledge for the Japanese elite. An elite represented by the JICA volunteers, athletes and coaches benefiting from the support of the SFT framework. A support that has not been provided to communities touched by the 2011 earthquake, homeless, elderly people, and youth at risk, as throughout the analysis no mention of these communities has been found. This pose problems as Coalter (2010), Schulenkorf et *al* (2016), Burnett (2009), Darnell et *al,* (2019) have urged the SDP sector to put local communities at the core of SDP programme development and implementation, but the SFT programme shows us that the Japanese government took the top-down approach instead of including local communities in a bottom-up approach.

The Japanese approach did not take into consideration the repeated calls from scholars (Giulianotti et al, 2019; Darnell et al, 2019; McGillivray & Turner, 2018; Coalter, 2010; Schulenkorf et al, 2016; Burnett, 2009; Giulianotti et al, 2019) to use local communities as the foundation of SDP programmes development, posing risks for minorities communities. Among these vulnerable communities the findings and the literature review showed that disabled persons have not be taken into consideration within SDP initiatives in Japan, confirmed by the SFT programme. An exclusion demonstrating that developed societies have constructed social and cultural barriers towards disability, impeding access to community life. As McGillivray et *al* (2015) have noted "disability is socially constructed in relation to broader societal structures" (pp. 453). Thus, the inclusion or exclusion of disabled communities is dictated by these societal structures (e.g. inaccessible building and transport, social barriers, cultural stereotypes), which in a context where Tokyo 2020 is hosting the Paralympic Games, the

absence of SDP initiatives towards disabled communities across Japan, demonstrates deficiency in the development and integration of SDP policy by SMEs hosting nations.

As the aforementioned illustrates, the design and implementation of the SFT programme has impacted the Japanese elite instead of disadvantaged or at-risk local communities. This situation is in contradiction with the SDP movement values, as no social change or development social capital and community capacity building occurred. Hence, these outcomes demonstrate the cruciality for SDP policies to be adopted and enforcing the integration of hosting nations local communities in the bidding process.

4.1.3. SDP and IOC's relationship: Two visions, a new environment, a shared belief

A crucial aspect for the development and recognition of SDP and SMEs relationship lies in the development of a new theoretical framework or the adoption of an already existing theoretical framework. This argument draws on the growing body of literature calling for a renewal of the SDP theoretical framework (Coalter, 2010; Cornelissen et *al,* 2011; Giulianotti et *al,* 2019). However, since Coalter's (2010) and Cornelissen's et *al* (2011) critics, the SDP literature has dramatically grown, as the literature review of this study shows, the theoretical frameworks and empirical studies covers a wide range of sport and development topics. Furthermore, this year Giulianotti, Coalter, Collisson and Darnell's (2019) have called for a new critical approach taking into consideration the political and leadership changes that have impacted the SDP sector. Therefore, in front of these calls, this study emphasis on the necessity for the integration of an SDP theoretical framework within IOC's bidding and candidature process.

The changes made, in 2015, around the three-stages candidature process emphasizing sustainable Games and an enhanced dialogue between IOC and hosting nations, was a positive sign for the SDP movement. Thus, when the UNOSDP closed in 2017, officialising the direct partnership between the IOC and UN, the SDP movement saw a perfect opportunity to integrate sport programmes within IOC's structure, in order to leverage South-South cooperation, to generate positive social legacy, and establish sport as the leading international development movement. In contrast, the IOC saw this as an opportunity to conciliate its position regarding the emergence of public protestations, anti-Olympic movements, and radical NGOs (Giulianotti et *al,* 2016; Giulianotti, 2011). Hence, the different positions taken has left both sides uncertain about the future direction to take. However, the IOC and the SDP movement both believes in the power of sport to develop a feel-good sensation for individual and communities. Thus, in 2017, through an agreement between the IOC and the TOCOPG, a change in IOC policies was initiated via the UN's 2030 SDGs agenda integration in Olympic Games development, impacting hosting nations.

As was illustrated in the first part of the discussion, the integration through the SFT programme of five programmes aiming to develop different SDGs outcomes, demonstrate the potential influence IOC can have on the SDP movement. This also shows SDP programmes values for the IOC, to enable hosting nations to foster long-lasting legacies. However, hosting nations in order to foster sustainable social legacy should orientate their focus towards local communities. London 2012 understood the importance of leveraging their local communities, by using existing structure such as schools and sport clubs, whereas the TOCOPG used embassies and consulates structures, neglecting their local communities.

This aspect of existing structure is fundamental in the built-up of SDP programme. As Griffiths and Armour (2013) noted, sustainable legacy is developed within existing structures. Thus, even though SMEs are a very focused and short-lived experience, the development of legacy can be sustained by SDP programmes if they are embedded within existing structures (Cornelissen et *al,* 2011). Furthermore, the closure of the UNOSDP has redistricted the cards, and the SDP sector can change their position in the global conversation, with the direct partnership between the UN and the IOC, NGOs have the possibility to benefit from two of the most influential Global networks.

4..2. Conclusion and recommendations

This study has addressed the possible integration of an SDP framework within IOC's structure and the impacts on the generation of social and cultural legacy for hosting nations this potential integration could have, by addressing the case of the SFT programme formation within the bidding and construction phases of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. We begin by determining SFT's design, implementation and impact on local communities, and the wider ramifications such initiatives can have on developing a sustainable SDP sector within Japan. By examining the design of the SFT programme, it appears that the Japanese government has used the "Project for Sport Diplomacy Enhancements" as a platform to gain soft power, through their embassies and consulates network. This top-down approach is a common practice by developed nations, despite scholars' attempts (Coalter; 2010; Schulenkorf et *al* ,2016; Burnett, 2009) to enforce the bottom-up approach, Japan saw the SFT programme as a cultural diplomacy tool. Despite Japan's neo-colonist approach, the development of educational initiatives such as the "PLAY TRUE 2020" and the "International Sport Academy", showed a desire to develop community capacity building. The Japanese government took inspiration

from London 2012, by establishing the educational SFT initiatives throughout their University network. These programmes have been tailored for the Japanese elite, contradicting the SDP movement values of leveraging disadvantaged individuals and communities' social capital. These contradicting values shows Japan's limitation to develop a sustainable SDP sector.

The study then set out the relationship between the IOC and the SDP and the potential role IOC's structure plays. A relationship founded on the basis that sport events provides a safe place, fostering feel-good emotions, intergroup-contact, and community engagement. SDP programmes offers to SMEs the possibility to develop long-lasting social and cultural legacy, by using IOC's structure as platform, sport programmes are diffused to local communities and foster legacy. The direct partnership between the UN and IOC has changed the nature of the SDP sector and IOC's relationship. The SDP movement developing social legacy through the implementation of sport for development initiative aiming at the achievement of the 2030 SDGs agenda and IOC's aim to appease anti-Olympic movements, does not indicate a potential cooperation around a plan of action. Although a growing uncertainty is felt by the different actors, IOC's structure represents the perfect point of entry for SDP policies to be implemented.

The literature has called for a new comprehensive SDP theoretical framework, reframing the theoretical concepts and choosing for a global leader coordinating the main policies. This study has emphasized the necessity for an establishment of a theoretical framework embedding both concepts, and its application within IOC's structure.

The design and ways of implementation for future initiatives will be crucial, as this study showed, local communities have to be at the core of the creation and implementation process, by enforcing a bottom-up approach throughout SDP and SMEs framework. The exclusion of the disabled community in the SFT programme, emphasis this need for enhanced accountability.

A possible remedy resides in the integration of a selection of SDP NGOs in the three-stages candidature and bidding process as an assistant for hosting nations. The influential networks, legitimacy, and expertise an NGO such as The Right to Play represents, will be a perfect ally for hosting nations. SDP programmes implemented within this structure have the potential to create long-lasting social and cultural legacies.

Although the support from an NGO represents a powerful addition, in order to give hosting nations a better guidance, the integration of an SDP theoretical framework embedding the SMEs and SDP concepts, will enhance SDP's programmes importance. Within the current body of studies, the S4D framework, developed by Schulenkorf (2012) unify both SMEs and SDP concept, fostering community development, intergroup contact, and social capital. The adoption of both NGO assistance and the S4D framework within IOC's candidature and bidding process, will ensure a clear framework for future hosting nations, ensuring local communities' inclusion, the sustainable development of the SDP sector in hosting nation, and give an enhance global recognition to the SDP sector.

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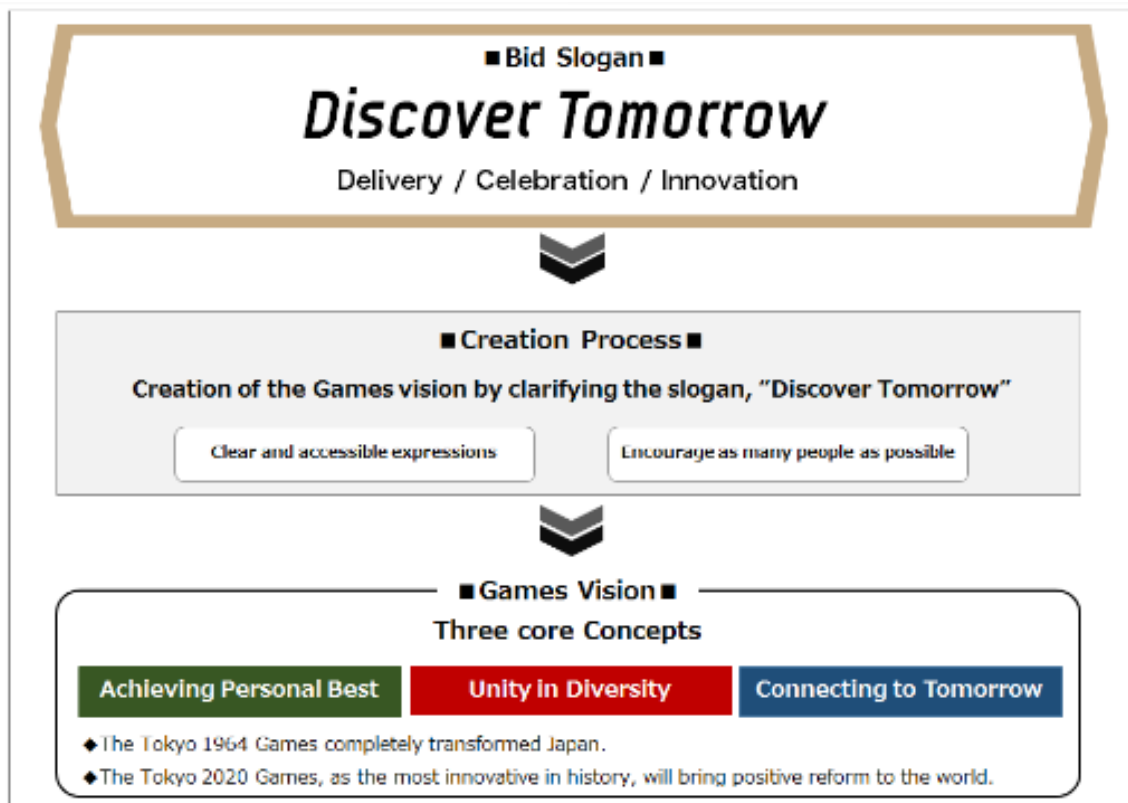
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Appendices

Appendix 1 - Figure 1 – The Tokyo Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games (2015)

Discover Tomorrow Bidding strategy for the 2020 Tokyo Olympic and Paralympic Committee. Available at: https://tokyo2020.org/en/games/plan/data/GFP-EN-a.pdf (access 21.10.2019)

■Bid Slogan■

Discover Tomorrow

Delivery / Celebration / Innovation

■Creation Process■

Creation of the Games vision by clarifying the slogan, "Discover Tomorrow"

Clear and accessible expressions

Encourage as many people as possible

■Games Vision■

Three core Concepts

Achieving Personal Best | Unity in Diversity | Connecting to Tomorrow

◆The Tokyo 1964 Games completely transformed Japan.
◆The Tokyo 2020 Games, as the most innovative in history, will bring positive reform to the world.

Appendix 2- Figure 2 – Giulianotti, R. (2011) 'The Sport, Development and Peace Sector: A Model of Four Social Policy Domains', *Journal of Social Policy, 40*(4), pp 757-776. Available at: doi:10.1017/S0047279410000930 (accessed 21/05/2019)
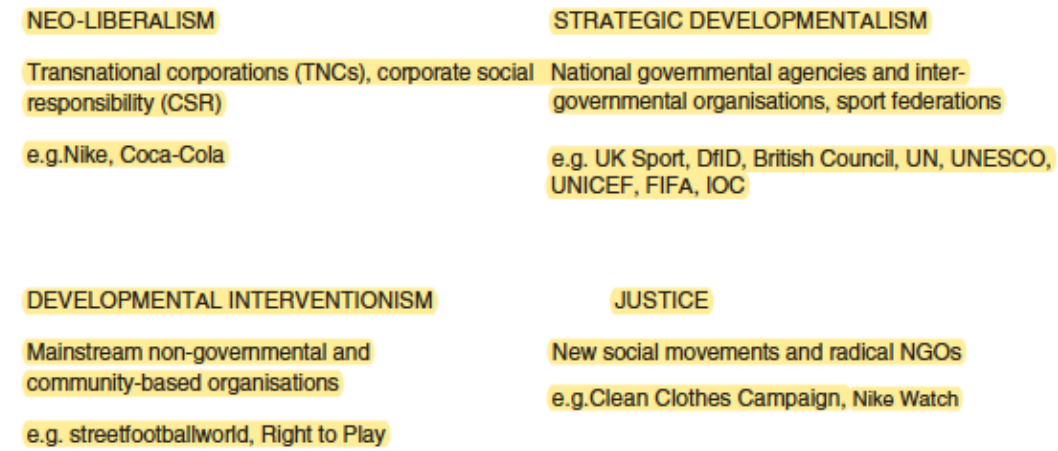
NEO-LIBERALISM

Transnational corporations (TNCs), corporate social responsibility (CSR)

e.g.Nike, Coca-Cola

STRATEGIC DEVELOPMENTALISM

National governmental agencies and inter-governmental organisations, sport federations

e.g. UK Sport, DfID, British Council, UN, UNESCO, UNICEF, FIFA, IOC

DEVELOPMENTAL INTERVENTIONISM

Mainstream non-governmental and community-based organisations

e.g. streetfootballworld, Right to Play

JUSTICE

New social movements and radical NGOs

e.g.Clean Clothes Campaign, Nike Watch

Figure 1. The SDP Social Policy Sector

Appendix 3- Figure 3 – Cornelissen, S., Urmila, B., & Swart, K., (2011) Towards redefining the concept of legacy in relation to sport mega-events: Insights from the 2010 FIFA World Cup, Development Southern Africa, 28:3, 307-318. Available at:

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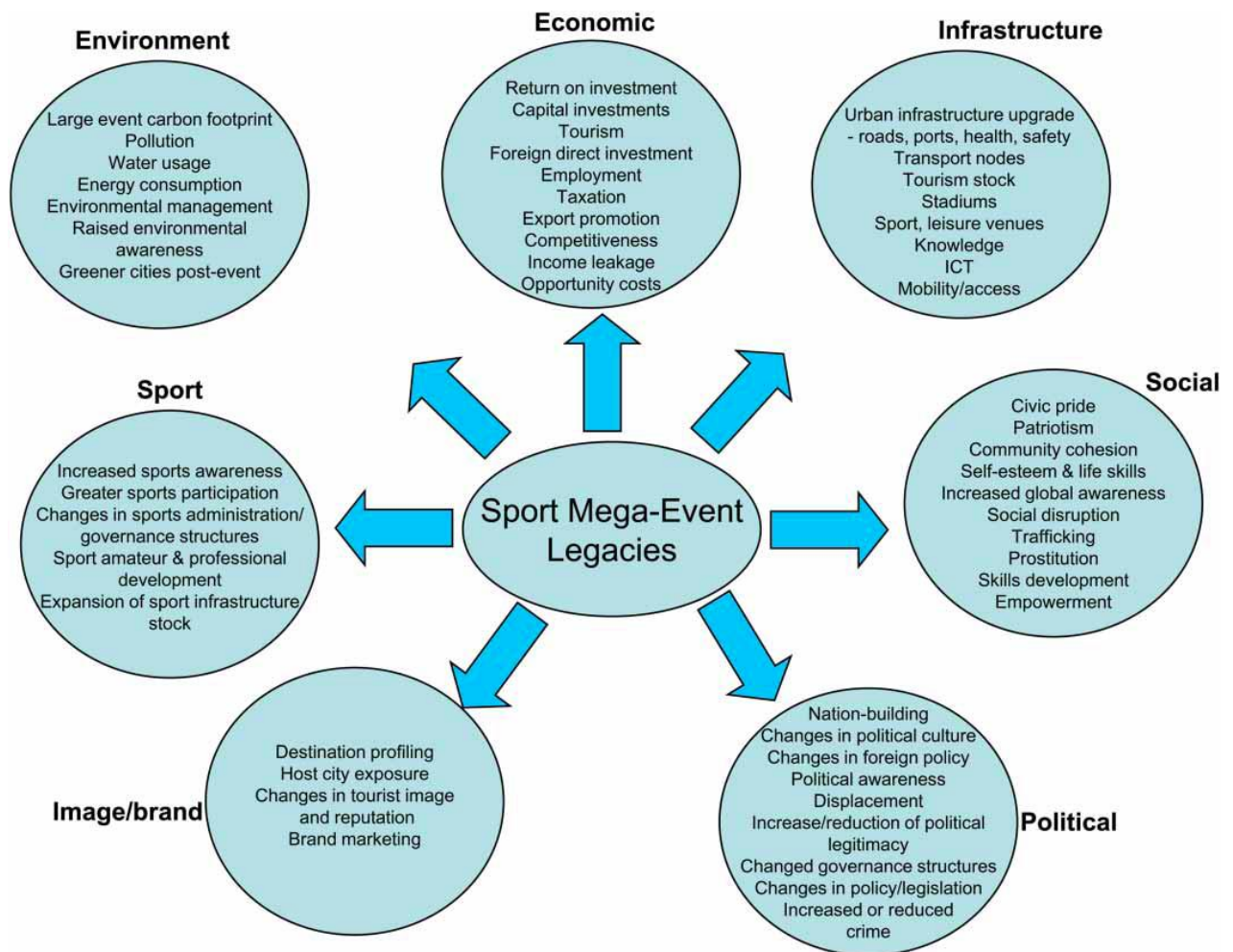
Appendix 4- Figure 4 - Holger Preuss, H., (2019) "Event legacy framework and measurement", *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 11:1, 103-118. Available at: https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/pdf/10.1080/19406940.2018.1490336?needAccess=true (accessed 21/10/2019)
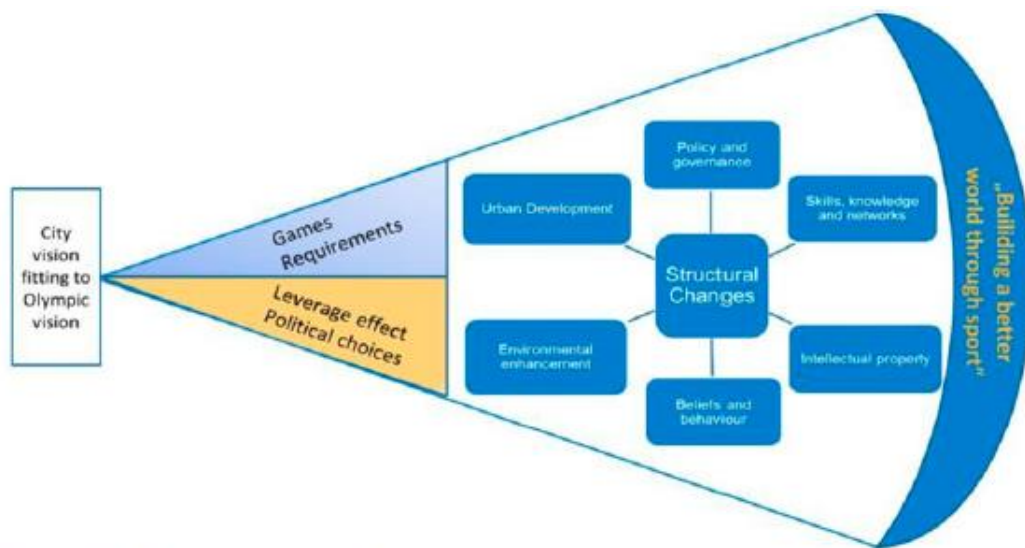
Figure 1. Methods used to study Olympic Games legacy (total number of papers included in analysis: 322)